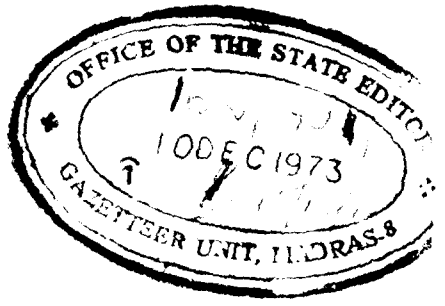
CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT
GAZETTEER



MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

Government of Maharashtra

CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

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PREFACE

THE CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT GAZETTEER WAS FIRST PUBLISHED IN 1909. The Volume was prepared by Mr. L. F. Begbie and edited by Mr. A. E. Nelson. This revised edition has been prepared by the Gazetteers Department, Government of Maharashtra, under the guidance of an Editorial Board. The following are the present members of the Editorial Board:—

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Executive Editor and Secretary [Dr. B. C. Kunte, M.A., Ph.D. (Economics), Ph.D. (History)].

The compilation of the various chapters was initiated during the tenure of my predecessor, Shri P. Setu Madhava Rao, M.A., I.A.S. (Retd.) and the typed manuscript was sent for printing in August 1969 after the approval of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Government of India.

My thanks are due to Shri K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Joint Editor; Dr. V. N. Gurav, M.A., Ph.D., Statistical Officer; and Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A., LL.B., Compiler (Administration); for their valuable assistance throughout the work. My thanks are also due to Shri M. H. Ranade, B.A. (on deputation to Government of Goa as Research Officer); Shri P. N. Narkhede, M.Com.; Smt. S. N. Alawani, B.A.; Shri S. K. Khilare, B.Com., LL.B.; Miss M. N. Dharkar, M.A.; Smt. A. S. Deshmukh, B.A.; and Shri N. R. Patil, M.Com. for their assistance in the publication of the Volume. I am also thankful to the members of the other staff viz., Shri S. K. Purohit, Shri V. B. Sangrulkar and Shri V. J. Gaichor (Assistants), Shri G. M. Narkar (Senior Clerk), Smt. S. M. Nirgude, Shri S. G. Shetye, Shri G. N. Parab, Shri A. M. Bhabal and Miss S. N. Gadre (Clerk-Typists), Shri K. N. Parab (Daftari), Shri B. G. Shinde (Naik) and Sarvashri L. N. Tawde, P. G. Dhadve, S. N. Parab and K. A. Tambe (Peons), for their association in the preparation of this Volume.

I will be failing in my duty, if I do not express my thanks to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M.A., Ph.D., Editor, Central Gazetteers and the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi, for their effective role in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteer. The unit scrutinized the draft of this Volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that the Government of India pays a sum of Rs. 44,000 towards the compilation and Rs. 16,000 towards the printing cost of each of the district volumes, which forms a portion of the expenditure incurred on the compilation and printing of the District Gazetteer.

Shri S. A. Sapre, Director, Government Printing, Stationery and Publications, Bombay, and Shri R. B. Alva, Manager, Government Press and Book Depot, Nagpur, as also the other technical and managerial staff deserve my thanks for the execution of the printing work of this volume.

Many are the officials and non-officials who helped by supplying information on various points without whose help the execution of this work would have been difficult. To them all my thanks are due.

BOMBAY :
October 1973.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

IN 1867 A GAZETTEER was published for the Central Provinces with the following remarks from Sir R. Temple, the then Chief Commissioner of the Provinces:—

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

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

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

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

"The work thus brought out, though probably as complete as it can be made at the present time, is yet avowedly imperfect, and is in some respects only preliminary. The information generally may from year to year be supplemented by

further details, and on numerous points will doubtless be found susceptible of emendation. The statistics especially will constantly be open to enlargement and rectification. Still a broad foundation for future superstructure has at least been raised.*".

The impression of that edition was soon exhausted and a revised edition was prepared in 1870 by Mr. Charles Grant, Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. The article on Chandrapur in the Volume running into 17 pages and divided into various sections, with the exception of one interpolation, was contributed by Major Lucie Smith, then Deputy Commissioner of Chandrapur. In this edition the alphabetical form was adopted and a full index was added.

The Gazetteers for the various districts of the Central Provinces were compiled in the beginning of this century and the first Chandrapur District Gazetteer was prepared by Mr. L. F. Begbie, I.C.S. and edited by Mr. A. E. Nelson, I.C.S., in 1909. Mr. Nelson in his prefatory note wrote :

"The Chanda District with a population composed of three main elements Marathas, Telugus and Gonds, each speaking more or less an impure variety of their natural language, is of peculiar interest from a linguistic and ethnological point of view. It has also many other claims to distinction. In mineral wealth it is remarkably rich ; it possesses vast forests and the area of its Government forest alone surpasses that of many entire Districts ; its archaeological remains are of unwonted interest for this part of the country ; its systems of agriculture are unusually varied and in some respects unique in the Province ; its irrigation system, already very extensive, is now attracting considerable attention on the part of Government, while its sporting possibilities, although no longer what they were in the not distant past, are still surpassed in few parts of India. The major portion of the Gazetteer has been written by Mr. L. F. Begbie, I.C.S., who possesses in a very special measure the knowledge, enthusiasm and literary gifts required for the task. Unfortunately his health broke down before he could complete the work and he was compelled to leave India. The book has thus lacked the finishing touches of its author and would no doubt have been greatly improved had Mr. Begbie been able to see it through the press. Chapter II, History and Archaeology and the sections on Religion, Caste and Social Life and Customs have been written by the Rev. A. Wood, who gratefully acknowledges his indebtedness to the notes supplied by Mr. Hira Lal and to Major Lucie Smith's records in the preparation of all these sections. Some of the Gazetteer articles have also been written by Mr. Wood, who has in addition read the whole book through in proof. Mr. Wood's intimate knowledge of the District gives a peculiar value to his suggestions and criticisms and I cannot be sufficiently grateful for his assistance.

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

Chapter IX, General Administration, has been written by Mr. J. T. Marten, Deputy Commissioner, who also supplied some notes on the leading families. Mr. Begbie acknowledges his great indebtedness to Colonel Lucie Smith's Settlement Report of 1869, which is a work of considerable distinction and a veritable mine of information. Captain Glasfurd's Settlement Report of the Upper Godavari District (1868), Mr. P. Hemingway's Settlement Report of 1905, and Mr. J. T. Chamberlain's Report on the Settlement of the Zamindaris (1908) have also been freely utilised. The article on Geology was written by Mr. Begbie from notes supplied by Mr. P. N. Datta of the Geological Survey, and has been read and corrected by Mr. L. L. Fermor of the same department. Mr. F. J. Langhorne of the Forest Department supplied Mr. Begbie with notes for the Botany and Forest sections which have also been read by Mr. J. Donald, I.F.S., and for the article on the Abiri Zamindari. The Chapters on Agriculture and Land Revenue have been read by Mr. P. Hemingway. The reports of the Archaeological Survey of India have been freely borrowed from. The whole book has been read in proof by Mr. J. T. Marten".

In Bombay Presidency as early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts. Government called on the Revenue Commissioners to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts.

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

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

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

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

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871*. He said :—

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Every attempt has been made to incorporate as up-to-date information as possible. However in a monumental work like this, a time-lag between the date of collection of information and its publication is inevitable. It has, therefore, been decided to issue Statistical Supplementaries to the parent volumes from time to time. The Supplementaries will furnish tabulated statistics pertaining to the important subjects during the subsequent years.

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

The revised Gazetteers are published in two series :—

1. *General Series.*—This comprises volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Geography, Fauna, Maharashtra — Land and its People, History, Language and Literature, Botany, Public Administration and Places of Interest.

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

In the preparation of this Volume, this Department has received every assistance from the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India. A draft copy of this Volume was sent to the Gazetteers Unit and was returned with valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in the Volume.

BOMBAY:
October 1973.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

consisting of the Cherla, Albaka and Nugur divisions of the lower Sironcha tahsil on the opposite bank of the Godavari were transferred back to the Madras Presidency in the same year for administrative convenience. Since then, there were no changes in the district boundary till 1955. Consequent to the Reorganisation of States in 1956 the district was transferred from Madhya Pradesh to the bilingual Bombay State and became part of State of Maharashtra since its creation in May 1960.

Rajura tahsil, which was formerly a part of the Adilabad district of Nizam's dominion was transferred to the Nanded district in 1956 after the States' Reorganisation and was again transferred to the Chandrapur district in March 1959 as it was contiguous to Chandrapur and isolated from Nanded district.

Since January, 1964, Chanda town has been renamed as Chandrapur. For administrative purposes, the district is at present divided into six tahsils, *viz.*, Brahmapuri, Warora, Gadhchiroli, Chandrapur, Sironcha and Rajura.

The district is bounded on the north by Bhandara, Nagpur and Wardha districts, on the east by Bastar and Durg districts of Madhya Pradesh State, on the west by Yeotmal district and on the south by Adilabad and Karimnagar districts of Andhra Pradesh. The boundary mostly follows natural features, mainly rivers, but here and there it is one of administrative convenience.

Starting from the trijunction of the Wardha, Yeotmal and Chandrapur districts just north-west of the village Dindoda in Warora tahsil, where the Wunna river, a left bank tributary, enters into the Wardha river, the boundary between the Chandrapur and Yeotmal districts follows the Wardha river downstream with a general southerly and south-south-easterly trend till the confluence of the Wardha and the Penganga just south of the village, Sheoni Deshpande, whereafter the boundary follows the Penganga river upstream south-westwards, keeping Rajura tahsil to its south and Yeotmal district to its north. The boundary runs generally south-westwards till reaching the village Parsola on the right bank of the river. Here, the boundary leaves the river and runs almost due south for about ten kilometres till it reaches the scarp edge of a plateau, 600 m high, on which is found the Manikgarh State forest. The boundary then turns east and runs along the plateau edge till reaching the peak of Jamundara (530 m) whereafter it ascends the slope and runs southwards till reaching the southern edge of the plateau descending down to the valley of the Pedda Vagu in Adilabad district. Then, the boundary turns and runs east-south-eastwards along this edge of the upland till reaching the village, Babapur. Then, it turns north and cuts across the hilly terrain to reach the forest hamlet, Govindpur; it then turns south-eastwards, following the southern edge of an eastward protruding spur till it descends to the valley of the Wardha near the village Annur. Thereafter, the boundary follows the Wardha downstream once again as it

CHAPTER 1. General. GEOGRAPHY. Boundaries.

flows eastward till its confluence with the Wainganga river. After the confluence, the combined flow of the two rivers is known as the Pranhita and the boundary follows the Pranhita southwards till its confluence with the Godavari at the south-western extreme of the district, where lies the trijunction between Chandrapur, Adilabad and Karimnagar districts. Thereafter, the boundary runs eastwards, following the Godavari till reaching the point of confluence of a left bank tributary, the Indravati, with the main river; here lies the trijunction between three States: Chandrapur of Maharashtra, Karimnagar of Andhra Pradesh and Bastar of Madhya Pradesh. Now, the boundary turns north and follows upstream the Indravati river for a considerable distance till a small tributary, the Komara *nadi* meets it at its right bank just south of the village, Kawande; thereafter, it follows the channel of the Komara *nadi* till the hill village Nulwada and then runs northwards across the hills, a valley-head at an elevation of 750 m and the valley of the Nibra river and finally descends to the valley floor of the Kotra *nadi*, north of the village Murumbhusi. The boundary then follows the Kotra *nadi* upstream northwards for about 24 km then cuts across a feeble watershed westward to enter the valley of the Papra *nadi* and follow it along its eastern edge to once again enter into and follow northwards the same forest clad, flat topped watershed that divides the Wainganga tributaries from those draining into the Indravati tributaries till reaching the village Mulotipadikasa. Then, just 5 km north of the market village of Kokari the boundary turns west. Keeping Bhandara district to its north it runs partly through a jungle clad undulating interfluve and partly along the source stream of the Garhvi *nadi* to reach the valley of the Wainganga to the north of the village Sawangi. Then, the boundary follows for about 20 km, the Wainganga river upstream to once again pass through an undulating country westwards till reaching the Pothra *nadi* near the village Bopapur and then following the river till its confluence with the Wunna is reached. Then, the boundary runs south following downstream the Wunna river till its confluence with the Wardha. Thus, the boundaries of the district to the west, south and south-east mostly run along large streams, while to the east it runs along a watershed and crestline of hills, but to the north, it is one of arbitrary nature and of administrative convenience.

Physical Features, Relief and Drainage.

The rich and varied topography of the district is almost unparalleled anywhere else in the State and is an outcome of the immense geological variety of the rock formations of the district that range from the archaean basement complex in the eastern extremes to the most recent tertiary and pleistocene alluvium in the river valleys, and of the tectonic features of the district that include huge igneous intrusions as well as rifts usurped by large streams. In spite of this geological and hence topographical diversity, a concomitant result of long endured sub-aerial denudation on structures of differing resistance and hardness, the

CHAPTER 1. General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Physical Features, Relief and Drainage.

area of the district falls broadly into a series of north-south running river valley strips defined and distinguished from each other by parallel series of watersheds, all the north-south running river valleys terminating in the west to east trending Godavari valley floor. Thus, one can recognise from west to east the Wardha, the Wainganga-Pranhita and the Indravati river valleys with well defined north to south trends; the low Chimur, Mul and Parasgarh hills separate the Wardha and the Wainganga valleys; the Wainganga-Indravati interfluve lying partly along the eastern boundary of the district also consists of a number of hill ranges that form a tangle of jungle country. In contrast to the southward opening river valleys, the Godavari has a west to east valley along the southern boundary of the district. The Penganga valley and its continuation into the Wardha valley till the confluence of the Wardha with the Wainganga has also a west to east trend, sub-parallel to the Godavari valley. The entire drainage pattern of the district is strongly suggestive of the structural control of the river valleys - the rivers usurping and flowing in rift valleys of the Mesozoic age. To the south of the Penganga, in the southern part of the Rajura tahsil, also lies a hill country with a west to east trend, forming the water-divide between the Penganga and the Godavari. Thus, in brief, the topography of the district consists of alternation of low lying river plains at elevations of less than 300 metres and a series of hill ranges about 300 to 600 metres high in elevation. Fairly high elevations of more than 600 to 700 metres are recorded only in the southern and eastern parts of Sironcha tahsil, which even today remains a backward and inaccessible tribal country. The Indravati valley in the south-east forms the westernmost extreme part of the Dandakaranya basin.

Hills.

The hills of the Chandrapur district can be broadly considered as belonging to four groups: (*i*) the Chimur-Parasgarh-Nagbhir-Rajoli-Mul-Wamanpalli hills that form a broken series of hills, together constituting the waterparting between the Wardha and the Wainganga drainages; (*ii*) the hills of the southern and western parts of Rajura tahsil, *i.e.*, the Manikgarh hills; (*iii*) the southern hill complex in Sironcha tahsil, such as the Sirikonda hills, the Bhamragad, Surjagad, Ahiri and Dandakaranya hills; and (*iv*) the isolated hill masses of the eastern parts of Gadhchiroli tahsil, such as the Tipagarh, Palasgarh and Borgaon hills. Of them, the hills of Warora, Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils belonging to the first group are low hills rising on an average to about 300 metres. The highest elevations within the limits of the district are all recorded along the eastern margins of Sironcha and Gadhchiroli tahsils, in what may be termed as the Dandakaranya hills, since they form the western limits of the Dandakaranya plateau basin.

Chimur hills.—Extending from about 5 kilometres west of Chimur as far south as the village Moharli, the Chimur hills run with a north to south strike in the eastern parts of Warora tahsil

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for a distance of about 32 km with an average width of 8 to 10 km. These hills rise to an average elevation of about 300 m, the highest trigonometric elevations over the ridge being Labantanda *pahar* (309 m), Bagha *pahar* (356 m), Sonegaon *pahar* (359 m), Mothabarad *pahar* (360 m), Bhaogarh *pahar* (337 m) and Ambagarh (367 m). The ridge is flat-topped, with a gentle slope to the east and generally rises about 100 to 150 metres above the general level of the valley floors of the Erai *nadi* to the west and the Andhari river to its east. The ridge is of a cuesta type with a cliff and scarp slope facing west and a gentle dip slope to the east. It is made up of gently eastward dipping sandstone formations of the Vindhyan age. The ridge has been breached in a number of places by streams and gullies that drain to the east and the west resulting in a number of natural depressions which on being bonded at their lower ends have become perennial and semi-perennial tanks, like the Tadoba lake that has been converted into a game sanctuary by the State Government.

Parasgarh-Nagbhir hills.—East of the Chimur hills, running parallel to it along the Warora-Brahmapuri tahsil boundary, are the Parasgarh-Nagbhir hills. The Nagpur-Nagbhir-Mul-Chandrapur railway runs skirting these hills to their east between Tempa and Talodha railway stations. Running with a north-north-east, south-south-west strike for a distance of about 20 km, with an average width of about 10 to 12 km, this almost single ridge is also of a cuesta type with an excellent cliff section facing west and in parts to the south; the dip slope faces eastwards and the ridge is flat-topped. Like the Chimur hills, this ridge also is made up of almost horizontally bedded Vindhyan sandstones and are underlain by limestones of the same age. At the lower end of these hills too, large natural tank depressions occur.

In comparison to the Chimur hills, this ridge rises to much higher elevations; the Pendhri peak (474 m), Sat Bahini (459 m) overlooking and presenting a romantic view of the Ghorajhari tank to its east, Siwap Hurki (383 m), Mugdabhai *pahar* (411 m) and the Waghabi *pahar* (431 m) are the greater heights reached in this ridge.

Rajoli-Nawargaon hills.—South of the Parasgarh-Nagbhir hills, on either side of the Nagbhir-Chandrapur railway, but more to the west, lies a tangle of hill country with mostly isolated residual hill masses in an archaean gneissic terrain consisting of unclassified, crystalline and metamorphic formations. The landscape in this region stands in sharp contrast to the sandstone topography to its north and the west. The rounded, smooth-lined residual hills rising barely a hundred metres or thereabouts above the peneplaned surface of the archaean basement floor run here with a general North-North-West to South-South-East or North-South strike and a steep dip; they are mostly 'Dharwarian' outcrops of the 'Iron-ore series' in the form of banded haematite

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quartzites. These 'Dharwar' inliers occurring in troughs of deep synclinal folds in the archaean basement carry in them valuable high grade haematite variety of iron ore that outcrop in a number of places like the Lohara hill, 5 km north-east of Allewahi railway station, Asola, about 10 km east-south-east of Sindewahi railway station and Ratanpur near Nawargaon Budrukh. Further east of Lohara, on either side of the confluence of the Kobragrahi river with the Wainganga on the left bank of the latter lies a group of elongated 'Dharwar' outcrops near the village Deulgaon on the Gadhchiroli-Brahmapuri road; these hillocks are all elongated, with a length of about 2 km north to south and a width rarely exceeding half a kilometre.

Mul hills.—Further south of the Rajoli-Nawargaon hills, and south-east of the Chimur hills, lie the Mul hills about 5 km west of the township of Mul. The hills rise barely to a height of 300 m and are flat topped, consisting of the same sandstones as those of the Chimur and Nagbhir hills; in fact, the Mul hills constitute the south-eastern edge of the Vindhyan outcrops abutting on the archaean terrain. However, the sandstone beds are thinner here and the underlying limestone outcrops in patches along the slopes. The edge of these flat-topped hills do not present such imposing scarp faces as those of Chimur and Nagbhir hills.

Wamanpalli hills.—Southwards of the Mul hills, once again, there occur a number of isolated hill masses, striking north-south and rising to elevations of about 250 m barely fifty metres above the level of the adjoining country particularly to the west-north-west and south of the market village Pomurna. These, too, like Lohara and Deulgaon appear to be outcrops of 'Dharwar' formations, belonging to the 'iron-ore' series and are set in a gneissic terrain. Just to the west and south of these hills, in the Kothari, Chanpur, Panchgaon, Dabha and Wamanpalli reserved forest areas, there occur vast flat-topped plateau-like hill masses at elevations of 250 m; these, unlike the rounded hills around Pomurna, are formed of red ferrugenous 'Kamthi' sandstones, horizontally bedded.

Manikgarh hills.—To the south of the Penganga and the Wardha in the southern and western parts of the Rajura tahsil is the only significant basaltic trap region of the district; the high level 'mesa' or structural plateau, made up of horizontal basic lava flows, rises to about 600 metres abruptly from the valley floor of the Penganga and Wardha rivers at a bare distance of about 10 km from the river bed. The rise is through a steep scarp slope in a distance of about one to two kilometres for about 350 m above the valley floor. The plateau all over records the same height levels. Overlooking the Wardha river at the north-eastern edge of the crest of the plateau is situated in a picturesque setting the Manikgarh fort.

There are a few outliers of these basaltic hills extending as tongues of the main spur, towards the Wardha eastwards; these

outliers overlie Penganga beds of shales and limestones. The Sonda peak and the Siddeshwar peak lie in these outlier hills.

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Sirikonda hills.—In the extreme southern parts of the Sironcha tahsil, striking north-west to south-east, runs a hill range. Extending from the Adilabad district across the Pranhita river, the range enters the Chandrapur district near the village Watra. It extends south-eastward right up to the village Asar Ali on the banks of the Godavari and runs further beyond the Godavari as a continuation. Where the river Pranhita cuts through this hill range, it has developed a narrow steep sided constricted gorge-like valley; so too, the Indravati where it cuts through the eastern extreme of the range has developed a narrow valley; both these valleys appear superimposed.

The hill range barely 20 km wide runs for a distance of about 70 km across the southern parts of the Sironcha tahsil. The highest peak known as the Sirikonda, about 20 km north-east of Sironcha rises to a height of 527 m. The general elevation of this ridge is only about 3.50 m. The rock beds appear to be mostly crushed and altered. Along the north-eastern edge, the rocks dip rather steeply to the north-east and abut abruptly against the gneiss along what has been mapped as a fault. The rocks are essentially sandstones and quartzite formations with occasional conglomerates and pebble beds. On the western side, facing the Pranhita valley, the rock beds present good cliff faces with a slight geological unconformity. The rock series here are believed to belong to the Pakhal series (Upper Cuddapahs) though some geologists place it in the Sullavai series of the Vindhyans.

Ahiri hills.—To the east of Ahiri in Sironcha tahsil, a number of low residual hillocks set in the gneissic terrain dot the surface, but three of them rise to relatively higher elevations — the Bhimaram hills (488 m), Nalu hills (381 m), and Kureli hills (410 m). The hills around Bhimaram are granitic in character.

Lahir Bhamragad hills.—Along the extreme eastern margins of the Sironcha tahsil, enclosed between the Indravati in the south and the Paralkot or Korri river in the west is a tangle of hill masses that reach some of the highest elevations in the district. The hill ranges rise on an average to elevations of about 700 m. The greatest height reached here is 935 m just north of the village Damanmarka, south-east of the Nibra river, on the State boundary. The rocks here, are essentially archaean unclassified crystalline gneisses, schists and quartzites. At the south-western extremity of this hill group, rising to a height slightly more than 300 m, is the Bhamragad hill which overlooks the confluence of the Indravati and two of its right bank tributaries, the Paralkot and Nibra rivers, and opens a grand vista of the well-wooded Indravati valley to its south-west and south-east.

Ambale-Rajur hills.—In the Ambela-Rajur reserved forest divisions of the Gadhchiroli tahsil, at a distance of about 10 to 20 km. east of the Wainganga river, there occur as inliers in the

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archaean gneissic terrain, narrow elongated low hills with a north-west and south-east strike that are barely one to two kilometres long and about 500 m wide. These hills are mere continuations southwards across the Wainganga of the banded ferrugenous quartzites that carry excellent haematite iron ore bodies. Prominent amongst these hills, that mostly lie south of the market-village Chamorshi, and north of Aheri are the Lokhand Dongri, Kodu Pohad, Jambeli Dongri, Chechi *Dongar*, Pangari *Dongar* and Raj Gutta.

Tipagarh-Palasgarh-Surjagarh hills.—The eastern half of Gadhchiroli tahsil from the northern limits right up to and beyond the southern limits of the tahsil till the village Surjagarh in Sironcha, forms a huge tableland at average elevations of more than 350 m. In fact, it is a huge granitic batholith with porphyritio granite as the common rock. Numerous hills rise over the general elevations of this tableland and stand boldly in relief. One can seldom travel in this country out of sight of a hill. One group of hills known as the Satnala hills lies in the northern parts around Palasgarh and Bedgaon villages, and derives its name from the Sat river that has its source in these hills. To the south-east of this hill complex, in the Kotgal and Murumgaon *zamindari* divisions lies another hill complex rising to about 600 m—the highest elevation recorded here is 626 m south-east of Kotgol—known as the Tipagarh range, so-called from the stronghold of that name now in ruins and hidden in almost impenetrable jungles. Further south in the upper reaches of the Kathani river are the Dhanora-Pendhri hills and the Surjagarh hills along the southern extreme of the batholith.

Lowlands. The lowlands lie mainly along the river valleys of the Wardha, the Wainganga, the Pranhita, the Godavari and the Indravati rivers. The most extensive and flat lowlands occur mainly along the Wardha and Penganga. The Pranhita and the Indravati mostly flow through hilly terrains and the valley floors contain little plain country. On the other hand, the Godavari valley floor carved in the lower Gondwana rock formations are relatively much wider and flatter. The Wainganga lowlands are mostly rolling topography with residual knolls of hills, but in the northern sections of the Brahmapuri tahsil form fairly wide flood and alluvial plains covered with fertile loams. The lowlands of the Chandrapur district, on the whole, lie generally below 250 metres and they are the lowest in the downstream Godavari plains where the lowest spot height of the district (160 m) is recorded.

Drainage. The entire district falls within the Godavari drainage; the northern tributaries of the river draining the central Indian hills and the eastern ghats flow through the district, generally with a north to south trend. The major river systems of the district are from west to east: the Penganga, the Wardha, the Wainganga and the Indravati. The Penganga flows into the Wardha and the combined waters are emptied into the Wainganga which after

the confluence is known as the Pranhita. Numerous tributaries of these river systems, most of which rise in the uplands within the district drain the area of the district.

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Godavari.—The Godavari, rising in the Trimbak hills of Nasik district in western Maharashtra, enters into the district at the south-western extreme just south-west of Sironcha, and flows east for about 50 km forming the southern boundary of the State. After the confluence of its large right bank tributary, the Indravati, at the south-eastern corner of the district, the Godavari turns south into the territory of the Andhra Pradesh continuing in the same longitudinal depression as that of the Indravati. The river is of little significance so far as this district is concerned as it runs mainly along the boundary and a practically uninhabited forested hill country that for most part is not easily accessible. The river is about a kilometre wide in general and is bound by high banks, about 30 m deep. The river is full of rocky shoals and low sandy meander terraces on the inner banks are quite frequent.

Penganga.—The Penganga, rising in the neighbourhood of Chikhli in the Buldhana plateau, has a general south-south-easterly course and enters the district close to the village Parsola in the Rajura tahsil. It has a general south-west to north-east trend in the district for about 50 km before it joins the Wardha river. It forms the northern boundary of the Rajura tahsil in the western section, separating it from the Yeotmal district. The river, perennial, but dwindling in volume to mere stagnant pools during the hot weather, winds in a narrow channel and cuts through Penganga limestones and shales, forming wide extensive clay flats in the Rajura tahsil. The river has low banks to the south, as a result of which, during the monsoon season, liability for overflow and flooding and subsequent waterlogging is quite widespread in the plains of Rajura tahsil.

The river joins the Wardha south of the colliery town Ghugus in Chandrapur tahsil.

Wardha.—The Wardha river rises in the Multai plateau in Madhya Pradesh and after flowing through the district of Nagpur forms boundary between the districts of Wardha, Amravati and Yeotmal before entering this district at its confluence with the Wunna river. The river flows initially south forming boundary between Yeotmal district on one hand and Warora and Chandrapur tahsils of this district on the other till its confluence with the Penganga on its right bank. After this confluence the river turns east and has a general east-south-easterly course initially, then southerly and once again easterly till its confluence with the Wainganga. This stretch of the course forms initially tahsil boundary and then the State boundary. The river thus flows mostly on the western and southern boundaries of the district. It is a sluggish river flowing through varied geological formations in its course through the district. Deccan trap in the

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north-west and then through the upper and lower Gondwana formations and the archaeans one after another, successively. In fact, the course of the river is believed to be occupying a rift valley.

The river is full during the rains but dwindles to trickles in hot weather. It flows through a fairly fertile and productive country in the district.

Erai nadi. The Erai *nadi* is the principal affluent of the Wardha on its right bank. It pursues its whole course of a length of 80 km within the district, rising in the hills of northern Warora and flowing almost due south till it joins the Wardha a short distance south of Chandrapur. The source of this river is made up of three streams — the Chargaon *nadi,* the Chambai *nadi* and the Banaskhundi *nadi,* all rising on the western slopes of the Chimur hills. The Erai and its tributaries, the Kankiya *nadi* and the Mothaghat *nala* drain practically the whole of Warora tahsil and north-western Chandrapur. The Erai is non-perennial.

Wunna. The Wunna and its left bank tributary, the Pothra *nadi,* form for a short distance the boundary between Hinganghat tahsil of Wardha and the Warora tahsil. The Wunna is a sluggish perennial stream.

Wainganga and its tributaries.—The Wainganga rises in the Maikal ranges of Durg district in Madhya Pradesh and has a westerly and then southerly course through the district of Bhandara before entering the district in the Brahmapuri tahsil just north of the settlement, Brahmapuri. The Wainganga is the main stream of the district. Striking to the eye even at a glance is the bold north to south flow of the Wainganga that enters the district near the middle of the northern boundary and slices the district into two unequal halves, the western part containing the Warora, Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils, all of which are better economically developed and accessible and the eastern part comprising the Gadhchiroli tahsil and northern third of Sironcha tahsil both of which even today remain the most backward, tribal, inaccessible jungle infested region of the State.

The river has a course of about 165 km through the district in an archaean gneissic terrain. It is slightly more rapid in its flow than the Wardha. A certain amount of traffic is carried upon it during the rains from Pauni in the Bhandara district southwards up to Armori but it is not a navigable stream. The river has developed extensive flood plains with sweeping graceful meanders and low alluvial flats and meander terraces. The river has fairly high banks 10 to 15 metres on either side. The river is flooded during the later part of the monsoon season but practically dries up in the hot weather. It has a large number of tributaries within the district that are reduced during the summer to a mere chain of stagnant pools but which become graceful gushing torrents during the rains.

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Of these tributaries, the major ones on the right bank are the Buti and the Andhari and those on the left bank are the Garhvi, the Khobragadi, the Kathani, the Potphodi and the Pohar.

The Buti *nadi* rises in the Nagbhir hills and has a sub-parallel course to the Wainganga on its right bank. It flows past Brahmapuri before joining the Wainganga near Ramanchar village. It is a non-perennial stream. The river has carved its valley in the western parts of the aggraded alluvium of the Wainganga and probably represents an abandoned former course of the Wainganga in its lateral shifts of the meanders.

The Andhari *nadi* has an overall length of 101 km entirely within the district. It rises on the eastern dip slopes of the Chimur hills close to the Tadoba lake in Warora tahsil and has a south-easterly flow through Warora and Chandrapur tahsils. Its main tributary on its left bank is the Mul river which also rises in the Chimur hills but to the north of the Andhari. It flows through Naleshwar and Mul forest divisions and then past Mul town before joining the Andhari near Chak. The Mul river has a more perennial flow than the Andhari whose stream becomes perennial only downstream of its confluence with the Mul river.

Another of its tributaries is the Bokardoh *nadi* rising in the slopes of the Nagbhir hills; yet another rising in the trap country, near Bhisi is known upstream as the Patalganga or Neri river but lower down as the Gondni *nadi.* The Gondni and the Bokardoh unite near Kuramgaon and finally join the Andhari near Jamb. During the rains, the Andhari has a large volume of water.

The Garhvi rising in the Chichgarh hills of southern parts of Bhandara district enters the district near the village Boldhagaon in Gadhchiroli tahsil and flows south with a sub-parallel course to the Wainganga at a distance of about 10 to 12 km on its left bank. It joins the Wainganga south of Armori.

The Khobragadi, a stream of about 80 km length rises in the Tipagarh hills and has a general westerly flow through a picturesque jungle-clad hill terrain underlain by granites and phyllites. It joins the Wainganga about 2 km downstream of the confluence of the Garhvi with the Wainganga.

The Khobragadi has an important tributary, the Sat *nala* (or the Satta *nadi*) joining it on the right bank at a spot where the ruins of the Gond fort at Wairagarh are situated overlooking it. The Sat *nala* rises in the Satnala hills in the northern parts of Gadhchiroli tahsil and flows west and then south. The two rivers together drain the northern half of Gadhchiroli tahsil.

The Kathani river rises in the Dhanora Murumgaon hills of Gadhchiroli tahsil and flows west for a distance of about 70 km before emptying its waters into the Wainganga just north of Gadhchiroli. It is also a mountain torrent like the Khobragadi.

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The Pohar *nadi* comprises three streams, the Mandoli *nadi*, the Suggam *nadi* and the Mrigadola *nadi*, all of which rise in the eastern hills of Gadhchiroli. It has also a westerly course.

Pranhita.—At about 19° 35′ N. latitude, the Wardha has its confluence with the Wainganga and the combined flow of water continues in the same southerly depression as that of the Wainganga under the name, the Pranhita. The Pranhita forms the western boundary of Sironcha tahsil. It has an overall length of 113 km till its confluence with the Godavari about 7 km south-west of Sironcha. The Pranhita has high banks throughout, and downstream of Watra village flows in a constricted narrow gorge-like valley that appears to be superimposed. It has developed extensive alluvial flats on the inner shelving banks of the meander loops that support productive agricultural villages in what forms otherwise a forested territory. The river has a number of hill torrents joining it on the left bank.

Dina nadi.—The Dina *nadi* rises in the Surjagarh hills and flows west and then south for about 65 km to join the Pranhita. It flows through a forested country.

Indravati river.—The Indravati river rising in the highlands of Tohamal and draining the slopes of the Chandragiri peak in the eastern ghats of Orissa State is the only large west flowing stream of central India. It has an overall length of 400 km. In its lower course, before it enters into the Godavari, it forms the boundary between Sironcha tahsil and Bastar district. It is a true mountain torrent with a rapid, perennial, and deep water-flow, with rocky shoals and rapids. It enters the district in the eastern parts of Ahiri *zamindari* and flows west for a short distance before turning south. It flows for a distance of 122 km along the eastern boundary of the district. The river is not much useful for navigation, but is used to float timber in the forest tracts. It has a number of right bank tributaries.

Nibra river.—The Nibra or Pamlagotam river rises in the Naranpar hills of Bastar district and enters this district north of Timili village. The Nibra as well as its hill torrents form large alluvial aprons as they descend from the hills. It joins the Indravati near Bhamragad.

Kotri nadi.—The Kotri *nadi* or the Paralkot river also rises in the western hills of Bastar district and flows south. It is a hill torrent flowing through a forest division. It joins the Indravati near Bhamragad.

Bandia river.—The Bandia river rises in the Aundhi *zamindari* division of Bastar and flows south draining a large section of eastern Sironcha. The river flows past Surjagarh and is made up of three streams.

Lakes.

The gneissic terrain in the Brahmapuri tahsil and eastern Chandrapur that is, the area that lies between the Erai *nadi* and the Wainganga is a beautiful lake-country full of natural tank

depressions, that have been carved in the gneisses by sub-aerial weathering and denudational agencies. The smaller ones amongst these depressions are non-perennial collecting the vicissitudes of the monsoon rainfall. However, a few of the larger ones, also fed by ephemeral streams, have perennial supplies of water useful for irrigation. Most of these depressions are shallow, rarely ever desper than 10 metres and hence loss of water due to evaporation is huge in them. These natural tanks are bunded at their lower ends which invariably lie to the south or the east, the normal directions of natural slopes in the Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils. However, east of Wainganga, in the Gadhchiroli tahsil, bunding is done towards the west and the south, the directions of natural drainage in this part of the country. These lakes are smaller and more in number in the vicinity of the Wainganga river. CHAPTER 1. General. GEOGRAPHY. Lakes.

These tanks provide a useful supply of water for irrigation amongst the agricultural villages. In the forested hilly areas, they provide the main source of water for wild animals and birds, apart from providing a precarious water-supply for the Gondi villages of the forest *zamindaris*.

Of these tanks, the largest is the Ghorajheri tank at the edge of the gneissic terrain. It lies to the south-west of Nagbhir railway town in the Nagbhir reserved forest division on the lower dip slope of the Nagbhir hills of Vindhyan sandstone formations. Another large tank is the Asola Mendha tank that lies in the heart of the gneissic terrain about 15 km to the east of the Nagpur-Chandrapur trunk road. It is accessible during dry weather from both Sindewahi and Rajoli railway stations. Another tank, called Naleshwar tank, lies in the Mul river valley south-west of Sindewahi railway station.

The Tadoba lake lies in a depression within the Chimur hills. Though small, it is set in a romantically picturesque jungle country, overlooking the peak at Sonegaon. It has been developed into a bird and wild animal sanctuary by the State Government. It is approached either from Bhandak or Chandrapur.

Springs.

Quite a large number of springs occur in the six hundred metre high Manikgarh plateau in the southern parts of Rajura tahsil. The springs mainly occur along the valley slopes at various height levels above 400 m, where the perched watertable of the pervious and porous intertrappean formations outcrop along the surface. These springs are the only source of water-supply for the 'Kolam' huts and hamlets on the plateau.

A few springs also occur to the west of Mul at the foot of the Mul hills where the lower edge of the aquifers developed in the Vindhyan rock formations abut at the surface over crystalline gneisses and other archaeans.

General Scenery.

The foregoing review of the hill ranges and river systems of Chandrapur will now enable a general reader to visualise and

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comprehend the broad features of the physical aspects of the district. The topography of the district reveals an arrangement in a dual series of valleys and watersheds alternating with each other and running north-south. The western halves of Warora and Chandrapur tahsils lie in the valley of Wardha; they are separated from the central valley of the Wainganga by a feeble watershed breached in many places. The Mul-Chimur-Parasgarh-Nagbhir hills constitute this watershed. Beyond this watershed, the senile looking, open, broad and shallow valley of the Wainganga opens out. Beyond this valley, the land gradually rises in elevation till the eastern limits of the district. The highest elevations are all recorded along the eastern boundary.

The basins of the Wardha and the Wainganga are further subdivided into numerous smaller valleys, also with a north to south lineation; these valleys having been carved out by the lesser tributaries in softer rock formations. The Sironcha tahsil also repeats the pattern with a valley to the west and a core of highland, but here the valley is a narrow strip with steep slopes often descending right up to the river. The Rajura tahsil however, forms an exception to the general pattern, being a plateau to the south of the Penganga and the Wardha developed by the horizontal lava flows along an eastward protruding tongue of basic traps.

The broad characteristics of the scenery of the district as well as the human life associated is in close conformity with the topographical diversity which in itself is related to the immense geological variety of the underlying rock formations and the broad tectonics of the area. The surface geomorphic expression of these rocks of different hardness and resistance capacity when exposed to sub-aerial denudation and weathering under tropical monsoonal conditions adds colour to the variety through the soils, vegetation and general scenic development. The richness of the rocks of the district in a number of economically valuable ores has made mining an increasingly important economic activity of the district as a whole.

The deep black regurs of the Wardha valley in general reproduce the features of the trap country further west, that is made familiar to a traveller by rail from Bhusawal to Nagpur, a bare, almost treeless monotony, most depressing to look upon, and only redeemed from positive ugliness during the few weeks after the rains when the crops become mature and ready for harvest. But, even here, occasional patches of jungle land lend some variety to the scene. This type of country in the district is limited to a comparatively small tract in the extreme west. Agriculture, particularly *rabi* cropping, is significant in these lowlands. The waste mounds and pits around the collieries along the main valley, at once attract the eye amidst the monotony of the agriculturally productive villages.

Far more pleasant to the eye is the valley of the Wainganga. Here, between adjacent villages, fairly extensive stretches of

jungles, almost always occur and the alternation of jungle and cultivation makes a pleasant variety. The open country, too, is diversified by numerous useful trees like the mahua, the tamarind, the mango and the pipal growing in local clusters within which nestle villages that invariably lie at the lower end of tanks with lovely blue water. Perhaps the only fault that can be found with this type of scenery is that like most Indian plain scenery, it repeats itself continually until robbed much of its charm and becomes a dead monotony.

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Turning to the general scenery of the hill tracts, there are, in these highlands, many spots of scenic beauty. Tadoba lake with its game sanctuary, whither all manner of beasts of the jungle come fearlessly to quench their thirst; the 'glittering heights' of the Surjagarh; the meeting of three roaring mountain torrents at Bhamragad, scene extolled by those who have visited it as being unrivalled throughout the length and breadth of the State—these are but a few beautiful spots that may be named amongst the many still nameless. At times, it must be admitted, the interminable stretches of gloomy forests oppress the imagination and the traveller is glad to emerge for a breathing spell into the more open haunts of men and welcomes the uninterrupted view of the sun. In such a mood, it is a pleasant and fairly frequent sight to see the clearings made by the Gonds for purposes of their '*gata*' cultivation, where some little brook has been dammed with a descending series of stockades and the pool above each stockade has been sown with rice. These chosen plots of fertile land, amongst wide wastes, set like a nest, are among the most grateful memories that one carries with him after a sojourn in these jungle clad areas of Chandrapur district.

Geographical Regions.

The rhythm of human activities in this richly varied country naturally varies from region to region depending upon the keynote of the natural environs and the challenges it invokes from the human society. On that basis, it is possible to recognise distinctive geographical regions as follows:—

(*i*) The Wardha lowlands with deep black regurs are agriculturally the most productive. The succession of geological horizons, that are economically valuable and have been exposed along the valley flanks, have brought mining particularly of coal as an important industrial activity. Constituting the core of the most populous tract of the district, it covers a sixth of the total area.

(*ii*) The western upland region forms a feeble waterdivide between the Wardha and the Wainganga drainage. Human interest here centres around the bunded irrigation tanks and rice cultivation.

(*iii*) The Wainganga river basin is a heavy rice tract with clusters of prosperous agricultural villages. Iron ore mining may add to the variety of the economy in the near future. It is the most densely populated tract of the district.

(*iv*) The Pranhita-Godavari lowlands are extremely narrow and account for the only agricultural villages of Sironcha tahsil. Life is peaceful and quiet.

(*v*) The Rajura uplands is a trap country with the usual monotony of flat tops, barren desolate appearance, poor dry farming and live-stock rearing.

(*vi*) The eastern hills that cover nearly a third of the total area is still a forested virgin tract, little used except by the tribal Maria Gonds. It is a backward region.

Wardha Lowlands.—The Wardha lowlands, that are agriculturally very productive and hence recording handsome population densities in the rural areas, include the valleys of the Wardha and the Penganga in the western halves of Warora and Chandrapur tahsils and the northern parts of Rajura tahsil. Topographically, the area is a featureless plain, sloping gently south-eastwards and is found at elevations, less than 250 metres. There are a few occasional outcrops of knolls, rising above the valley floor and comprising relatively more resistant rock formations. Geologically speaking, the area has a great variety, and geological horizons follow each other in quick succession as one proceeds from the valley floor eastwards. In the extreme north, in the Wunna valley, there occur rocks of the Deccan traps, that form a broken stony area in the basalts that thin out rapidly eastwards. Along the valley floors of the Wardha and the Penganga, the surface geology consists of drift deposits, namely, river-borne alluvium, but underlying these deposits are the lower Gondwana rock series along the Wardha valley, covering 3,000 km² from Warora township in the north-west till as far as Dabha in Chandrapur tahsil. The 'talchir' boulders and conglomerates, shales and sandstones outcrop in patches between Chandrapur and Bhandak. The 'kamthi' sandstones and shales occur extensively as far north as Warora, but are found between Chandrapur and Keljhar mainly. Underlying them are felspathic sandstones and shales of the 'Barakar' series that carry valuable coal seams in them. These coals, mostly medium grade bituminous variety are worked in a number of collieries around Ghugus, Bhandak, Warora, Majri, Chandrapur and Ballarpur. Eastwards, in Warora tahsil, in the rising uplands one comes across 'Lameta' rocks, mostly limestone, while further east in the floors of the Erai valley, the archaean gneissic terrain is exposed with its peneplaned level and many tank depressions. Westward, along the Penganga valley occur extensive formations of Penganga beds of limestone and shale which become waterlogged during the rains.

The shales and felspathic sandstones are worked at present around Bhandak, Ballarpur and Isarpur for white, red and brown clay deposits. The lameta limestone, with a subvitreous lustre is being worked in quarries near Shegaon, Dongargaon and Pisdura, all in the western part of Warora tahsil. Dolomites are worked around Nilai while the Kamthi sandstones are quarried for building stones around Karami village.

The soils of the Wardha-Penganga valleys are also rich and varied. Deep, rich, redeposited black regur loams and clay loams occur all along the Wardha and Penganga valley floors. Known locally as the *kali* soils these agriculturally very productive soils are ideally suited for *rabi* crops due to their high moisture retentive capacity ; these soils tend to become waterlogged and poorly aerated during the monsoon rains and hence are not well suited for the kharif crops of the monsoon months. Eastwards, over the relatively higher ground, these soils are replaced by shallow yellow loams that tend to be thirsty. Immediately outside the banks of the rivers, occur the *kanhar* and *Barsi kanhar* soils that are inferior to the *kali* soils and are equally heavy for *kharif* crops. These soils, however, have a good admixture of lime derived from the intratrappeans and lametas and hence become open and well drained during the *rabi* season though waterlogged during rains.

The Wardha lowlands have perhaps the least area under forest-cover within the district ; yet, considerable sections are under 'reserved forests'. Tracts underlain by limestones and sandstones in the feeble watershed between the Wardha and the Erai *nadi* are under the western Chandrapur forest division, comprising generally open, dry, deciduous forests with teak, ain and bijesal as the dominant species. Along the Wardha and Penganga valleys in the Chandrapur and Rajura tahsils, even extensive parts of low grounds, underlain by shale and liable to seasonal waterlogging, are covered by dense thorn and scrub jungles that provide fuel and firewood for the rustic home.

Fairly secure and prosperous agriculture is the basis of the rural economy in the Wardha lowlands. More than half of the area is under the plough and nearly 70 per cent of the gross cropped area is under food-crops. Yet, the highest proportion of cash crops—about 30 per cent—is recorded only in this area of the district. This pattern of cropping, of course, is in sharp contrast to the regur soil areas further west in the Berar plains where the cash crops like cotton dominate the rural economy and also to the rice tract of the district itself further east where food crops account for more than four-fifths of the gross cropped area. This is also the only tract in the district in which *rabi* cropping is significant in the proportion of the gross cropped area occupied. Nearly a quarter of the crop area is under *rabi* crops. This can be well understood in the context of the moisture retentive regurs that become heavy during the rains but self-ploughed and open for the *rabi* season. The *rabi* crop, wheat, occupies the largest area under any single crop—about 15 per cent—and is equalled by the cash crop cotton which is sown late in the *kharif* season. *Kharif* jowar in the better drained *morand* soils, *rabi* sesame and linseed and to a much lesser extent rice in the heavier *Barsi kanhar* and *kali* soils are the other important crops. Irrigation is practically absent within this region.

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Population is essentially rural and Marathi speaking; Telugu in the Chandrapur tahsil and Gondi in some rural areas are the secondary linguistic groups. All the urban population—about eight per cent of the total for the district—is concentrated in these agricultural lowlands, with four towns: Chandrapur, Ballarpur, Warora and Rajura. People live in uniformly medium sized villages with a population ranging between 500 and 1,000 that are generally compact, squarish and spaced at average distances of three km from each other in the lowlands and farther apart in higher ground. The main traffic arteries of the district, linking the district with the adjoining and farther areas of the State and the country follow the Wardha valley. The Wardha river is crossed at two points by the railway and at a single point by the highway. Recent attempts by the Government to construct three submergible causeways across the river will induce at least an increased seasonal flow of traffic between these lowlands and the adjoining districts.

Western Upland region.—The western upland region that forms the watershed between the Wardha and the Wainganga tributaries comprises the area that lies east of the Erai river valley and includes more or less the area that lies to the west of the Chandrapur-Mul-Nagbhir-Nagpur railway. It includes the eastern parts of Warora tahsil, the western half of Brahmapuri tahsil and the northern sections of Chandrapur tahsil. In topography, the region includes two parallel north-south running cuesta type hill ridges with their scarp and cliff faces looking westwards, and a central depression at elevations of about 250 metres drained southwards by the Nag, the Kalbar and the Gondni, all of which join together towards the south-eastern extreme of this region to form the Huma *nala* itself a tributary of the Mul river. The two ridges—the Chimur hills in the west and the Nagbhir-Mul hills to the east that somewhat converge closer to each other in the southern parts, form more or less the limits of this geographical unit: these are made up of Vindhyan sandstone outcrops that lie unconformably over the archaean gneisses and schists. These rock formations, by virtue of their greater resistance to tropical humid weathering have withstood denudation and stand up boldly in relief. Their gentle dip eastwards and massive jointing have resulted in the steep west-looking scarps. The sandstones are light reddish in colour, medium to coarse grained with an open texture. The underlying shale and limestone formations outcrop at the lower end of the sandstones along the eastern edge where these rock formations abut abruptly over the gneisses. The shale beds are reddish in colour and are easily liable to fragmental weathering. The limestones, thin bedded but occasionally massive, buff or red in colour dip about 15 degrees from the vertical and are worked in quarries around the village Purkepar, west of Nawargaon. Workable copper deposits are found at Govindpur about 5 km north-west of Talodhi railway station in the archaeans and iron ore near Bhisi west of Nagbhir.

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Shallow brown and yellow loam soils generally predominate over the region; these soils are thirsty and when irrigated in gently rolling terrain become good rice and sugarcane soils. Over the steeper sloping areas useless, sandy, *retari* and *bardi* soils and at times *pandhri* soils are observed. These areas are generally well wooded being covered by forests of the north Chandrapur division. These forests are dense and of a mixed type with teak, *bijesal*, shishum as the quality-timber yielding species and *saj, dhawa, timru, kalam, haldi,* anjan and babul as the less important species. Bamboos abound in the Moharli hill ranges.

The central depression opening out northwards is gently sloping rolling topography becoming more undulating southwards. Underlain by the lametas in the extreme north-west, the lower Gondwana shales and sandstone around Chimur and the archaeans elsewhere, the region is full of shallow tank depressions that collect the vicissitudes of the vagarious monsoon rains. One of the best known among them is the Tadoba lake set in a depression in the well forested Chimur hills. It is surrounded by a protected game sanctuary. Many wild animals, like the tiger, panther, hyaena, wild dog, jackal, honey badger, black bear, boar, langur monkeys, rhesus monkey, bats, squirrels, porcupine, sambhar and chital deer and others visit the lake and can be viewed from watch towers specially erected for the purpose. The forests abound too in bird life-ducks, peacock, jungle fowl, grey partridge, saras, snipe, fowl-being the most common.

The largest of these tanks is the Ghorajhari tank lying in the eastern dip slope of the Nagbhir hills, just south of the Nagbhir railway station. Others of importance are the Mahadoria tank, Jamur tank, Gari tank and Ramtara tank, all of which are around the village Piparda, the Kasarala and Mangrur tanks in the Nagbhir hills and the Naleshwar tank north-west of Mul. These and other smaller tanks have been bunded at the lower end of the slope and canals are drawn from them to run along the contours for a distance before being used for irrigation.

Rice is the main *kharif* crop in the loamy *wardi* soils: irrigated water-supply from the tanks assures a fairly good yield from the crop. Jowar, pulses are the other crops. *Rabi* crops are much less significant, generally declining in importance eastwards, and practically dying along the eastern limits of the region.

Settlements, fairly prosperous, and medium to large sized, are generally located at one end of the bund at the lower edge of the tanks and are well-nucleated, compact *khalsa* villages, mostly occupied by the Marathi speaking population. The size of the settlement invariably depends upon the security of the assured water-supply from the tank; the larger the area under tank irrigation, and the more assured the water-supply, larger the size of the settlement.

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The forest settlements, generally set in the midst of woods, nearby some source of dependable water-supply is in a clearing of the forest used for cultivation. There is invariably a forest *chauki* at the margin of the cultivated land. Many of these clearings are of a shifting type and hence deserted forest village sites are quite common.

Wainganga Lowlands.—A north-south elongated strip of lowlands, about 80 km wide and 120 km long, the Wainganga lowlands epitomise the agrarian economy of the district. Developed as an undulating rolling plain, sloping gently and narrowing southwards, these lowlands are mainly underlain by fine to medium grained, massive and well foliated gneisses that have been peneplaned and extensively subjected to granular weathering, though two significant outcrops of Vindhyan formations occur in the relatively higher ground around Brahmapuri and east of Alewahi railway station. The general elevation is about 250 km and the only higher elevations occur mainly in the residual knolls of Dharwar haematite quartzites that repeat as elongated hills, each about one to three kilometres long north-south and about 500 yards across, on either side of the river and constitute the main iron ore bodies within the region. Lohara, Asola, Deulgaon are the main quarrying centres for the ore.

Light coloured, sandy *wardi* soils, that cannot be ploughed before the rains cover extensively the lower grounds; along the banks of the Wainganga, are generally found productive black loams. Higher ground is covered by *morand* and *khardi* soils.

Tanks, large and small, perennial and seasonal, dot the entire area. Bunded mostly by the 'Kohli' Gonds, these tanks irrigate nearly a third to a fourth of the gross cropped area. The largest of these tanks is the Asola Mendha tank, about 15 km east of Sindewahi railway station, and near the villages Gunjewahi and Asola. Tanks are more numerous in the wider right bank plains than in the left bank, where soils are transitional, rapidly degrading into the poorer stony soils eastwards. In fact, forests approach much closer the river on the eastern banks. This may possibly be due to the gradual shifting of the river channel on the side of the left bank due to lateral shifting of meanders, and an aggraded low level river terrace with many tank depressions developing on the right bank.

The cropping pattern of this region reveals monoculture; rice dominates the economy, accounting for more than two-thirds of the gross cropped area. Along the riverside, in the flat slopeless black loams, spring crops, particularly vegetables, betel and chillis, are quite common. It is only in the higher ground, particularly in Chandrapur and Gadhchiroli tahsils, *tur* and other pulses and *kharif* jowar are more important than rice. Gram, *til* and linseed are produced occasionally during the *rabi* season.

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The poorer, stony and gravelly soils of the higher ground are covered by fairly dense mixed deciduous forests, in many respects similar to those found further west. Teak and bamboo are the most useful species. Quality teak and bijesal are obtained from the Dabha range in Chandrapur tahsil.

The rural settlements in the valley cluster closer together and are uniformly spaced. They are generally sited on tank bunds, deriving their water-supply from the tanks. Not many forest villages are to be found in this agriculturally productive tract. The villages can be broadly classed into two types: the Gond villages of the *malguzari* and *zamindari* areas and the *khalsa* villages of the ryotwari areas mostly settled by the Marathi speaking population. The proportion of Telugu speaking population increases southwards, particularly in the Chandrapur tahsil.

The *khalsa* villages sited on residual knolls, are shaded by groves of mango, tamarind and other useful trees. They generally consist of about 100 houses and support about 500 people. The houses are mostly huts, thatched with rice or jowar straw on bamboo beams and junglewood. An interesting aspect of these villages is that the village is generally built along straggling ill-kept streets, with the houses generally facing northwards and eastwards to avoid the sun; therefore, the houses lie at all angles to the street. The 'mahar' quarters usually lie apart at a distance from the main village site.

Houses of the *malguzaris* and the better class tenants are made of brick walls and are tiled or terraced. In the north, in the Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils, the *sondi* style is adopted: a strong square room or *sondi* with clay plastered walls and no windows is in the centre; over this, a light second storey is erected and verandahs are built on all sides around the *sondi*. There is a single small low door leading to the *sondi* and this can be shut off during fires or attacks by thieves, with all the valuables thrown in, into the *sondi*. The *sondi* itself is fireproof. Of course this type of house is gradually vanishing with modern architecture and better security being available during the present times. These houses have court-yards with *kothas* (cattle-sheds). Close to the gateway of the house is the *baithak* or consultation room for councils held by the *malguzari*.

The Gondi villages that can be easily distinguished by the endings in their place names with *ur* or *uru* are invariably smaller and are set in the vast *zamindari* tracts along the forest margins. They are inhabited by hard working Gonds that are mainly agricultural labourers or tenants and/or workers in the forests and mineral quarries. Two groups of them are found: the 'Maria' Gonds that are lithe, well built, scantily dressed and with faces often disfigured by small-pox. They wear beads and bangles made of shellac and are fond of dancing. They are found to a larger extent in the forest tracts of this region and

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the hills further east and south. The 'Raj' Gonds who are also found on both sides of the Wainganga are more sophisticated and advanced. They have a better standard of living.

Apart from tilling the land, collection of a variety of forest products and rearing of 'tasar' silkworms provide valuable subsidiary occupations. Collection of *tendu* leaves for the bidi industry, mohwa flowers and fruits for oil, *kadai* and *dhavda* for gum, *palas* for propagation of lac insects, *khair* for manufacture of *kath, herra, beheda* and *hirda* for tans, bamboo for domestic furniture and utensils and thatching grasses are all generally widespread in the forestside villages of the Wainganga valley as well as the forested hills further east and south in the Gadhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils. Tasar silkworms are generally reared by the 'dhimars' in Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils and the silk spinning is done by the 'koshtis' by reeling off after the cocoons are boiled in an infusion of water and castor seeds or agra plant ashes. About 200 families in Savli, Chamorshi, Gadhchiroli, Armori and Nagbhir are engaged in this activity. Nagbhir is the main centre for saris, while Chamorshi and Armori are also reputed.

Sironcha Lowlands: The Sironcha lowlands lie mainly adjoining the Godavari; they are much narrower along the Pranhita than along the Godavari. Inaccessibility and isolation are the striking features of life and economy of the people of the area. The Godavari lowlands in culture and life are closely akin to the lowlands of Andhra on the other bank rather than the Wainganga lowlands. Apart from the fairly drained *kanhar* soils, *kachar* soils, young and immature, are frequently met with in areas liable to flood inundations. *Kharif* rice is the main crop of these lowlands.

Villages are small and compact, poised away from the river. The river constitutes the main artery of traffic for people and commodity alike. The forest timber is often floated in the river and collected along the riverside timber depots. The population is mainly Telugu speaking in the lowlands, and Gondi in the uplands. Telugu villages can be easily identified from place names with suffixes like *gudam, gudiam, palli, peta* and *puram*. The only road that traverses the country is the Chandrapur-Sironcha road running through excellent forest country.

Rajura Uplands.—The Rajura uplands in the southern and western parts of the Rajura tahsil is a structural plateau and a tangle of broken hill country at an average elevation of 500 to 600 metres. The whole area is underlain by a succession of lava flows interbedded with thin beds of limestone, shale, sandstone and cherts. The traps descend down to the south, north and the east through steep and often cliffy scarp slopes. A large number of seasonal streams have incised themselves quite deep in the lava flows with narrow steep flanks, which at times exceed even 40 degrees. They have a depth of more than 100 metres over the

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adjoining plateau level; the Jalkhas *nadi* draining south-eastwards is the most significant of them. There are a very large number of springs occurring all over the plateau surface at different height levels along the valley flanks of streams where the perched watertable in the porous intratrappeans are exposed. These springs constitute the main source of water-supply for the hamlets scattered over the plateau.

Almost the entire plateau surface is covered by the extensive Manikgarh State Forest that mostly comprise high grass and bamboo as the dominant vegetation, though the forest cover tends to become more open westwards. Soils are poor, stony, reddish and lateritic. Cropping, if any, is of a seasonal and shifting nature confined mainly to the rainy monsoon season. Bajri, gram and other pulses are the main crops. Grazing of the rural livestock provides an important subsidiary occupation for the forest dwellers of the area.

Settlements are tiny hamlets confined to the streamsides, which are the only areas having a limited extent of cultivation. Most of the settlements are groups of hamlets with the 'Kolam' huts invariably along the forest margins. The area suffers from dire inaccessibility, the few cart tracks traversing the region running along the valley flanks.

Eastern Upland Region.—The eastern upland region comprises two-thirds of the Gadhchiroli tahsil and almost the entire Sironcha tahsil barring the lowland strips along the Godavari and the Pranhita.

The whole area is a tangle of hill country, and practically over the entire area, accessibility is only through unmetalled roads, cart tracks and foot-paths. One cannot travel even a single kilometre in the area away from the hills and the forests. Gushing torrents and a gloomy shady forest environment characterise the entire area. Except for the south-western parts of Sironcha uplands covered by the Vindhyan and Penganga beds, the entire area is floored by the archaeans and a granitic batholith the latter in eastern Gadhchiroli. Fine grained phyllites, soft, pink and schistose or dark grey and massive cover large areas in the north: granites and granitic pegmatites with intrusions of amphibolites and basic rocks from the highest elevations in the eastern boundary areas. Elsewhere gneisses and quartzites are the country rocks. The land in general slopes westwards and southwards. Granular weathering has resulted in gravelly and coarse sandy soils all over the region.

The entire area is forest clad: dense, wet deciduous mixed forests with high grass characterise the whole area. In the north, in the Wairagarh division, teak, *bijesal*, shishum, *saj, hadli* and *anjan* are the main varieties. Allapalli, and Aheri forests in the south Chandrapur division are much denser, and are almost virgin forests; *suria* or Indian ironwood tree, *sal, rohan, tendu,*

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salai, mahua, char and *semul* are the main species. Along the Pranhita, Godavari and the Bandkia river valleys, almost pure stands of teak forests occur. *Anjan* forests are widespread all over Sironcha in the sands and gravelly soils, though locally better soils are covered by teak. Thorny bamboo is most common in the eastern Sironcha area. But, the best developed forests are found in the Aheri *zamindari* division; these are mostly bamboo forests, with teak along the streams. The rivers Godavari, Bandkia, Indravati and Pranhita are widely used for transporting timber downstream as far as Rajahmundry in Andhra Pradesh.

Khalsa villages are few; *zamindari* and forest villages are more widespread. The population mostly consists of the 'Maria' Gonds and a group of Telugu tribes; they mostly live in groups of individual huts nestling together in cultivated forest clearings and are generally of a shifting nature. As a result, desertion of village sites is quite frequent in these areas, as the clearings lose their fertility due to heavy rainwash and soil erosion or due to ravages by epidemics and wild animals. Net sown area within the region does not even exceed a tenth of the total area, rice being the main crop. The entire area breathes of historic heritage; a number of ruins of Gond forts near Wairagarh, Surjagarh and Tipagarh, almost lost within the impenetrable forest clad hills remind us of the Gondi architecture.

Summary.

The district of Chandrapur rich in a variety of resources, agricultural, mineral and forest wealth, is a relatively underpopulated region of the State and even of the country. Its peripheral location, its tribal population, the forested and hilly nature of the terrain, lack of accessibility have all made the district less progressive in its economy though the potential resources warrant a more intense use of them. The district is a veritable ethnological museum and the cultural fusion brought about by the mixing of different groups of people is indeed very fascinating.

The fairly developed areas of the district lie mainly along the Wardha valley in the western parts; eastwards, the population densities decrease and at the same time becomes more tribal and backward. The agrarian economy of the district, too, is richly varied, the only surplus rice tract of the State being the Wainganga valley in this and the adjoining Bhandara districts. The tank irrigated rice lowlands of the district offer a sharp contrast to the millets-cotton-wheat dominating economy of the monotonous regur soils of the State that almost reach up to the western parts of the district. Yields, too, compared to the State average are quite high, though improvements are certainly possible and desirable.

The district is rich in forest wealth too. The district has the largest area under forest cover within the State; most of the forests are virgin and carry valuable timber. Apart from minor forest products collection, timber is an important product of these

forests; paper mills have also been recently started using the bamboo of the forests. If adequate power and transport facilities are developed, the district can certainly flower into a region with a variety of industries based upon forest products.

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Chandrapur is rich too in mineral wealth; high grade iron ore, gondwana coal, chromite, limestone, clays and building stones are all being mined at present but the minerals of the district await a fuller prospecting and exploitation. Ample hydel power potentials exist in the waters of the Indravati, Pranhita and Wainganga tributaries and await utilisation. With the recent discovery by the State Geographical Survey of rich iron and other deposits around Surjagarh, proposals are afoot to link this region with Ballarpur on the main railway by a branch line. A proposed highway from Chandrapur to Jagdalpur will also bring better accessibility and prospects of economic development to these underdeveloped eastern tracts of the district.

With its wild life, richly preserved game sanctuaries, spots of scenic beauty and spots of archaeological interest, the district also affords excellent opportunities to develop tourist interests. In short, the district has ample scope for development of a prosperous economy.

GEOLOGY*. Description of Rock Units.

A general sequence of rock units in order of increasing antiquity is tabulated below:

Recent	..	Alluvium and Soil.
Pleistocene-Recent		Laterite
Cretaceous-Eocene	..	Deccan Trap with intertrappeans
Cretaceous	..	Lameta beds.
Upper-Carboniferous to Upper Triassic	..	Gondwana System.
Late-Pre-Cambrian		Vindhyan System.
		Cuddapah System.
Archaeans		Intrusives (granites and basic dykes).
		Granite Gneisses and Amphibolites, phyllites, quartzites, brecciated quartzites and banded quartz magnetite rocks.

Archaeans.

The rocks of Archaean age include granites, gneisses, quartzites, brecciated quartzites and banded magnetite rocks with intrusives. Granites are coarse-grained and light pinkish in colour, primarily composed of biotite, flesh coloured felspar and quartz. Most of the outcrops appear to be highly decomposed, which are intruded by numerous quartz veins and quartz-felspar pegmatite. The gneisses occupy a vast area. They show profound weathering resulting in their forming the plains covered by mantle of

*The section on Geology is contributed by Geological Survey of India.

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soils derived from them. Exposures of these gneissic rocks are sporadic due to their susceptibility to quick weathering. Megascopically, the gneisses are leucocratic and fine to medium grained. They are generally massive and well foliated. Quartz, felspar, muscovite and biotite are easily recognisable. Some gneisses are intersected with thin veins of pink felspar. Amphibolites occur as conformable bands and layers in the gneisses. They are, however, intensely weathered and exposures of fresh rock are rare. Megascopically, the amphibolites are light to dark green in colour but generally altered and soft. Hornblende and felspars are the only recognisable minerals in hard specimens. Phyllites occur in the extreme north of the area. They are fine grained, compact and generally non-fissile. Two types of phyllites are observed. One variety is pink to greenish grey in colour, comparatively soft and shows faint schistose character. The other variety is dark grey in colour and being arenaceous is comparatively hard and compact. The quartzites and banded quartz-magnetites which appear to belong to one cycle of sedimentation are remnants of the older metasediments (Dharwars) occurring as isolated hills and knolls within the gneisses. The banded quartz-magnetite rocks are composed of alternating layers of ore minerals (both crystalline magnetite and hematite) and quartz. Brecciated quartzites stand out prominent at many points as isolated small hills and are intensely fractured, later filled up by the secondary silica. Granites, granite-pegmatites and basic rocks are intrusives in gneisses and amphibolites and generally occur as thin discordant and concordant bodies. The granites and granite-pegmatites are medium to coarse grained some times with large phenocrystas of felspars. The other recognisable minerals are quartz and little amount of ferromagnesian minerals. The basic intrusives are melanocratic, medium grained, hard and compact, essentially composed of augites and plagioclase laths with minor amounts of secondary hornblende.

Late-Precambrian.

Cuddapah System.—The rocks of this system consist of shales, limestones and quartzites. The quartzites are medium to coarse grained and show wide ripple marks at several places. The quartzites are overlain by grey, silicious, massive, impure limestones. These limestones usually do not show any gradational relation with quartzites, but they probably lie on a disconformable surface above the quartzite. Most of the limestones are lateritic and some are silicious and dolomitic in character. The shales are generally grey to purple in colour.

Vindhyan System.—The Vindhyan rocks of this area comprise sandstones, shales, limestones and conglomerates. The most persistent and well defined rock type of the *Vindhyan system* seen in the area are the sandstones, which show a wide range in colour, compaction and grain size. On account of their relative resistance to weathering they stand out as conspicuous hills and ridges. The most common type of sandstone is light reddish in colour and medium grained. Reddish sandstones are generally

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coarse grained and open textured. Fine-grained, compact, light-coloured sandstones form conspicuous exposures. The shales are generally fine grained, thinbedded, light grey to light reddish in colour with development of a set of close vertical joints which make them fragmental. The limestones are thinly bedded, although in some places they are massive. They have a pale, dark grey to buff or red colour. Some bands of limestone are rich in lime and some in magnesia. The dip of the rocks varies from 15° to almost vertical. The conglomerates have a limited lateral and vertical extent and are often partially removed by slumping of the jointed blocks. They may vary from coarse, loosely cemented to medium compact and indurated type. Their thickness varies at places. The pebbles are well rounded to sub-angular, ill-sorted and without any preferred orientation. They are mostly of sandstone, vein quartz, quartzite, quartz-magnetite rock and chert fragments. The pebbles of sandstone are mostly light reddish in colour, compact and fine grained.

Upper Carboniferous to Upper Trias.

Gondwana system.—The formations belonging to this division are referable to the following groups:—

Chikiala beds,
Kota Maleri,
Kamthis,
Barakars,
Talchirs.

The Talchir series consist of a boulder bed at the bottom, followed by shales and sandstones successively. In Barakars, the predominant rocks are the white felspathic sandstone, shales and clays along with coal seams. The rocks in the Kamthi group are sandstones, shales, clays, and conglomerates of which the sandstones and shales form the bulk of the series. The rocks of kotamaleri group comprise sandstones, clays, limestones in the order of abundance. The Chikiala beds represent the youngest member of the Gondwanas of the Pranhita-Godavari basin and comprise conglomerates, sandstones, shales and clays.

Cretaceous.

Lameta Beds.—The group is composed of clays and calcareous white sandstones. The clays are usually white with some reddish shales. The sandstones are loose and purplish-white in colour and are slightly calcareous. They present a sub-vitreous lustre on fractured surfaces.

Cretaceous-Eocene.

Deccan Traps and Intertrappeans.—A considerable part of the area is covered by Deccan Traps and intertrappean beds. The Deccan Traps consist of layers of basaltic lavas, varying from amygdaloidal basalt to fine grained dolerite, at places, the amygdules being filled with various minerals, like quartz amethyst, calcite, agate, chalcedony and jasper. The rocks are generally dark-grey to dark-greenish grey in colour. The non-vesicular types are hard, tough, compact and medium to fine grained, breaking with conchoidal fracture. The vesicular types are comparatively soft and break more easily.

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Interbedded with the traps are found at several places thin beds of limestone, sandstones and shales, which in places have been converted to porcellanite and chert forming the inter-trappean beds.

Pleistocene-Recent.

Laterite.- Laterite is found in the area at many places capping over the Deccan Traps and the gneisses at places. Laterite is a compact and vesicular rock essentially composed of hydrated oxides of aluminium and iron with small amounts of manganese oxides and titanium. Generally it is reddish brown in colour.

Recent.

Alluvium and Soil.—The bedrocks at several places, specially the river valley areas of the region are covered by recent alluvium deposited by the streams and different types of soils derived from breaking up of the underlying rocks.

The typical soil derived from the Deccan Trap is "Regur" or black cotton soil. They contain high alumina and carbonate of calcium and magnesium with variable amount of potash, low nitrogen and phosphorus. They are generally porous and swell considerably on addition of water and dry up with cracks on losing the moisture. The black soil areas have a high degree of fertility and do not require manuring for long periods.

The gneisses and other rocks of the Archaean age on weathering give rise to "Red Soil" which is most common in the area where those rocks are present. The red soils are less fertile than the black soils.

Mineral Resources.

Coal.—In the Chandrapur-Wardha valley several coal mines are being worked. Following are the areas where the coal mines are found:—

(1) *Chandrapur-Ballarshah area.*—The Ballarpur Colliery is working 16 m thick seam in three sections. The seam trends North-North-East to South-South-West with a dip of 4 towards East to South-East. There is a major dip fault on the eastern side of the area against which the workings terminate. The fault has a northerly hade with a throw of 90 m. Hindusthan, Lalpeth, Shree Mahakali, and the Rayatwari collieries which are also located in this area are working different sections of the seam. The coal is non-coking and ungraded. The local reserves within the leased out areas of the four concerns have been estimated to be about 262 million tonnes.

(2) *Warora-Manjri area.*—Two seams are known to occur near Warora, the upper one being 4.60 m and the lower 3.00 m thick. In the Manjri area there is a 10.00 m thick seam, the bottom (3.70 m.) of which had good quality coal, whereas the upper portion is shaly. The total reserves in the area are estimated to be of the order of 32.5 million tonnes.

(3) *Sasti-Rajura area.*—The thick seam of Ballarpur area extends south of the Wardha river into this area where it is being worked into two sections by the Sasti colliery. The thickness of the seam in this area is about 10.70 m. About 154.6 million tonnes are estimated to be present in the leased areas.

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(4) *Rajura-Wun area.*—All the workings in this area have been abandoned long ago and very little information is available. However, from the boring put down as far back as 1877, it is reported that 8.23 — 9.45 m. thick seam occurs at Pisgaon and 5.49 — 9.14 m thick seam at Rajura. The reserves in the area are estimated to be of the order of 330.22 million tonnes.

(5) *Ghugus-Telwasa area.*—The total thickness of the seam that is being worked at Robertson incline of the Ghugus colliery is 11.21 m. The coal seam trends north-north-east and south-south-east and dips 8° towards west-south-west. The reserves in colliery-lease area are estimated to be about 198 million tonnes.

Thus the total reserves in all the above areas are about 985 m tonnes. A large terrain covered with Kanthi rocks to the east of the existing lines of the collieries near Chandrapur and Ballarpur and the area west of Ghugus is considered potentially coal-bearing.

Besides this, records of earlier drill-holes indicate the existence of a 12.19 — 21.24 m thick seam between Manjri and Nawkawada. The coal from this area is non-coking and high in moisture. There are two collieries working, one at Ghugus belonging to Messrs. Ballarpur Collieries Ltd. and the other at Manjri belonging to Manakji Dadabhoy. During mapping of an area of 363 km² (in Sheets 551/16, 55 p/4 and 8, 561/B, 56 M/1, 5, 6, 9 and 10) on areal photos, besides other rocks the Barakar rocks were recorded having strike varying between North 15° West and North 25° West with easterly dips of 8° to 18°. On Kondayai-Ka-Pahar a 4.5 m section of a coal seam was found exposed. Here the beds strike North 70° West-South 70° East and dip at 18° towards south-west. Co-relation of the different working sections of the five collieries in the area indicates the existence of a 15.24 metre thick seam in the area between Durgapur and the Wardha river on the south.

The coal from this area has high moisture (10.3 to 11.3%) and is of grade II. The collieries are raising about 35,560 tonnes of coal per month.

Copper.—The occurrence of malechite has been recorded at Thanwasana in stray traces in quartz veins, traversing phyllitic quartzites and argillaceous sand stones. As the bulk of this vein-quartz is barren, the occurrence does not appear to be promising. The copper-ore near Govindpur village occurs in a small quartz reef but is not of any economic value.

Lead-ore.—A few pieces of very small crystal of galena were found on the surface near Padmandadda *nala*.

Building and Construction materials.—Granite, Vindhyan sandstone and quartzite, limestone, Gondwana sandstone and basalts of Trappean age can yield substantial supplies of material for

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being used in buildings and roads etc. Vindhyans are a good store-house for building stones in Pipalgaon area. The sandstones are suitable for all sorts of building purposes and are extensively used locally. Brecciated quarizites are good sources for road ballast. Massive lateritic is also used in the area as building stone.

The Kamthi sandstones quarried in the reserved forest area, about 4 km. to the south-west of Karanji are curved and trimmed into water tubes. Kamthi sandstones near Bhutara Hill and Isapur are used for building purposes. One of the finest display of the application of the Kamthi sandstone for building purposes is in the walls of the town of Chandrapur about 9 km in circuit. The sandstone of the lower portion of the Kamthis present special facility for dressing, being soft when first quarried and hardens on exposure. The compact pink-coloured argillaceous sandstone of Isapur, furnish splendid material for illustrating the fine tracery work that Indian skilled artists are capable of carrying. At Lalpeth near Chandrapur there are some massive monoliths of gods and demons; but the religious tendency of the past expressed itself more specially by hewing out temples in solid rocks. Many of these carved temples are at Bhandak, Winjhasar, Deolwara, Ghugus and Chikli.

Limestone.—Limestone occurs 0.4 km. north-north-east of Purkepar village, about 6 km east of Nawargaon. The occurrence is 16 km west of Alewahi railway station. The stone is fine grained and pink in colour. Limestone also occurs at Mardha and dolomite at Niljai. Limestone extending over several square kilometres in Chandrapur district, may yield many million tonnes, but the limestone does not appear to be of any commercial importance, because of its impure seliceous and lateritic character. However, some of the massive quartzites occurring between Somanpalli and Dongargaon may be analysed so as to assess their suitability for commercial purposes.

Clay.—Occurrences of several pits of white clay have been recorded in reserved forest area on both sides of the Chandrapur-Allapalli road, about 1.6 km. east of Kothari. The clay occurs in patches of varying sizes; some of them measure about 83,613, 33,445, 16,722.5 and 8,361 sq. metres in extent. Another fairly big patch is seen along the Kuklai *nala*. The quality of the clay is variable from deposit to deposit. Colour varies from pure white to various tints of brown and red. The pure white variety gives a whitish to greyish colour after firing. The plasticity is variable and the clay stands up to 1300 c. Shrinkage varies from nil to 5 per cent. The reserves are estimated at 921,000 tonnes. Parts of the area having this clay have been leased out.

In the collieries worked near Chandrapur town from Durgapur to Lalpet, a fire clay bed occurs varying in thickness from 1.50—3.70 m. The felspathic Kamthi sandstone near Bhandak has

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decomposed sufficiently, for the clay resulting from the alternation of the constituent felspars to be concentrated by levigation and washing and is being used in local potteries for the preparation of earthenwares. Following occurrences of fire-clay in the Kamthi sandstone of the Wardha Valley coal field have also been noted: (i) near Isapur clay is found in an area measuring about 365 m in length and 68.6 m in width, (ii) about 1.6 km north of Ballarshah, there are several small pits where clay is being quarried, (iii) 4 km. west of Junana there is a patch of clay measuring about 91.0 m in length and 18.0 m in width in the forest, (iv) a small patch on the western outskirts of Kothari; (v) an outcrop of white clay near Katali on the bank of the Wardha river, and (vi) an exposure in a railway cutting near mile post 765 on the narrow gauge of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway.

CLIMATE.* Seasons.

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

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district are available for 18 stations for periods ranging from 12 to 94 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables 1 and 2. The average annual rainfall in the district is 1,420.2 mm. (55.91 inches). The rainfall in the district generally increases from the west towards the east and varies from 1,184.8 mm (46.65 inches) at Warora to 1,826.5 mm. (71.92 inches) at Murumgaon. The rainfall during the south-west monsoon months, June to September, constitutes about 89 per cent of the annual rainfall. July is the rainiest month. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is not large. During the fifty year period 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 136 per cent of the normal occurred in 1938. 1920 was the year with the lowest annual rainfall which was only 50 per cent of the normal. In the same 50 year period the annual rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 9 years, two of which were consecutive. Considering the rainfall at the individual stations it is found that two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once each at 7 out of 18 stations and three consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once at Chimur during the same fifty year period. It will be seen from table 2 that the annual rainfall in the district was between 1,000 and 1,600 mm (39.37 and 62.99 inches) in 36 years out of 50.

On an average there are 63 rainy days (*i.e;* days with rainfall of 2.5 mm 10 cents or more) in a year in the district. This

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

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number, varies from 59 at Warora and Ghorajheri to 72 at Murumgaon.

CLIMATE. Rainfall.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 337.3 mm (13.28 inches) at Armori on September 5, 1910.

Temperature.

There are three meteorological observatories in the district, one each at Brahmapuri, Chandrapur and Sironcha. While the records at Chandrapur extend to a long period of years, Brahmapuri observatory was started only recently and the observatory at Sironcha has about 10 years of data. The data of Chandrapur and Sironcha may be taken as representative of the northern and southern parts of the district, respectively. After October both day and night temperatures decrease progressively till December which is the coldest month. In the northern parts of the district, the mean daily maximum temperature in December is 28.2° C (82.8° F) and the mean daily minimum 11.6° C (52.9° F). The mean daily maximum in the southern half of the district is 29.6° C (85.3° F) and the mean daily minimum 14.6° C (58.3° F). During the cold season, cold spells affect the district in association with the passage of western disturbances across north India. The minimum temperature on such occasions may go down occasionally to about 3° C (37.4° F) in the northern parts of the district and to about 8° C (46.4° F) in the southern parts of the district. Temperatures rise rapidly after February till May which is the hottest month of the year. The mean daily maximum temperature in May is about 43.0° C (109.4° F) and the mean daily minimum is about 28 or 29° C (82.4 or 84.2° F). The heat in summer is intense during the day especially in the northern parts of the district. Occasionally the day temperature rises up to 47° or 48° C (116.6 or 118.4° F). The afternoon heat is sometimes relieved by thundershowers. With the onset of the south-west monsoon in the district by about the middle of June the temperatures decrease appreciably and the weather becomes more pleasant. Early in October when the south-west monsoon withdraws from the district the day temperatures increase a little and a secondary maximum is reached in October. Later both day and night temperatures decrease progressively. The decrease in night temperatures is rapid. The highest maximum temperature recorded at Chandrapur was 48.3° C (118.9° F) on May 16, 1912. It was 46.7° C (116.1° F) at Sironcha on May 27, 1954 and June 8, 1953. The lowest minimum temperature recorded at Chandrapur was 2.8° C (37.0° F) on January 10, 1899 and 7.8° C (46.0° F) at Sironcha on January 3, 1951.

Humidity.

The air is generally dry over the district except during the south-west monsoon season when the humidity exceeds 70 per cent. The summer months are the driest when the relative humidity in the afternoons is between 20 and 25 per cent.

Cloudiness.

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

CHAPTER 1. General. CLIMATE. Winds.

Winds are generally light with some increase in wind force during the latter part of the summer season and in the south-west monsoon season. In the post-monsoon and cold seasons winds blow mostly from directions between north and east. In the first half of the summer season winds gradually change over to direction between east and south and by May winds from directions between south-west and north-west become more common. During the south-west monsoon season the winds are mainly from the south-west or west.

Special weather phenomena.

In association with monsoon depressions which originate in the Bay of Bengal and move westwards the district experiences strong winds and widespread heavy rain. Less frequently storms and depressions from the Bay of Bengal during the post-monsoon months also affect the weather over the district. Thunderstorms occur in all the months, their incidence being the highest during the monsoon season and lowest during the cold season.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and special weather phenomena, respectively for Chandrapur and tables 3 (a), 4 (a) and 5 (a) give similar data for Sironcha.

TABLE No. 1

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL

Station	No. of years of data		January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Chandrapur ..	50	*a*	7·6	24·9	14·7	19·6	31·7	194·6	392·9	308·1	215·4
		b	0·6	1·6	1·2	1·7	1·3	9·6	17·1	14·5	10·5
Warora ..	50	*a*	8·6	23·1	15·2	15·2	11·2	185·7	377·9	283·7	187·5
		b	0·7	1·5	1·2	1·3	1·2	9·6	16·9	13·5	9·5
Mul ..	50	*a*	10·2	24·6	14·0	16·3	13·7	183·4	398·8	300·5	181·6
		b	0·7	1·6	1·2	1·7	1·4	9·4	17·9	14·9	10·1
Brahmapuri ..	50	*a*	14·2	24·1	12·7	17·3	14·0	215·4	498·6	398·5	207·8
		b	0·9	1·7	1·4	1·6	1·4	9·2	18·3	15·7	10·1
Armori ..	50	*a*	10·7	23·4	13·2	14·5	12·2	204·0	490·0	406·4	202·9
		b	0·8	1·6	1·2	1·4	1·5	8·7	18·1	16·1	10·6
Sironcha ..	50	*a*	9·9	17·0	14·0	24·4	26·4	170·7	377·9	304·5	200·9
		b	0·7	1·2	1·0	1·5	1·7	8·5	17·0	14·4	10·8
Chimur ..	50	*a*	10·4	21·6	16·5	14·5	16·3	202·2	414·3	302·8	195·6
		b	0·7	1·4	1·4	1·4	1·4	9·2	17·0	14·1	10·0
Gadhchiroli ..	46	*a*	11·7	21·3	14·7	15·0	11·4	231·4	525·3	413·3	218·7
		b	0·8	1·4	1·2	1·6	1·1	9·2	18·9	16·7	10·7

Aheri	37	*a*	9·4	21·6	18·3	24·6	19·6	199·6	494·0	387·3	218·9
		b	0·7	1·2	1·4	1·8	1·3	9·0	17·9	16·6	11·4
Asola	45	*a*	10·7	21·3	12·7	13·7	13·5	205·5	483·6	366·0	196·3
		b	0·8	1·3	1·1	1·4	1·3	9·1	18·0	15·2	10·3
Ghorajheri	45	*a*	10·4	23·1	12·5	12·5	7·9	213·4	456·9	344·2	208·8
		b	0·5	1·2	1·0	1·2	0·7	9·1	17·4	14·4	9·6
Khairee	45	*a*	16·0	24·9	11·9	14·7	9·4	200·7	456·9	361·2	199·6
		b	0·8	1·6	1·1	1·4	0·9	9·0	17·1	15·0	10·0
Kunghari	45	*a*	9·1	18·5	8·9	10·9	9·1	204·7	549·4	381·3	205·5
		b	0·7	1·1	0·6	0·8	0·8	8·8	18·3	15·3	10·1
Dhanora	30	*a*	11·4	22·9	13·2	9·9	7·9	226·3	630·9	463·0	264·9
		b	0·6	1·3	1·2	0·8	0·7	9·1	21·1	18·3	13·0
Nalesar	24	*a*	9·1	30·7	14·2	17·8	8·6	190·7	453·6	339·6	196·1
		b	0·8	1·8	1·0	1·4	0·8	9·2	18·1	14·1	10·0
Garmusi	24	*a*	8·6	28·7	12·5	14·2	8·1	195·6	435·4	392·7	206·8
		b	0·6	1·7	1·2	1·3	0·7	9·6	18·5	15·3	10·4
Ghat	25	*a*	8·4	27·9	9·4	8·9	12·2	228·9	476·5	399·5	242·8
		b	0·6	1·3	0·8	0·8	1·0	9·4	17·2	15·0	11·0
Murumgaon	12	*a*	7·1	20·3	6·9	24·6	15·7	285·2	569·5	567·9	256·5
		b	0·5	1·1	0·4	1·4	1·7	9·7	19·2	20·4	13·1
Chandrapur (District). ..		*a*	10·2	23·3	13·1	16·0	12·8	207·7	472·4	373·4	211·5
		b	0·7	1·4	1·1	1·4	1·2	9·2	18·0	15·5	10·6

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Station	No. of years of data		October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year**	Lowest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
									Amount (mm)	Date
(1)	(2)		(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Chandrapur	50	*a*	56·7	15·7	3·8	1,267·4	167	59	254·0	1884 July 12
		b	2·8	1·1	0·5	62·5	(1936)	(1902)		
Warora	50	*a*	54·1	16·8	5·8	1,184·8	154	49	228·1	1913 July 18
		b	2·6	1·2	0·3	59·5	(1933)	(1920)		
Mul	50	*a*	60·2	15·0	3·6	1,221·9	154	49	275·1	1903 October 5
		b	2·9	1·1	0·4	63·3	(1949)	(1920)		
Brahmapuri	50	*a*	51·6	11·7	6·1	1,472·0	154	49	323·6	1938 August 31
		b	2·5	0·8	0·5	64·1	(1938)	(1904)		
Armori	50	*a*	56·4	13·2	4·3	1,451·2	146	50	337·3	1910 September 5
		b	2·7	0·8	0·4	63·9	(1938)	(1920)		
Sironcha	50	*a*	62·5	17·0	5·6	1,230·8	144	48	247·4	1953 August 14
		b	3·5	1·1	0·4	61·8	(1938)	(1939)		
Chimur	50	*a*	52·6	13·7	7·9	1,268·4	155	56	335·5	1927 August 9
		b	2·8	1·0	0·5	60·9	(1936)	(1918)		
Gadhchiroli	46	*a*	65·8	16·3	6·9	1,551·8	162	52	320·3	1908 August 2
		b	3·2	1·0	0·5	66·3	(1938)	(1920)		
Aheri ..	37	*a*	64·0	14·7	2·3	1,474·3	160	49	319·0	1953 August 14
		b	3·8	1·0	0·3	66·4	(1938)	(1920)		
Asola ..	45	*a*	57·7	17·5	7·1	1,405·6	151	47	226·1	1911 September 25
		b	2·8	0·8	0·4	62·5	(1938)	(1920)		
Ghorajheri ..	45	*a*	45·2	15·5	5·6	1,356·0	149	53	292·1	1944 August 21
		b	2·4	0·9	0·4	58·8	(1936)	(1920)		
Khairee ..	45	*a*	61·7	18·0	6·1	1,381·1	137	46	242·6	1949 August 13
		b	2·5	0·9	0·5	60·8	(1949)	(1920)		
Kunghari ..	45	*a*	57·4	13·2	2·5	1,440·5	152	49	287·0	1911 September 24
		b	2·6	0·9	0·2	60·2	(1949)	(1920)		
Dhanora ..	30	*a*	60·7	20·1	4·8	1,736·0	137	59	286·3	1951 July 31
		b	3·3	0·9	0·1	70·4	(1940)	(1928)		
Nalesar ..	24	*a*	75·4	18·3	2·8	1,356·9	152	57	267·7	1949 August 13
		b	3·1	1·0	0·3	61·6	(1949)	(1941)		
Garmusi ..	24	*a*	66·0	15·2	3·6	1,437·4	149	57	312·2	1949 August 13
		b	3·0	1·0	0·2	63·5	(1936)	(1941)		
Ghat ..	25	*a*	65·3	18·5	2·5	1,500·8	128	45	227·6	1911 September 24
		b	3·5	1·0	0·2	61·8	(1919)	(1913)		
Murumgaon ..	12	*a*	52·8	14·7	5·3	1,826·5	118	81)	330·2	1912 August 4
		b	3·5	1·1	0·0	72·1	(1910)	(1909		
Chandrapur (District) ..	..	*a*	59·2	15·8	4·8	1,420·2	136	50	..	
		b	3·0	1·0	0·3	63·4	(1938)	(1920)		

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

*Based on all available data up to 1958. **Years given in brackets.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Rainfall.

TABLE No. 2

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE DISTRICT

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm. (1)	No. of years (2)	Range in mm. (3)	No. of years (4)
701—800	2	1301—1400 ..	8
801—900	2	1401—1500 ..	9
901—1000	1	1501—1600 ..	8
1001—1100	4	1601—1700 ..	3
1101—1200	3	1701—1800 ..	3
1201—1300	4	1801—1900 ..	1
		1901—2000 ..	2

TABLE No. 3

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY

(CHANDRAPUR)

Month (1)	Mean Daily Maximum temperature °C (2)	Mean Daily Minimum temperature °C (3)	Highest Maximum ever recorded °C (4)	Highest Maximum ever recorded Date (5)	Lowest Minimum ever recorded °C (6)	Lowest Minimum ever recorded Date (7)	Relative Humidity* 0830 Percent (8)	Relative Humidity* 1730 Percent (9)
January	29·6	13·2	35·6	1900 January 29	2·8	1899 January 10	69	41
February	32·3	15·3	39·4	1951 February 26	3·9	1905 February 2	60	33
March	37·1	19·5	44·4	1892 March 27	7·2	1898 March 5	43	23
April	40·7	24·4	46·1	1942 April 30	11·7	1905 April 1	39	22
May	43·0	27·9	48·3	1912 May 16	18·9	1919 May 9	35	21
June	37·6	26·6	47·2	1931 June 10	20·0	1919 June 18	61	51
July	31·2	24·3	40·6	1897 July 4	17·8	1954 July 31	79	75
August	30·7	24·0	37·2	1954 August 3	18·3	1954 August 26	81	74
September	31·6	23·6	37·2	1899 September 22	18·3	1904 September 28	81	72
October	32·1	20·1	37·8	1899 October 9	11·7	1882 October 27	73	60
November	29·6	15·1	36·1	1950 November 9	7·2	1950 November 27	71	52
December	28·2	11·6	33·9	1933 December 22	3·9	1883 December 19	74	46
Annual	33·6	20·5	..	..	..	..	64	47

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE No. 3 (*a*)

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY

(SIRONCHA)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum temperature	Mean Daily Minimum temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity*	
							0830	1730
(1)	°C (2)	°C (3)	°C (4)	Date (5)	°C (6)	Date (7)	Percent (8)	Percent (9)
January	30·3	15·5	33·3	1955 January 31	7·8	1951 January 3	75	39
February	33·9	18·1	37·8	1953 February 28	10·6	1957 February 14	65	27
March	37·4	22·2	41·7	1959 March 25	13·9	1952 March 4	57	23
April	39·9	26·7	44·7	1959 April 30	20·8	1960 April 12	53	25
May	42·1	29·3	46·7	1954 May 27	21·1	1955 May 8	51	25
June	37·9	27·6	46·7	1953 June 8	22·2	1960 June 22	65	46
July	31·5	24·9	38·9	1951 July 5	21·1	1957 July 5	85	72
August	30·7	24·5	36·1	1950 August 25	8·9	1954 August 3	87	75
September	31·6	24·5	35·2	1957 September 26	21·7	1951 September 18	85	74
October	32·1	22·9	36·9	1957 October 12	14·4	1954 October 29	81	63
November	30·4	17·3	33·9	1957 November 16	10·6	1950 November 4	77	51
December	29·6	14·6	33·0	1960 December 26	9·7	1961 December 29	78	47
Annual	33·9	22·3	..	..	..	..	72	47

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE No. 4

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KM/HR.

(CHANDRAPUR)

January (1)	February (2)	March (3)	April (4)	May (5)	June (6)	July (7)	August (8)	September (9)	October (10)	November (11)	December (12)	Annual (13)
2·7	3·5	4·0	4·7	6·6	8·7	8·5	7·4	5·1	2·9	2·4	2·3	4·9

TABLE No. 4 (*a*)

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KM/HR.

(SIRONCHA)

January (1)	February (2)	March (3)	April (4)	May (5)	June (6)	July (7)	August (8)	September (9)	October (10)	November (11)	December (12)	Annual (13)
3·7	4·5	5·5	6·3	7·1	7·1	5·7	5·6	4·5	4·0	3·2	2·6	5·0

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Special weather phenomena

TABLE No. 5

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA

(CHANDRAPUR)

Mean No. of days with	January	Feb-ruary	March	April	May	June	July	August	Septem-ber	October	Nov-ember	Dec-ember	Annual
Thunder	0·2	2·7	4·0	3·3	3·8	7·8	2·6	3·5	6·2	2·3	0·9	0·2	37·5
Hail	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
Dust-Storm	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·3	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·3
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	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·2

TABLE No. 5 (a)

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA

(SIRONCHA)

Mean No. of days with	January	Feb-ruary	March	April	May	June	July	August	Sept-ember	October	Nov-ember	Dec-ember	Annual
Thunder	0·2	0·5	2·4	3·2	4·0	9·4	7·3	6·2	7·2	3·7	0·4	0·0	44·5
Hail	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
Dust-Storm	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·4	0·3	0·2	0·3	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	1·4
Squall	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·1
Fog	0·0	0·3	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·4

CHAPTER 1.

General.

FORESTS.

Chandrapur district is the richest district in the State in respect of forest wealth. The forests range from well known valuable teak of Allapalli to low quality miscellaneous ones of Warora and are spread over an area of 18,290.58 km² (70,262 sq. miles) which makes 69.99 per cent of the total geographical area of the district as against the average of 17.56 per cent for Maharashtra State. The district has the largest proportion and extent of the forests in the State. Of the total area, 7,560.21 km² (2,919 sq. miles) are under reserved forests and 10,730.37 km² (4,143 sq. miles) under protected forests. Steps are now in progress to constitute the latter as reserved forests under Chapter II of the Indian Forest Act, 1927.

For the purposes of administration, the forests are divided into six divisions, *viz.*, (i) South Chandrapur, (ii) Central Chandrapur, (iii) West Chandrapur, (iv) East Chandrapur, (v) Allapalli and (vi) Bhamragarh. All the divisions work under the Conservator of Forests, Chandrapur Circle. To exercise a strict supervision over the forests and for efficient management, these six forest divisions have been sub-divided into 41 ranges which are further divided into 102 rounds and 590 beats. The area falling within each range has been enumerated in Chapter 13.

Composition of the Crop.

Scientifically these forests belong to southern tropical dry deciduous forests as per Champion's classification. In other words, the forests of this district, come under teak producing zone of the country. But in its natural growth teak is confined to small areas scattered throughout the district, the biggest block being in the vicinity of Allapalli. Rest of the forests grow mixed crop of miscellaneous species, *i.e.*, economically unimportant or less important species, such as *ain* (*Terminalia Tomentosa*), *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *tendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), *dhawra* (*Anageissus latifolia*), *moyain* (*Lannea grandis*), *mohwa* (*Madhuca latifolia*), *aonla* (*Emblica officinalis*). Along bigger *nalas* and rivers *kusum* (*Schleichera trijuga*) and *anjan* (*Terminalia arjuna*) are invariably found. Besides the abovementioned common species, other species that are found scattered or in small compact patches are *kekda* (*Garuga pinnata*), *kasai* (*Bridelia squanmosa*), *karai* (*saccopetalum tomentosum*), *parad* (*steresspermum suavebbens*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *semal* (*bombax malabarica*), *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *tiwas* (*Ougenia dalbergioides*) depending on the microclimatic and edaphic factors. In areas where due to local reasons the moisture conditions get very much drier and soil gets comparatively hardened, *palas* (*butea monosperma*) prevails. In degraded soil, *khair* (*Acacia catechu*) becomes prominent. *Sterculia urens* is found on low hilly tracts.

The understorey in the above forests is formed on *ghont* (*Zizuphus xylohyra*), *bor* (*Ziziphus jujuba*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tiliiaefolia*), *achar* (*Buchanania latifolia*) and the like. Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) also need a special mention as common associate in the understorey in teak as well as some of the mixed

CHAPTER 1. General. FORESTS. Composition of the Crop.

forests. The bamboo forests in the district occupy an area of 4,258.478 km² (1,644.20 sq. miles). Quality varies from poor to good. Good quality bamboos are found in the remote areas of east Chandrapur division and also on better areas of Allapalli, Bhamragarh and West and Central Chandrapur divisions. Poor quality bamboos occur over major parts of West and Central Chandrapur divisions and Rajura sub-division. Bamboos in this district have flowered gregariously around 1940. The new crop has yet to get established particularly in parts of Kothari, Chandrapur, Moharli, Mul and Warora Ranges.

Mature bamboos provide an excellent raw material for paper pulp. At present there is only one paper mill (Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mill) in this part of the State. But the areas worked by this mill form only a small part of the total area. Large areas still remain to be fully exploited. This together with recently planted eucalyptus which provides short fibre, provide ample scope for the development of paper industry in the district.

Dikamali (*Gardenia gumiflora*), *Karonda* (*Carrisa*), *Clerodendron* and *helicateris* are common shrubs covering the ground in the forests of this district. *Vitex* and *Dodonia* dwell on drier eroding soils.

The common climbers are *palasbel* (*Butea suberosa*), *mahul* (*Bauhinia vahilli*), *kukudranj* (*Ventilago Calyculata*) and *eroni*.

Management.

In the natural forests the rule of "survival of the fittest" prevails unless the natural environment is interferred by human agency. Left to themselves the forests under the influence of natural environments which include climate, rainfall, soil conditions and the micro-organisms may not necessarily have a healthy growth that can be usefully or advantageously employed. Again some of the essential species may not grow in the quantity that would meet the requirements. In such a state the forests would be more of a liability than an asset. To avoid this and to utilise the forests to the fullest extent, the scientific management was applied to these forests after the Forest Department undertook the control of forests in 1879. In the beginning the low demand and paucity of trained staff were the main limiting factors in the application of these principles on a full scale. But with the passage of time, the changed circumstances have permitted the spread of departmental activities on scientific lines. At present the scientific management consists of preparation of working plans for different forest tracts, regeneration of worked areas and realisation of sustained forest revenue. Depending upon the type of forests, terrain and the demand for forest produce, the following systems are prescribed in different working plans in the district.

(1) *Conversion to uniform by periodic blocks.* The natural forests represent all Age Classes. Such a forest is no doubt difficult to work, because each individual tree or groups of trees require different treatment. Moreover the fellings in such forests result in sacrifice of young crop and ultimately culminates in giving low returns. In order to bring the forests under complete series of age gradation over the whole forests or in blocks, this system is adopted. It comprises clearfelling with natural or artificial regeneration. It is adopted in better quality forests such as Allapalli, Pedigundam, Aheri, Dhaba, Markhanda, Sironcha, Chandrapur and Kolsa ranges.

CHAPTER 1. General. FORESTS. Management.

(2) *Selection improvement or selection-cum-improvement felling system.*—This system is adopted in the remote forests and also the hilly tracts from where the exploitation of economically less valuable species involves prohibitive costs. Forests of Allapalli, Bhamragarh, parts of Sironcha and hilly area of East Chandrapur division fall in this category. Besides the above tracts, this system is applied in the areas which have been over exploited in the past and which need careful working before they are worked under regular system. Forests in West Chandrapur division, Kothari and Markanda ranges and Rajura sub-division are examples of this type of working.

(3) *Coppice with reserves.*—This is a typical system adopted in Vidarbha region and with it in this district. It is applied to areas which are capable of producing small sized timber and firewood only. Most of the forests in the plains which have facilities for transport or which adjoin thickly populated habitations are worked under this system. Forests of West Chandrapur and Central Chandrapur divisions are worked accordingly.

(4) *Clearfelling and plantations.*—Under the working plans this method was adopted for areas which were capable of producing valuable timber but which were covered with mixed forests of small value as also the areas where the regeneration of the valuable species was inadequate. Areas in Chandrapur, Kothari, Allapalli and Pedigundam were earmarked with this object. But the old outlook was changed in plan era and under Five Year Plan schemes large areas are being taken up for plantations in addition to plantations of valuable species such as teak plantations of industrially important species like *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*), eucalyptus and bamboos.

Large number of nurseries have been established and are being maintained to ensure adequate supply of plants for these plantations. The most important of these are Chandrapur, Zaran, Markanda, Allapalli and Kamalapur.

(5) *Bamboo working.*—Formerly bamboos were exploited by local people for their domestic needs or for manufacture of small articles of cottage industries. The establishment of a paper mill at Ballarshah opened a new vista for working of the vast bamboo forests of this district. A number of felling series have been

CHAPTER 1. General. FORESTS. Management.

allotted to the paper mill to supply raw material. Bamboo forests are worked on four years' cycle. The rules observed in felling are as under:—

(*i*) All dead bamboos are removed from the clump.

(*ii*) All plants (bamboos) of less than one year age and eight bamboos of more than one year age evenly scattered in the clump are retained in the felling.

(*iii*) Other plants are felled and removed.

(*iv*) When bamboos are cut the stumps are not less than one foot or more than 1½ feet in height.

(*6*) *Others.* Besides the above working systems, species like *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*) and *khair* (*Acacia Catechu*) are worked separately to feed match wood and *katha* industries respectively.

The district contributes an average forest revenue of Rs. 1.60 crores annually to the public exchequer. The expenditure incurred annually on different activities amounts to Rs. 62 lakhs.

FISH AND FISHERIES. Water resources.

The district is naturally endowed with good potential of water resources. It is traversed by five perennial rivers, the Wardha, the Wainganga, the Pranhita, the Indravati and the Godavari—all measuring about 480 kilometers, and 14 small seasonal rivers and their tributaries. Besides these fluvial water, there are four reservoirs, Ghorajeri (2,413 acres), the Asola-Mendha (4,644 acres), the Nalleshwar (1,097 acres) and Nav Talao (1,000 acres). In addition, there are nearly as many as 12,000 tanks including the puddles known as "*bodi*", all varying considerably in their dimensions, but having a total water surface area of about 41,000 acres. Out of these, only 4,000 tanks are considered to be perennial and the rest are either short or long seasonal. Tahsil-wise distribution of perennial tanks is as follows:

Chandrapur	...	480
Warora	...	327
Brahmapuri	...	1,282
Gadhchiroli	...	1,289
Sironcha	...	88
Rajura	...	30

In consideration of the total water resources, the district occupies the second highest position in the State, next to Bhandara.

CHAPTER 1. General. FISH AND FISHERIES. List of Fishes.

The important varieties of commercial fishes, occurring naturally in the water resources of the district, are as follows:

Scientific Name (1)	Local Name (2)
(1) CARPS	
Family—Cyprinidae	
Oxygaster clupeoides (Bl.)	*Alkut, Chela or papadi*
Oxygaster Bacaila (Ham.)	*Chelliah*
Chela atpar (Ham.)	*Bonkuaso*
Chela laubuca (Ham.)	*Banko.*
Danio devario (Ham.)	*Bankuaso, Duthrie*
Danio dequipinnatus (Mc clell) ..	*Noolatoo*
Barilius bendalisis (Ham.)	*Johra*
Barilius barna (Ham.)	*Bahri*
Osteobrama vigorsii (Sykes) ..	*Gollund, Koli*
Osteobrama cotio (Ham.)	*Koti, Mucknee*
Aspidoparia morar (Ham.)	*Chilwa, Pichla, Gulthi*
Rasbora daniconius (Ham.)	*Khowli, Gane, Kanheri*
Esomus danrica (Ham.)	*Kurriah, Dahriee*
Puntius ticto (Ham.)	*Potiah, Gadar, Karvari*
Puntius sophore (Ham.)	*Karvari, Potiah*
Puntius Kolus (Sykes)	*Kolis, Kolashi*
Puntius amphibia (V)	*Bhondgi*
Tor tor (Ham.)	*Masta, Mahaseer, Khavala or Varsa.*
Puntius sarana (Ham.)	*Dhodar Poshti*
Thynnichthys sandkhol (Sykes) ..	..
Cirrhinus cirrhosa (Bl.)	*Narain, Varis Rava or Ger*
Cirrhinus reba (Ham.)	*Rewali, Dongra*
Labeo fimbriatus (Bl.)	*Tambir*
Labeo calbasu (Ham.)	*Kanoshi*
Labeo potail (Sykes)	*Dotondi*
Labeo bata (Ham.)	*Bata*
Labeo boggut (Sykes)	*Gohria*
Garra mullya (Sykes)	*Patharchat*
Labeo Rohita (Ham.)	*Rohu*
(2) LOACHES	
Family—Cobitidae	
Lepidocephal ichthys guntea (Ham.)	*Gurgutchi*
Noemacheilus botia (Ham.) ..	*Teli, mura, Benta*
(3) CAT-FISHES	
Family Clariidae	
Clarias batrschus (L.)	*Wagur, Magur*

Family—Saccobranchidae

Heteropneustes fossilis (Bl.)	.. ..	*Seenghan, Talia, Singhee*

Family—Siluridae

Wallago attu (Schn.)	.. ..	*Shivada Daku*
Ompak bimaculatus (Bl.)	.. ..	*Gugli*

Family—Schileidae

Eutropiichthys vacha(Ham.)	.. ..	*Butchua*
Ailia coila (Ham.)	.. .. ..	*Banse patti, "Bamboo leaf"*
Pseudeutropius atherinoides (Bl.)	..	*Puttahre*
Clupisoma garua (Ham.)	.. ..	*Baikri*
Pangasius pangasius (Ham.)	..	*Jellum*
Silonia silondia (Ham.)	.. ..	*Silond*

Family—Bagaridae

Mystus aor (Ham.)	.. .. ..	*Shingalu, singharee*
Mystus seenghala (Sykes)	.. ..	*Shengata*
Mystus vittatus (Bl.)	.. .. ..	*Tengra*
Rita Pavimentata (Val.)	.. ..	*Chagra*

Family—Sisoridae

Bagarius bagarius (Ham.)	.. ..	*Goonch, Bodh Masa*

(4) KNIFE-FISHES

Family—Notopteridae

Notopterus nototerus (Pallasp)	..	*Moh, Patola*
Notopterus chitala (Ham.)	.. ..	*Chitul, chalat*

Family—Clupeidae

Gonialosa manmina (Ham.)	..	*Mackundi*

(5) EELS

Family—Anguillidae

Anguilla bengalensis (G. and H.)	..	*Tamboo machli, Ahir*

(6) GAR-PIKES

Family—Belonidae

Xenentodon cancila (Ham.)	.. ..	*Bogla, Chacha, Mutra*

(7) GRAY-MULLETS

Family—Mugilidae

Rhinomugil corsula (Ham.)	.. ..	*Arvari*

(8) SNAKE-HEADED FISHES OR MURRELS

Family—Ophicephalidae (Channidae)

Channa marulius (Ham.)	.. ..	*Phul Murral*
Chana Striatus (Bl.)	.. ..	*Murral*
Channa punctatus (Bl.)	.. ..	*Dhok, Gurrai*
Channa gachua (Ham.)	.. ..	*Dhok.*

(9) PERCHES AND THEIR ALLIES

Family—Mandidae

Nandus nandus (Ham.)	.. ..	*Bhibsi, Dudar Machli*
Badis badis (Ham.)	.. .. ..	..

(10) GLASS-FISHES

Family—Ambassidae

Ambassis nama (Ham.)	.. ..	*Chandva*
Ambassis ranga (Ham.)	.. ..	*Chander, chandua, Kanghi, Machli.*
Ambassis baculis (Ham.)	.. ..	*Chandee, Chandva, Kanghi, Machhi.*

(11) GOBIES

Family—Gobiidae

Glossogobius giuris (Ham.)	.. ..	*Kharpa, Bulla, Ghasara*

(12) THE SPINY EELS

Family—Mastacembelidae

Mastacembelus pancalus (Ham.)	..	*Vam*
Mastacembelus armatus (Lac.)	..	*Vam of Tamlu*
Macrognathus aculeatum (Bl.)	..	*Gaichee*

The bulk of the commercial catch from the rivers, reservoirs and deep tanks, comprise mainly murrels and catfishes which, although may be highly esteemed for flesh, are not economical from the point of view of fish-culture as they are highly carnivorous.

CHAPTER 1. General. FISH AND FISHERIES.

Fisheries activity.

Fishing for prawns, *Macrobrachium malcomsoni* in the perennial rivers forms an important feature of fisheries activity. The fishery is conducted during the period April-June, mainly at Sironcha on the Pranhita river where the catch is estimated to yield 10,000 kg. of prawns, and on a small scale at Bamani and Ghugus villages on the Wardha river, Naigaram, Kaleshwar, Somnar, and Konapatt on the Godavari river.

Fishing Gear and Craft.

The most common gear used for fishing is the cast net, locally called as *Borjal*. The other types of nets that are in vogue are (i) *Pelani*—a hand-net, (ii) *Zapa*, (iii) *Tangad*—a drag net, with a mesh varying from 3"—4" at different places in the district and (iv) *Zorali*—a type of a drag net. Netting for fish on larger scale is undertaken by fishermen by *Ataki*—gill nets, mostly in large reservoirs. Fishing by rod and line is also pursued by fishermen and is also employed by people interested in sport-fishing, mainly for murrels, using either live frogs or live fishes as suitable baits. Prawn fishing is mainly conducted by cast nets.

The material used for fabricating nets is cotton twine of different specifications. Some fishermen use nets of local hemp made from bark of plants. But in the recent years, the fishermen have realised the better utility of synthetic fibres, such as nylon, terylene etc., and are progressively replacing cotton twine with synthetic fibres. These materials, being comparatively much costlier than cotton twine, the department encourages the replacement by giving proportionate subsidy to the fishermen.

Besides netting for fish, traps made of bamboo strips called *Bende*, are used as fixed contrivances in the form of funnel shapes, at the corners of the rice-fields, where water generally drains off, to catch small sized fishes. This type of fishing is mostly practised at Bhadrawati, Mul, Sindewahi and Warora.

The main craft (boat) that is used by the fishermen for fishing is locally called *Donga*, which is a dug-out canoe, costing about Rs. 200 or so. The Department of Fisheries has one boat, with an outboard engine, at Gadmoushi tank, to conduct deepwater fishing with the help of the members of the fishermen's co-operative society at Sindewahi.

Fishing Communities.

There are about 13,000 fishermen, of whom only 5,000 are principal workers, solely depending on fishing. They belong to the following sub-castes:—

(1) Dhoniar, (2) Bhoi, (3) Kewat, (4) Palewar Bhoi, (5) Bhanara, (6) Kahar, (7) Machhindra or Macchinde, (8) Bastala, (9) Bendore, (10) Zingo Bhoi and (11) Gadde Bhoi.

SNAKES.*

The district is bounded by Yeotmal and Wardha on the west and Bhandara on the north while east and south regions are adjoining the borders of Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh. It seems to be singularly rich in natural vegetation and resources. There are a number of rivers flowing through the district and it

*The section on Snakes is contributed by Dr. P. J. Deoras, Bombay.

CHAPTER 1. General. SNAKES.

is full of deep forests. The ancient rulers were Gond Rajas and a large number of population in the Bhamragarh, Gadhchiroli and Aheri regions consist of Gonds. This statement bears significance because in all these areas, nearly every village has a person who is supposed to have some charm to cure snake-bite showing that snake-bite cases are quite frequent. The communications in the hinterland are not adequate and as such it is likely that the mortality may be quite high. The Gods worshipped by these people belong to the snake group as a image of Mahadeo indicated and it is quite likely that the cobra is regarded as a sacred snake. However the image of Mahadeo all over the area was a very common phenomenon observed even near human habitations. The deep waters of the Pranhita river near Sironcha and rocky coast near about, are ideal for the prevalence of pythons. The entire district therefore is full of snakes and they are apparently seen in villages and towns more during the rainy season. They are locally called as *taras* in the district. The most common poisonous snake that is well known by all in the district is the cobra, while every one also knows the non-poisonous snake as the checked keel-back locally called as *Diwad*. The snakes of the district are enumerated below :—

Family: *Typhlopidae.*

Non-Poisonous.

Typhlops Sp: This is a small blunt snake often found in decaying vegetation in the forest and mountainous regions. The scales on the body cover each other, unlike a worm where they are across the body. It does not grow beyond 15 cm. (6 inches) and is often mistaken to be a thick worm. The colour is brown and it is absolutely harmless. It normally feeds on decaying matter.

Family: *Boidae.*

Eryx conicus: This snake is variously called *Mandhol* or *Dutondya* or *Malvan* in the area. It grows to about 25 cm. (10 inches) in length and three quarters of a metre (2½ feet) in girth. The tail is very blunt and the scalation makes an impression that there are mouths at both the ends. This is a false impression. The snake is brown with faint brown patches or irregular deep yellow marks all over the body. In fact, these patterns often times make the villagers mistake it to be the young one of a Python. It feeds on rats, frogs, lizards and when cornered, bites viciously.

Eryx johni: Another *Sandboa* is found in the black soil region. This snake is uniformly deep brown and has no patches at all. It is longer than the *Eryx conicus* and very docile. In fact, many of the snake charmers often keep this snake for a show. It also has a very blunt tail.

Lycodon-Sp.: This wolf snake is very common in the locality. Both *Lycodon* and *Oligodon* have been recovered from houses in Chandrapur proper. These snakes are harmless but are unfortunately mistaken to be Krait because of the white bands on the

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brown body. In the case of Krait, the central row of scales in the mid-dorsal region is hexagonal and the scales beyond the vent are not divided. This is not the case with wolf snakes. These snakes stay in the gardens eating frogs, lizards and rats and are helpful to the gardeners in controlling the vermin.

It is likely that *Uropeltis* may be present in the forest region round about Sironcha. This purple black snake with yellow specks measures about 9". Its tail is blunt but has a transverse ridge meant for digging. It also has rough spikes in the tail region. It is a primitive snake which often is seen at high altitudes, and moist vegetation. It is very nice to look at because of the brown, yellow and grey colourations on a deep pink or brown body.

Python molurus: This snake which, in northern regions is called *Ajgar* is known as *Chiti* in the south. It is met with in water shade areas of the forest region, particularly in the areas where rocks jet out into water. That is why it is said to be found in some numbers in the regions adjoining the Pranhita river near Sironcha. The snake is deep brown with variegated yellow patches all over the body. The head region is pink with a faint whitish pink lancet, shaped mark on the skull. The snake has small abdominal cross scales and near the vent has two anal spurs which indicate the rudiments of past limbs. These spurs can cause serious injuries by scratching. The snakes grow to about 4 metres (14 feet) in length and may be 60 cm. (2 feet) in girth, when full-grown. It has very powerful muscles by which it strangulates the prey to death before it feeds on them. It has been observed to kill quite big animals like a goat, stag and even a boar in Bhamragarh area. Local people hunt these snakes and probably they eat them too.

Family: *Colubridae.*

Ptyas mucosus: This rat snake is found all over the area. It is yellow with black patches more in the tail region. It has been seen to grow more than three metres (10 feet). It is very agile and has been observed to jump on trees also. One of the curious habits of this snake is to tie a knot by its tail on whatever object it comes across. It is quite likely that the snake may be tying this knot against thin trees when lying in wait for rats. The snake is locally called *Dhaman* and is a great friend of farmers in as much as it reduces the number of rats by feeding on them. Many people unfortunately mistake this to be a poisonous snake and kill it.

Natrix Piscator: This checkered keel-black snake is all over the district near ponds or accumulations of water. It grows to 1.37 metres (4½ feet) in length and has, on an ash-coloured body, black squares or stripes which gives it the peculiar name of checkered keel-black. Sometimes ash colour gives an impression of olive green, particularly during the rainy season. It feeds

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primarily on frogs and avoids human interference, but when cornered, it attacks fiercely and can cause serious physical injuries.

Natrix stoleta: This snake is buff coloured with white spots and a number of longitudinal thin brown strips all over the body. It is predominantly found during the rainy season all over the area. It is so docile that one could handle it without any danger. It has been observed that during monsoons, a large number of them are collected probably to convert into food in the tribal areas of this district. These snakes are thin and do not grow beyond three quarters of a metre (2½ feet). They are absolutely harmless.

Dryophis nasutus: In the southern region this snake is called *Yelli*. In the northern regions, it is called *Harantol* or *Sarptol*. This is a long parrot green snake growing to more than one and a half metre (5 feet) in length and having a markedly pointed long head. It has the peculiar habit of remaining twined on vegetations, keeping the head separate as if to hypnotise the prey. The triangular head often times continues to shake and many a time people have been unaware of the snake on a tree till the head has come right up to the nose. The bite of the snake is painful though is not poisonous enough to kill a human being. It feeds on sparrows and on other smaller birds but could be handled with care. It is more seen in places of dense vegetation or on top of green trees.

Family: *Elapidae.*

Poisonous.

Naja naja. This is a very common snake all over the district. It is found more near human habitation than in the interior of the forest. The length of one such snake in Sironcha was reported to be 2.13 metres (7 feet). This snake can never be mistaken because of the spreading of the hood which is seen in no other snakes. There are spectacle marks on the hood and 3 faint dark stripes on the under surface of the hood. These two characteristics will always distinguish this snake from any other snake. Apart from this, the snake hisses before striking a prey. Though it is a poisonous snake, it avoids human approach, but if disturbed, it will attack with ferocity, even pursuing the victim to some distance. The poison of this snake is neuro-toxic. The snake is worshipped during the rainy season and there are some images of the snake in some remote temples of the district.

Bungarus caeruleus: This snake is called "Dandekar" in the district, though some people understand it by the word *Manyar*. It is steel blue in colour with white cross bars all along the body. The central row of the dorsal scales is hexagonal and the scales beyond the vent are complete. It is a very timid snake growing to about 1.22 metres (4 feet) in length. It occurs in crevices between stones and often times in the thatch. It is highly poisonous and the poison is neuro-toxic.

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Bungarus fasciatus: In the forest regions of Bhamragarh this banded krait is sometimes found in the plantations. This snake has yellow and black cross stripes all over the body and the tail end is very blunt. It is highly poisonous and the local people call it *Ahiraj*. It was curious to note that this snake is not disturbed if present near agricultural farms. It is believed that it eats other snakes, so that the farmer remains free from snake nuisance in the region.

Family: *Viperidae*.

Vipera russellâ: This snake, locally known as *Ghonas*, is seen more in the northern regions of the district. Some people call it *Chitti*, but this is a mistaken name. It grows to 1.22 metres (4 feet) in length, is brown in colour and has three rows of deep brown elliptical spots all over the body. The head is triangular and the scales on the head are very small. It hisses very loudly and continuously. The fangs are ½" long and lie tucked on the sides of the jaw inside a sheath. It is very vicious and can strike in any direction. The venom is vaso-toxic.

Echis carinatus: This snake, which is so common in Ratnagiri district, is also seen in some numbers during the rainy season in the areas that have red soil. The local people call it *Dhul Nagin*. It does not grow to more than 0.46 metre (18 inches) in length. It has brown spots on the body and a white arrow shaped mark on the head. It moves sideways and can jump while striking. The poison may not kill the victim immediately, but he suffers by secondary reactions. The poison is vaso-toxic.

Trimeresurus graminious: This leaf green snake is met with among bamboo plantations where it is very nicely camouflaged. It has a triangular head and does not grow beyond 60 cm. (2 feet). Often times, the bamboo cutters are bitten by these snakes. It is curious to note that this snake has a small pit near the nose which is supposed to give the snake the indication of temperature changes. Rats and lizards form the main source of food for this snake. The poison of this snake is also vaso-toxic.

WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

In Chandrapur district large area is covered with forests which form undisturbed tracts with a very sparse population, mostly of aboriginals. Naturally these forests with the luxurious vegetation are a favourable haunt of a large variety of wild animals that naturally belong to such forests.

Of the wild animals the tiger, *bagh*, or *sher* (*Panthera tigris*) are found to inhabit the dense forests and sheltered valleys in the hilly areas. In the summer they take refuge in the cool and hidden places in the vicinity of stagnant pools of water which are generally not haunted by human beings. The most favourite habitat of the tigers are areas near Kolsa, Moharli, Piperkhute, Kanhargaon, Allapalli, Somanpalli, Bhamragarh, Asola, Ekara, etc. Tigers of fairly large size generally measuring 10 feet and above in length inhabit the areas. The tigers help to keep down

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the otherwise bursting population of deer and wild pigs under biotic control. A stray village cattle is frequently a victim of these tigers. Occasionally regular cattle lifters are reported in areas where they scare villagers and the village cattle is killed by the tigers. Man-eaters are practically unknown.

The Panther, *Gulbagh, tendua* (*Panthera pardus*) is also found in similar localities as that of the tigers. However, they are more confined to the areas near villages in the forest tracts. They are fairly of a large size. Their number appears to be more as compared to that of the tigers. Cattle lifter panthers are common.

The sloth bear, *Bhalu Rich* or *Aswal* (*Melursus ursinus*) is found generally all over the forest tract and is much feared by the local villagers on account of its habit of unprovoked attack. It is more confined to open grassy forests, rocky areas and areas with fruit trees such as *ber*, *Mohawa* etc. Well known places of its occurrence are near Pahami, Botezari, Agarzhari and Kanhargaon, etc.

The wild dogs, *Jangli Kutta, Ran-Kutra* (*Cuon alpinus*) are quite abundant and are met with in areas near Khadsinghi, Tadoba, Moharli, Kanhargaon and Pedigundam. Generally they remain in packs and chase herbivorous animals like *Sambhar* and *Chital* for their prey.

The other carnivorous animals found in this district are the Jackal, *Kolha* or *Shial* (*Canis aureus*), the hyaena, *Lakkar bagha*, (*Hyaena hyaena*) the wild cat and *ran manjar* (*Felis chaus*).

The herbivorous animals found in this district present a great variety and abundance in numbers. Bison (*Gaur, Bibos gaurus*) is the largest of the herbivorous animals. They are found in herds or sometimes an isolated bull comes across in areas near Kolsa, Moharli, Allapalli and Pedigundam. It occurs in good numbers and particularly so in the hilly areas of Pedigundam range. But due to the frequency of heavy epidemics of rinderpest, their number seems to fluctuate considerably. The wild buffalo, *Jangli bhaise*, (*Bubalus bubalis*) used to be noticed occasionally in small herds around the Mirkalu tank near Allapalli, where they migrated in small numbers from the adjoining Bastar forests of Madhya Pradesh during spells of hot weather. This tract is rather the limit of their migrational habitat. The deer species are more or less localised to the lower slopes of hilly tracts and to the plain forest. They are found in abundance in Moharli, Kolsa, Mul, Kanhargaon, Charpala, Karampani and Patanil areas. The *Sambhar* (*cervus unicolor*) particularly is very common in denser parts whereas more open areas abound in Chital (*Axis*). Restricted to certain areas in Khadsanghi, Moharali, Kolsa, Kanhargaon and Pedigundam occurs the four horned antelope *jungli bakri* (*Tetracerus quadricornis*). The mouse deer (*Moschiola memira*) is common in hilly parts of Bhimaram and Pedigundam. On the other hand the Blue Bull,

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Nilgai, (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*) is fairly common in the plain open grassy forest areas. The barking deer, *bhekri* (*Muntiacus muntiak*), the Indian Gazella, *Chinkara*, *Gazella* the small deer and the antelope though not very common are present in these forests. Even the swamp deer, *Barasingha*, (*Cervus duvaucceli*) was occasionally reported in the Allapalli forests, some two decades back. The black bucks, harina, (*Antelops cervicapra*) are noticed in thorny and open forest of isolated blocks bounded on all sides by villages near Khadsangi and Rajura. Their number, however, is very small. The Indian wild bears, *Suar* (*Sus cristatus*) is quite common all over the forest areas and adjoining cultivated tracts.

Langur Monkey or commonly called as Bangur *makad* or *bundar*, *Semnopithecus entellus* is present in large number in the forest.

There are also such other animals as hare, *Khargosh*, Lepus (*nigricollis ruficaudatus*). Flying squirrels (*Petromys fimbriatus*), Porcupines, *Sahrim Hystrix leucura*, Pangolin (*Manis Crassicandata*) and the Indian Ratel, *bijoo* (*Mellivora capensis*).

The peafowl, *Mor* (*Pavo cristatus*) is the most noticeable and fairly abundant bird in the forest areas. Grey jungle fowl, *Jangli murgi* (*Gallus Sonnerati*) is common in the bamboo forests. Spur fowl (*Galloperdix spadicus*) occurs in restricted areas such as those of Pedigundam range. Grey and painted partridges, *titar* (*Francolinus spp.*) abound in the open grassy areas along with a variety of quails, *bater*, *coturnix coturnix*. The population of aquatic birds is limited due to small water spread in the tanks particularly in the dry and hot period of the year. Even then whistling teal (*Dendrocygna javanica*), common teals (*Nettapus coromandelianus*) are usually found in summer while during the winter variety of species of ducks, (*Sarkidiornis Spp.*) are found in the tanks. The snipes (*Capella gallinago*) are seen in the rice fields and around. Green pigeons, *hariyal* (*Phoenicoprerus Crocopus*) are found in large flocks all over the district in the cold season.

In this district an area of 45.57 sq. miles around Tadoba lake is constituted as a national park in which complete protection is given to the existing wild life. Most of the wild animals found in the forest areas of the district are met with in this park. The herds of *Chital*, *Sambhar*, Bluebull, bisons, wild boars are often seen round the lake. Occasionally a tiger, panther or a sloth bear is also noticed. The birds are also found in large numbers around the lake in addition to crocodiles and different varieties of fish.

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY*

CHAPTER 2. History. ANCIENT PERIOD.

AS NO EXCAVATION OF ANY OLD SITE IN THIS DISTRICT HAS YET BEEN UNDERTAKEN, pre-historic antiquities are rarely known. Some palaeolithic implements have indeed been collected from Khair in this district. Apart from these, the oldest vestiges of habitation in this district also are in the form of dolmens and other sepulchral monuments which are noticed at some places such as Kelzar, Camursi and Vagnak. These require to be excavated and studied scientifically. They are thus described by Hislop—

Pre-History.

"They are found chiefly as barrows surrounded by a circle of stones, and as stone boxes, which, when complete, are styled kistvaens, and when open on one side, cromlechs. The kistvaens, if not previously disturbed, have been found to contain stone coffins and urns."[1]

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

With the advent of the Āryans we get more light on the past history of this region. It was then covered by a thick jungle. Agastya was the first Āryan who crossed the Vindhya and fixed his hermitage on the bank of the Godavarī. This memorable event is commemorated in the mythological story which represents Vindhya as bending before his *guru* Agastya when the latter approached him. The sage asked the mountain to remain in that condition until he returned from the south, which he never did. Agastya was followed by several other sages who established their hermitages in different regions of the south. They were constantly harassed by the original inhabitants who are called Rākṣasas in the *Ramayaṇa*. "These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify to their abominal character by various cruel and terrific displays. They implicate the hermits in impure practices and perpetrate greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They cast away the sacrificial ladles and vessels; they pollute the cooked oblations, and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere hermits. At the time of the sacrifice they snatch away the jars, the flowers, the fuel and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men."

*The section on Ancient Period is contributed by Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. V. Mirashi, Nagpur, while the rest of the Chapter is contributed by Dr. B. K. Apte, University Centre of Post-Graduate Instruction and Research, Pune-16.

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

CHAPTER 2. History. ANCIENT PERIOD. Pre-History.

In course of time a large kingdom was founded in this region by king Vidarbha, the son of Ṛsabhadeva. His capital was Kuṇḍinapura in the Amrāvatī district, which is still known by its ancient name. The country came to be known as Vidarbha after the name of its first ruler. Agastya married his daughter Lopāmudra. He is 'the Seer' of some hymns of the Ṛgveda. His wife Lopāmudrā is also mentioned in Ṛgveda I, 179, 4, though Vidarbha is not mentioned therein. The country became well-known in the age of the Brāhmaṇas and the Upaniṣads. Bhīma, who is called Vaidarbha (*i.e.*, the king of Vidarbha), is mentioned in the *Aitareya Brahmaṇa* (VII, 34) as having received instruction regarding the substitute for *Soma* juice. The *Bṛhadaraṇyaka Upaniṣad* mentions the sage Kauṇḍinya of Vidarbha. Among those who asked questions about philosophical matters in the *Praśnopaniṣad*, there was one named Bhārgava from Vidarbha. The *Rāmāyaṇa* in the *Uttarakāṇḍa* states the story of king Daṇḍa in whose time Vidarbha was devastated by a violent dust-storm. Daṇḍa was a son of Ikśvāku and grandson of Manu. He ruled over the country between the Vindhya and Śaivala mountains from his capital Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time, violated the daughter of the sage Bhārgava. The sage then cursed the king that his whole kingdom would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country between Vindhya and Śaivala extending over a thousand *yojanas* was consequently turned into a great forest which since then came to be known as Daṇḍakāraṇya. It was in this forest that the Śudra sage Śambūka was practising austerities. As this was an irreligious act according to the notions of those days, Rāma beheaded him and revived the life of a Brāhmaṇa boy who had died prematurely. The place where Śambūka was practising penance is still shown on the hill at Rāmṭek (ancient Rāmagiri) about 45.062 kms. (28 miles) from Nāgpūr. It is marked by the temple of Dhumreśvara. This tradition is at least 700 years old ; for it is mentioned in the stone inscription of the Yādava king Rāmacandra fixed into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill at Rāmṭek[1]. The *Rāmāyaṇa*, the *Mahābharata* and the *Puraṇas* mention several sacred rivers of Vidarbha such as the Payoṣṇī (Purṇa), the Varadā (Wardhā) and the Veṇā (Waingaṅgā) and name many holy places situated on their banks. The royal house of Vidarbha was matrimonially connected with several princely families of North India. The Vidarbha princesses Damayantī, Indumatī and Rukmiṇī, who married Nala, Aja and Kṛṣṇa, respectively are well-known in Indian literature. Several great Sanskṛt and Marāṭhī poets from Kālidāsa onwards have drawn the themes of their works from their romantic lives.

According to tradition, Bhāndak, an old place full of ruins in the Candrapūr district, is identical with Bhadrāvatī, the capital of king Yauvanāśva. He had a horse of the *Śhaśmakarṇa* type, which is considered necessary for an *Aśvamedha* sacrifice. He

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXV, pp. 7-f.

wanted to perform the sacrifice himself, but as Yudhiṣṭhira also wanted to perform a similar sacrifice, for which he had not got a horse of the requisite type, Bhīma defeated Yauvanāśva and carried away the horse for the performance of his brother's sacrifice. This story does not, however, find a place in the *Mahābhārata* and was evidently concocted in later times.

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Coming to historical times, we find that the country of Vidarbha was included in the empire of the great Aśoka. The thirteenth rock-edict of that great Emperor mentions the Bhojas as the people who follow his religious teachings. The royal family of Bhoja was ruling over Vidarbha in ancient times. Since then, the people came to be known as the Bhojas. A territorial division named Bhojakaṭa (modern Bhātkulī in the Amrāvatī district) is mentioned in a grant of the Vākāṭakas.[1] An inscription issued from Cikkamburi (modern Cikmārā) probably by the *Dharmamahāmātra* placed by Aśoka in charge of Vidarbha, has been found at Devṭek in the Candrapūr district. It records an order promulgated by the *Dharmamāhāmātra* interdicting the capture and slaughter of animals. It is dated in the fourteenth regnal year evidently of Aśoka. The inscription has since been mutilated as part of it seems to have been chiselled off to make room for a later record of the Vākāṭaka king Rudrasena I as shown below[2].

Mauryas.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in *circa* 184 B. C. the imperial throne in Pāṭaliputra (Pāṭṇā) was occupied by the *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty. His son Agnimitra was appointed Viceroy of Māḷwā and ruled from Vidiśā, modern Besnagar, a small village near Bhilsā. Vidarbha, which had seceded from the Maurya Empire during the reign of one of the weak successors of Aśoka, was then ruled by Yajñasena. He imprisoned his cousin Mādhavasena, who was a rival claimant for the throne. The sister of Mādhavasena escaped to Māḷwā and got admission as a hand-maid of the queen under the name of Mālavikā to the royal palace. Agnimitra, who had espoused the cause of Mādhavasena and had sent an army against the king of Vidarbha, fell in love with Mālavikā and married her. The Mālava army defeated the king of Vidarbha and released Mādhavasena. Agnimitra then divided the country of Vidarbha between the two cousins, each ruling on one side of the Varadā (Wardhā). Eastern Vidarbha thus comprised Wardhā, Nāgpūr, Bhaṇḍārā, Candrapūr, Seoni, Chhindwārā and Bālāghāṭ districts. It was bounded on the east by the country of Dakṣiṇa Kosala (Chhattisgaḍh). From the *Mahābhārata* also we learn that the province of Veṇākaṭa bordered on that of Kosala. Veṇākaṭa comprised the territory on both the sides of the Veṇā or Waingaṅga. The story of Malavikā forms the plot of the play *Mālavikagnimitra* of the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa.

Śuṅgas.

[1] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 23.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 1-f.

CHAPTER 2. History. ANCIENT PERIOD. Śuṅgas.

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

Sātavāhanas.

The Satavahanas, who are called Āndhras in the *Purāṇas*, held Vidarbha for four centuries and a half from *circa* 200 B.C. to A.D. 250. Their earliest inscriptions, however, which record their performance of Vedic sacrifices and munificent gifts to Brāhmaṇas, are found in the Pooṇa and Naśik districts. Towards the close of the first century A.D. they were ousted by the Śaka *Satraps* from Koṅkaṇ, Gujarāt and Maharaṣṭra. From the inscriptions of Nahapana, one of these *Satraps*, and his son-in-law, Ṛṣabhadatta in the caves at Nasik and Junnar, we know that Nahapana ruled over a large territory extending from Ajmer in the north to Naśik in the south and from Kaṭhiawaḍ in the west to Maḷwā in the east. Until recently it was not known that Vidarbha also was occupied by the Kṣatrapas; but in 1964 a pillar inscription was discovered in the Bhaṇḍara district of Vidarbha which recorded the setting up of a sculptured pillar (*Chāya-stambha*) in honour of the *Mahakṣatrapa* Rupiamma in the hermitage of sages at Pawni on the bank of the Waingaṅga. His title *Mahakṣatrapa* indicates that he probably belonged to the Śaka race like Nahapana and Ṛṣabhadatta[2].

The Kṣatrapas were soon ousted from Vidarbha as from western Maharāṣṭra by the Satavahana king Gautamiputra Satakarṇi. His inscriptions have not indeed been found in Vidarbha, but in one of the Naśik cave inscriptions which he got incised after his victory over Nahapāna, he is described as *Beṇakaṭaka-svāmi* the lord of Beṇakāṭaka[3]. No satisfactory explanation of the expression was possible until the discovery of the Tirodi plates

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

[2] The record is under publication in the *Nagpur University Journal*.

[3] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VIII, pp. 65-f.

CHAPTER 2. History. ANCIENT PERIOD. Sātavāhanas.

of the Vakaṭaka king Pravarasena II[1]. As shown below, these plates record the grant of a village in the Beṇākaṭa, which evidently comprised the territory on both the banks of the Beṇā or Waingaṅgā, now included in the Bālaghāṭ and Bhaṇḍārā districts. Gautamīputra seems to have overthrown the *Mahā-kṣatrapa* Kumāra or his successor and was ruling over the country of Beṇakaṭa before he reconquered Western Mahārāṣṭra from the Śaka *Satrap* Nahapāna.

Gautamīputra was a very powerful king whose kingdom extended from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and comprised even Māḷwa, Kāṭhiāwaḍ, and parts of Rājpūtānā in the north. His son Puḷumāvi was similarly the undisputed master of the Deccan. Yajñaśrī also, a later descendant of the family, retained his hold over the whole territory as his inscriptions and coins have been found in the Ṭhaṇa district in the west and the Kṛṣṇa district in the east. Two hoards of Satavahana coins have been found in Vidarbha, one in the Brahmapurī tahsil of the Candrapur district and the other at Tarhaḷa in the Maṅgrul tahsil of the Akola district[2]. The Brahmapuri hoard was examined by Dr. Hoernle, who found therein the coins of Gautamīputra Satakarṇi, Puḷumavi and Yajña Satakarṇi and some others with fragmentary legends, which he could not interpret satisfactorily. They have since been identified as coins of Skanda Sātakarṇi, Karṇa Satakarṇi and Vijaya Sātakarṇi. The Tarhaḷa hoard, which was discovered in 1939, contained coins of as many as eleven kings, beginning from Gautamiputra Satakarṇi. Some of them such as (Gautamīputra) Satakarṇi, Puḷumāvi, Yajñaśrī, Satakarṇi and Vijaya Satakarṇi are mentioned in the *Purāṇas* while some others such as Kumbha Satakarṇi, Karṇa Satakarṇi and Śaka Satakarṇi are not known from any other source. These hoards show that the Satavahanas retained their hold over Vidarbha to the last.

The aforementioned place Bhāndak seems to have risen into prominence in the Satavahana age. It must have been a very large place, extending about two miles from north to south and one mile from east to west, which would give a circuit of six miles. The town occupies the top of a low broad plateau of rock thinly covered with soil. Towards the west are the picturesque hills of Wijāsan, which have caves of the second or third century A.D., judging by the characters of the inscriptions carved therein[3]. Cunningham referred some of the later inscriptions to the Gupta period or even to the 7th or 8th century A.D.[4]

The Satavahanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early kings performed Vedic sacrifices and lavished gifts on the Brāhmaṇas. Kṛṣṇa, Gautamīputra, Puḷumāvi and Yajñaśrī excavated caves and donated villages to provide for

[1] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 49.
[2] *P. A.S.B.* for 1893, pp. 116-f.
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. III, pp. 34-f.
[4] Cunningham, *A.S.R.*, Vol. IX, pp. 122 and 125.
[5] *Ibid*, Vol. IX, p. 126.

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the maintenance, clothing and medicine of the Buddhist monks. The *Sattasaī*, an anthology of 700 *Prākṛt* verses is, by tradition, ascribed to Hāla of the Sātavāhana dynasty.

About A. D. 250 the Sātavāhanas were supplanted by the Vakāṭakas in Vidarbha. This dynasty was founded by a Brāhmaṇa named Vindhyaśakti I, who is mentioned in the *Purāṇas*[1] as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā[2]. The *Purāṇas* mention Vindhyaśakti, the founder of the dynasty. His son Pravarasena I ruled over an extensive part of the Deccan. He performed several Vedic sacrifices including four *Aśvamedhas* and assumed the title of *Samrāṭ* (Universal Emperor). According to the *Purāṇas* he had his capital at Purikā, which was situated at the foot of the Ṛkṣavat (Sātpuḍā) mountain[3]. He had four sons, among whom his empire was divided after his death. Two of these are known from inscriptions. The eldest son Gautamiputra had predeceased him. His son Rudrasena I held the northern parts of Vidarbha and ruled from Nandivardhana, modern Nandardhan, near Ramṭek. He had the powerful support of the king Bhavanāga of the Bhāraśiva dynasty, who ruled at Padmāvatī near Gwalior and who was his maternal grandfather[4]. Rudrasena I was a fervent devotee of Mahābhairava. He had no regard for the *ahimsā* precepts of Aśoka. He caused some portion of the aforementioned Devṭek inscription of Aśoka's *Dharmamahāmatra* to be chiselled and got his own record incised in its place. It proclaims the construction of his *dharma-sthāna* at Cikkamburi.[5]

Rudrasena I was followed by his son Pṛthivīṣeṇa I, who ruled for a long time and brought peace and prosperity to his people. During his reign this branch of the Vākāṭakas became matrimonially connected with the illustrious Gupta family of North India. Candragupta II—Vikramāditya married his daughter Prabhāvatiguptā to Pṛthivīṣeṇa I's son Rudrasena II, probably to secure the powerful Vākāṭaka King's help in his war with the Western Kṣatrapas. Rudrasena II died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons Divākarasena and Dāmodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II. As neither of them had come of age, Prabhāvatīguptā ruled as regent tor the elder son Divākarasena for at least thirteen years[6]. She seems to have been helped in the administration of the kingdom by military and civil officers sent by her father Candragupta II. One of these was the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa, who, while residing at the Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana, must have visited Rāmagiri (modern Rāmṭek), where the theme of his excellent lyric *Meghadūta* seems to have suggested itself to him[7].

[1] *D.K.A.*, pp. 48 and 50.
[2] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, pp. 104-f.
[3] *D.K.A.*, p. 50. I accept Jayaswal's reading *Purikām Canakāñ ca vai* in place of *Purim Kāncanakāṃ ca vai*.
[4] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 10.
[5] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 2.
[6] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 6.
[7] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. liv.

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Prabhāvatiguptā has left us two copper-plate inscriptions. The earlier of them, though discovered in distant Pooṇā, originally belonged to Vidarbha[1]. It was issued from the then Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana[2] and records the dowager queen's grant of the village Daṅguṇa (modern Hiṅgaṇghāṭ) to a Brāhmaṇa after offering it to the feet of the Bhagavat (*i.e.*, Rāmacandra) on *Kārttika śukla dvādaśī*, evidently at the time of the *pāraṇā* after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*. Some of the boundary villages can still be traced in the vicinity of Hiṅgaṇghāṭ.

Divākarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Dāmodarasena, who, on accession, assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of more than thirty years and was known for his learning and liberality. More than a dozen land-grants made by him have come to light. One of them was found at Waḍgāṅv in the Candrapūr district[3]. It was of 400 *nivartanas* of land and was made by Pravarasena II to a Brāhmaṇa residing at Ekārjunaka. The land was in the village Velusuka, which was situated in the Supratiṣṭha *āhāra* or sub-division. It lay to the east of Gṛdhragrāma, to the south of Kokilāra. The plates were issued from the royal camp on the bank of the river Hiraṇyā in the tenth regnal year. Most of these localities can still be identified. The territorial division Supratiṣṭha in which the donated village was situated comprised parts of the Hiṅgaṇghāṭ, Wārorā and Yavatmāḷ tahsils of the Wardhā, Candrapūr and Yavatmāḷ districts, respectively. The village Velusuka has now disappeared, its place being taken by Cincmaṇḍal. Gṛdhragrāma, Nīlīgrāma, Kadambasaraka and Kokilāra, which bounded the donated village on the four sides are identical with Gadeghāṭ, Nīlajai, Kosarā and Khairī, respectively. The river Hiraṇyā is modern Erai, which flows through the Wārorā tahsil. Ekārjunaka is modern Arjuni on the left bank of the Erai.

Another grant of Pravarasena II made at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatīguptā in the nineteenth regnal[4] year is also noteworthy. The plates recording it were issued from the feet of Rāmagirisvāmin (*i.e.*, God Rāmacandra on the hill of Rāmagiri) and record the grant which the queen-mother made as on the previous occasion *viz.*, after observing a fast on the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*.

Pravarasena II founded a new city which he named Pravarapura, where he shifted his capital some time after his eleventh regnal year. Some of his later land-grants were made at the new capital. He built there a magnificent temple of Rāmacandra evidently at the instance of his mother, who was a devout

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 7.
[2] *Loc. cit.*
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 53-f.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 33-f.

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worshipper of that god. Some of the sculptures used to decorate this temple have recently been discovered at Pavnar on the bank of the Dham, 9.656 kms. (6 miles) from Wardha, and have thus led to the identification of Pravarapura with Pavnār[1].

Pravarasena II is the reputed author of the *Setubandha*, a Prakṛt *kāvya* in glorification of Ramacandra. This work has been greatly praised by Sanskṛt poets and rhetoricians. According to a tradition recorded by a commentator of this work, it was composed by Kalidāsa, who ascribed it to Pravarasena[2]. Pravarasena is also known from some Prakṛt *gathas*, which were later interpolated in the *Gathasaptaśati*[3].

Pravarasena II was succeeded by his son Narendrasena, during whose reign Vidarbha was invaded by the Nala king Bhavadattavarman. The latter penetrated as far as the Nagpur district and even occupied Nandivardhana, the erstwhile Vākaṭaka capital. The Ṛddhapur plates record the grant which Bhavadatta had made while on a pilgrimage to Prayaga[4]. The plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which was evidently his capital at the time. In this emergency the Vākaṭakas had to shift their capital again. They moved it to Padmapura near Amgaṅv in the Bhaṇḍārā district. A fragmentary inscription, which was proposed to be issued from Padmapura, has been discovered at the village of Mohalla in the adjoining Durg district of Madhya Pradesh[5].

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Pṛthiviṣeṇa II, who carried the war into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated their capital Puṣkarī, which was situated in the Bastar district[6]. Pṛthiviṣeṇa, taking advantage of the weakening of Gupta power, carried his arms to the north of the Narmadā. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyaghradeva have been found in the former Ajaigaḍh and Jaso States[7].

The elder branch of the Vakaṭaka family came to an end about A.D. 490. The territory under its rule was thereafter included in the dominion of the other or Vatsagulma branch, to which we may now turn.

The Vatsagulma branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. It also is known to have produced some brave and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of the branch, is well-known as the author of another Prakṛt *kāvya* called *Harivijaya*, which has, for its theme, the bringing down of the Pārijāta tree from heaven[8]. This *kavya* has received unstinted praise

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. lx f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, liv f.
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, pp. 81-f.
[4] *Ep. Ind.*, XIX, pp. 100 f.
[5] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, pp. 76-f.
[6] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXI, pp. 153-f.
[7] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, pp. 89-f.
[8] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, pp. 99-f.

from several eminent rhetoricians. The last known king of this branch was Hariṣeṇa, who carved out an extensive empire for himself, extending from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and from Mālvā to the Tuṅgabhadrā[1].

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The causes which led to the sudden disintegration of this mighty Vākāṭaka Empire have not been recorded in history, but the last chapter of the *Daśakumāracarita* of Daṇḍin, who flourished only about 125 years after the fall of the Vākāṭakas, seems to have preserved a living tradition about the last period of Vākāṭaka rule. It seems that Hariṣeṇa's son, though intelligent and accomplished in all arts, neglected the study of the science of politics (*daṇḍanīti*). He gave himself up to the enjoyment of pleasures and indulged in all kinds of vices, neglecting the affairs of the State. His subjects imitated him and led a vicious and dissolute life. Finding this a suitable opportunity, the crafty ruler of the neighbouring Aśmaka country, sent his minister's son to the court of Vidarbha. The latter ingratiated himself with the king and egged him on in his dissolute life. He also decimated his forces by various means. Ultimately when the country was thoroughly disorganised, the ruler of Aśmaka instigated the ruler of Vanavāsī (North Kānaḍā district) to invade Vidarbha. The king of Vidarbha called all his feudatories to his aid and decided to give battle to the enemy on the bank of the Varadā (Wardhā). But while he was fighting with the forces of the king of Vanavāsī, he was treacherously attacked in the rear by some of his feudatories and was killed on the battle-field[2]. Thus ended the Vākāṭaka kingdom after a glorious rule of two hundred and fifty years.

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

Kalacuris.

The Vākāṭakas disappear from the stage of history about A.D. 550, when their place is taken by the Kalacuris of Māhiṣmatī, modern Maheśvar in Central India. They also had a large empire extending from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Vidarbha in the east and from Mālvā in the north to the Kṛṣṇā in the south. The founder of the dynasty was Kṛṣṇarāja, whose coins have been found in the Amrāvatī district in Vidarbha. He was a devout

[1] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. xxxi.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. xxxii f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. lxv f.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. lx f.

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worshipper of Maheśvara (Śiva)[1]. That Vidarbha was included in his Empire is shown by the Nagardhan plates of his feudatory Svamirāja dated in the Kalacuri year 322 (A.D. 573)[2]. These plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which seems to have maintained its importance even after the downfall of the Vākāṭakas. Svamirāja probably belonged to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

About A.D. 620 the Kalacuri king Buddharaja, the grandson of Kṛṣṇaraja, was defeated by Pulakeśin II of the Early Calukya dynasty, who thereafter became the lord of three Maharaṣṭras comprising 99,000 villages[3]. One of these Maharaṣṭras was undoubtedly Vidarbha. The Raṣṭrakūṭas of Vidarbha, who were previously feudatories of the Kalacuris, transferred their allegiance to the Calukyas, and, like the latter, began to date their records in the *Śaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭa family have been discovered in Vidarbha one dated *Śaka* 615 was found near Akola[4] and the other dated *Śaka* 631 was discovered at Multāi[5]. They give the following genealogy:—

Durgaraja
/
Govindaraja
/
Svamikaraja
/
Nannarāja *alias* Yuddhāsura
(Known dates A.D. 693 and 713)

Rāṣṭrakūṭas.

About the middle of the eighth century A.D. the Early Cālukyas were overthrown by the Raṣṭrakūṭas. No inscriptions of the Early Calukya have been found in Vidarbha, but their successors, the Raṣṭrakūṭas have left several records. The earliest of them is the copper-plate inscription of Kṛṣṇa I discovered at Bhandak in the Cāndā district and dated in the *Śaka* year 694 (A.D. 772)[6]. It records the grant of the village Nagaṇa to a temple of the Sun in Udumbaramanti, modern Raṇu Amrāvatī in the Yavatmal district. Thereafter, several grants of his grandson Govinda III have been found in the Akolā and Amravatī districts of Vidarbha. Recently another grant of a later Raṣṭrakūṭa king Govinda IV has been found at Andurā in the Akolā district[7]. The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānyakheṭa and the Kalacuris of Tripurī were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally friendly. But in the reign of Govinda IV they became strained. The Kalacuri king Yuvarajadeva I espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baddiga-Amoghavarṣa III, the uncle of Govinda IV, and sent a large army to invade Vidarbha. A pitched battle was fought on the bank of the Payoṣṇī (Pūrṇa), 16.093 km. (10 miles)

[1]Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. xlvi.
[2]*Ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 611-f.
[3]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VI, pp. 1-f.
[4]*Ibid.*, Vol. XXIX, pp. 109-f.
[5]*Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 234-f.
[6]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIV, pp. 121-f.
[7]This is under publication in *Ep. Ind.*

from Acalapura, between the Kalacuri and Rāṣṭrakūṭa forces in which the former became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskṛt play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* of Rājaśekhara, which was staged at Tripurī in jubilation at this victory[1].

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The next Rāṣṭrakūṭa record found in Vidarbha is the Devalī copper-plate grant of the reign of Baddiga's son Kṛṣṇa III, which mentions the *viṣaya* (district) of Nāgapura-Nandivardhana[2]. This is the earliest mention of Nāgpūr in an inscriptional record.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas were great builders. The Kailāsa temple carved out of solid rock at Ellorā is famous in the world. In Vidarbha also they built several magnificent temples. Those at the village Mārkaṇḍī in the Candrapūr district, where the Waingaṅgā takes a northern bend, are specially noteworthy. The most beautiful among these is the Mārkaṇḍeya temple dedicated to Śiva. Cunningham has described it as follows: "The general style of the Mārkaṇḍa temple is like that of the Khajurāho temples, with three rows of figures all round, two feet three inches in height. In each of these rows there are 45 human figures, making 135 in the lower part of the temple. Higher up than these there is a row of geese, and a row of monkeys, and above these there are four more rows of human figures. The whole surface of the temple is, in fact, literally covered with statues and ornaments. Altogether I counted 409 figures: and there are about half as many lions and elephants forming divisions between the human statues. About one half of the panels are given up to Śiva and Pārvatī in various forms. There are also many subordinate female figures, some dancing, some playing musical instruments, and one holding a mirror, while putting antimony to her eyelids[3]". There is another temple dedicated to the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu and therefore called the Daśāvatāra temple, which Cunningham places two or three centuries earlier. There are in all more than twenty temples of various sizes grouped round the main temple of Mārkaṇḍeya.

Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas were succeeded by the Later Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī. Only one inscription of this family has been found in Vidarbha. It is the so-called Sitābuldī stone inscription of the time of Vikramāditya VI[4]. From the account of Vinayakrao Aurangabadkar this record seems to have originally belonged to the Vindhyāsana hill at Bhāndak. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1008 (A.D. 1087) and registers the grant of some *nivartanas* of land for the grazing of cattle made by a dependent of a feudatory named Dhāḍibhandaka. Another inscription of Vikramāditya's reign was recently discovered at Doṅgargāṅv in the Yavatmāl district[5]. It sheds interesting light on the history of the

[1]Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, pp. lxxx f.
[2]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. V, p. 196.
[3]Cunningham, *A.S.R.*, Vol. IX, p. 145.
[4]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. III, pp. 304-f.; *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, pp. 231-f.
[5]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, pp. 112-f.

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Paramāra dynasty. It shows that Jagaddeva, the youngest son of Udayaditya, the brother of Bhoja, left Malva and sought service with Vikramaditya VI, who welcomed him and placed him in charge of some portion of Western Vidarbha. This inscription is dated in the *Śaka* year 1034 (A.D. 1112).

Though western Vidarbha was thus occupied by the Later Cālukyas, the Paramaras of Dhar raided and occupied some portion of eastern Vidarbha. A large stone inscription now deposited in the Nagpūr Museum, which originally seems to have belonged to Bhāndak in the Canda district[1], traces the genealogy of the Paramara prince Naravarman from Vairisiṁha. It is dated in the Vikrama year 1161, corresponding to A.D. 1104-05, and records the grant of two villages to a temple which was probably situated at Bhandak; for some of the places mentioned in it can be identified in its vicinity. Thus Mokhalipaṭaka is probably Mokhar, 80.47 km. (50 miles) west of Bhandak. Vyapura, the name of the *maṇḍala* in which it was situated, may be represented by Vurgaṅv, 48.280 km. (30 miles) from Mokhar.

After the downfall of the Vakaṭakas there was no imperial family ruling in Vidarbha. The centre of political power shifted successively to Māhiṣmatī, Badamī, Manyakheṭa and Kalyaṇī. Men of learning who could not get royal patronage in Vidarbha, had to seek it elsewhere. Bhavabhūti, who ranks next to Kālidasa in Sanskṛt literature, was a native of Vidarbha.[2] In the prologue of his play *Mahaviracarita* he tells us that his ancestors lived in Padmapura in Vidarbha. As stated above, this place was once the capital of the Vakaṭakas and is probably identical with the village of the same name in the Bhaṇḍara district. With the down-fall of the Vakaṭakas this place lost its importance. In the beginning of the eighth century when Bhavabhūti flourished, there was no great king ruling in Vidarbha. Bhavabhūti had therefore to go to Padmavati, the capital of the Naga kings in North India, and had to get his plays staged at the fairs of Kalapriyanatha (the Sun-god at Kālpī)[3]. Later, he obtained royal patronage at the court of Yaśovarman of Kanauj. Rajaśekhara, another great son of Vidarbha, was probably born at Vatsagulma, (modern Basim) which he has glorified in the *Kavyamimaṁsā* as the pleasure resort of the god of love. He and his ancestors Akalajalada, Tarala and Suranānda, had to leave their home country of Vidarbha and to seek patronage at the court of the Kalacuris at Tripuri. Rajaśekhara's earlier plays, *viz.*, the *Balarāmayaṇa*, the *Bālabhārata* and the *Karpūramañjari* were put on boards at Kanauj under the patronage of the Gurjara-Pratīharas. Later, when the glory of the Pratiharas declined as a result of the raids of the Kalacuri king Yuvarajadeva I, Rājaśekhara seems to have returned to Tripuri in the

[1]There is much uncertainty about the provenance of this inscription. See Hiralal's *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, Second Ed., p. 1. Hiralal thought that it belonged to Bilhari, but this is incorrect. See *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXIII, p. 117, n. 5.

[2]Mirashi, ***Studies in Indology***, **Vol. I, pp. 35-f.**

train of the victorious conqueror. There his last play, the *Viddhaśalabhañjikā* was staged in jubilation at the victory of Yuvarajadeva over a confederacy of southern kings led by Govinda IV in the battle of the Payoṣṇī[1]. Another great poet of Vidarbha who had to go abroad in search of royal patronage is Trivikramabhaṭṭa, the author of the *Nalacampū*, in which he has given us a graphic description of several towns, holy places and rivers of Vidarbha. He flourished at the court of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Indra III and is known to have drafted the two sets of Bagumrā plates of that king, dated *Saka* 836[2].

Yādavas.

In the last quarter of the twelfth century A.D. the Yadavas of Devagiri came into prominence. They had been ruling over Seuṇadeśa in an earlier period as feudatories of the Later Calukyas, but Bhillama, the son of Mallugi, declared his independence and soon made himself master of the whole territory north of the Kṛṣṇa. He then founded the city of Devagiri which he made his capital. His son Jaitrapala killed Rudradeva of the Kakatiya dynasty on the field of battle and released his nephew, whom he had put into prison. Under Jaitrapāla's son Siṅghaṇa the power of the family greatly increased. He annexed the Kolhapūr kingdom after defeating the Śilāhāra king Bhoja in A.D. 1212. The first inscription of the Yādavas found in Vidarbha belongs to the reign of Siṅghaṇa[3]. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1133 and records the erection of a *toraṇa* at Ambaḍapura in the Buldhāṇā district of Vidarbha. Many of the victories of Siṅghaṇa were won for him by his *Senāpati* Kholeśvara, who hailed from Vidarbha. He defeated Lakṣmīdeva, the ruler of Bhambhagiri (modern Bhāmer in Khāndeś), Paramāra Bhoja of Cahanda (modern Canda or Candrapur) and Arjunavarmadeva, king of Malva, and devastated the capital of the Hoysaḷas. He even pressed as far as Vāraṇasī in the north, where he put Rāmapāla to flight[4]. Kholeśvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha and also established *agraharas* on the banks of the Payoṣṇi and the Varadā. The former *agrahāra* is still extant under the name Kholāpūr in the Amrāvati district.

Siṅghaṇa was succeeded by his grandson Kṛṣṇa, whose inscription has been found in the temple of Khandeśvara on a hillock on the outskirts of the village Nāndgāṅv in the Amrāvatī district[5]. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1177 (A.D. 1254-55), and records the donations of some *gadyāṇakas* for the offerings of flowers at the temple of Khandeśvara. After Kṛṣṇa's death the throne was occupied by his brother Mahādeva, superceding the claims of the former's son Rāmacandra. Mahādeva annexed

[1]Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, pp. lxxix f.

[2]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. IX, pp. 24 f.

[3]*Ibid.*, Vol. XXI, pp. 127 f.

[4]G. H. Khare, *Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan* (Marathi), Vol. I, pp. 55-f.

[5]*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 9-f.

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Koṅkaṇ to his kingdom after defeating Someśvara of the Śilahāra dynasty. He left the throne to his son Āmaṇa, but the latter was soon deposed by Rāmacandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagiri by means of a *coup d'etat*. He is the last of the independent kings of Devagiri. He won several victories and in a grant of his minister Puruṣottama he is said to have driven out the Muhammedans from Varaṇasī and to have built a temple there, which he dedicated to Viṣṇu[1]. A fragmentary inscription of his time is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill at Ramṭek[2]. In the first half of it it describes the temples, wells and *tirthas* on and in the vicinity of the hill, which it names as Rāmagiri. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs done to the temple of Lakṣmaṇa by Rāghava, the minister of Rāmacandra. Another inscription of Rāmacandra's reign was found at Lāñjī in the *Bālāghaṭ* district. It is fragmentary and has not yet been deciphered.

In A.D. 1294 Alā-ud-din Khiljī invaded the kingdom of Rāmacandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagiri. Rāmacandra was taken unwares and could not hold out long. He had to pay a large ransom to the Muslim conqueror. He continued, however, to rule till A.D. 1310 at least; for a copper-plate grant which his minister Puruṣottama made is dated in the *Śaka* year 1232[3]. He was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaradeva some time in A.D. 1311. He discontinued sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was then defeated and slain by Malik Kāfūr. Some time thereafter Harapāladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra raised an insurrection and drove away the Muhammedans, but his success was short-lived. The Hindu kingdom of Devagiri thus came to an end in A.D. 1318.

Like their illustrious predecessors, the Yādavas also extended liberal patronage to art and literature. During their age a peculiar style of architecture called *Hemādpantī* after Hemādri or Hemāḍpant, a minister of Mahādeva and Rāmacandra, came into vogue. Temples built in this style have been found in all the districts of Vidarbha. In the Candrapūr district they exist in several places such as Āmgaṅv, Bhojegāṅv, Cāndpur, Curul, Ghosari, Mahāvāḍī, Pālebāras, Vāganak, Naleśvar etc. Several learned scholars flourished at the Yadava court. Among those who hailed from Vidarbha, Hemādri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahādeva he held the post of *Śrikaranadhipa* or Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed Minister and Head of the Elephant Force by Rāmacandra. He was as brave as he was learned and liberal. He conquered and annexed to the Yādava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called *Jhaḍi-maṇḍala*. Hemādri is well-known as the author of the *Caturvarga-cintāmaṇi* comprising five parts, *viz.*, (1) *Vratakhaṇḍa*, (2) *Dānakhaṇḍa*,

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 207.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, pp. 7-f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, pp. 199-f.

(3) *Tirthakhaṇḍa*, (4) *Mokṣakhaṇḍa*, and (5) *Pariśeṣakhaṇḍa*. Of these, the third and fourth *khaṇḍas* have not yet come to light. Hemādri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers on *Dharmaśāstra*. Hemādri wrote on other subjects as well. He is the author of a commentary on Śaunaka's *Praṇavakalpa* and also of a *Śrāddhakalpa*, in which he follows *Kātyāyana*. His *Āyurvedarasāyana*, a commentary on Vāgbhaṭa's *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya*, and *Kaivalyadīpikā*, a gloss on Bopadeva's *Muktāphala* are also well known.

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

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

GONDS. Gonḍs rise to power.

The fall of the Yādavas of Devagirī and the Kākatīyas of Wārañgaḷ at the hands of Alā-ud-din Khilji marks a turning point in the history of the Deccan and the peninsular South. It was an event of extraordinary historical significance. On the one hand the immense wealth which Alā-ud-din carried from his Devagiri expeditions enabled him to accomplish his political designs at Delhi and on the other it paved the way for the domination of Islam to the south of the Deccan. In the aftermath of the fall of these two once mighty kingdoms, Devagiri and Wārañgaḷ, the Gonḍs of Candrapūr seem to have made their rise as a political power.

The original seat of the Gonḍ kings of Candrapūr is considered to be Śirpūr, twenty miles to the south-west of Candrapūr proper, on the southern bank of the Paingaṅga river, also known as Wardha here. From here they shifted their capital to present Ballarśah and finally to Candrapūr of historic fame. A long list of the Gonḍ Kings who ruled from these places is given by Major Lucie Smith in his Settlement Report of Cāndā District, 1869. When he was preparing the land revenue settlement report of Canda, 1863 1869, he compiled a genealogy of the Gonḍ Kings based on oral and written traditions which he had collected. According to the local Gonḍ traditions there arose among them

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Kol Bhill first Goṇḍ ruler.

a hero known as Kol Bhilla of great strength and wisdom. He rallied round the scattered Goṇḍ tribes and formed them into a sort of nation, teaching them how to extract iron from the ore. It is significant to note that Kol Bhilla while gathering the scattered Goṇḍs together felt the need of teaching them the extraction of iron from the ore. In order to carve out an independent kingdom for the Goṇḍs it was necessary to teach them the use of iron for the manufacture of war weapons, which they probably did not know before. The political powers which surrounded the Goṇḍs had known the use of iron long since. In the history of human civilization it is a well known fact that iron weapons gave superiority to those who possessed them over their rivals having non-ferrous weapons. Kol Bhilla, therefore, ushered in a revolution when he taught his Goṇḍ brethren the use of iron. It at once put the Goṇḍs on par with the neighbouring political powers in the struggle for supremacy.

Gonds learn the use of iron.

Genealogy of Goṇḍ Kings.

Following Kol Bhilla, we have Bhim Ballal Siṅg, who is said to have established a Goṇḍ Kingdom with Śirpūr as its capital. From Bhīm Ballal the line of Goṇḍ Kings ruling over Candrapūr is as below :

		A.D.
1. Bhīm Ballāl Siṅg	...	870-895
2. Kharja Ballal Siṅg	...	895-935
3. Hīr Siṅg	...	935-970
4. Andia Ballāl Siṅg	...	970-995
5. Talwār Siṅg	...	995-1027
6. Kesar Siṅg	...	1027-1072
7. Dinkar Siṅg	...	1072-1142
8. Rām Siṅg	...	1142-1207
9. Surja Ballal Siṅg *alias* Śer Śāh	...	1207-1242
10. Khāṇḍakyā Ballāl Śāh	...	1242-1282
11. Hīr Śāh	...	1282-1342
12. Bhuma and Lokabā, Joint Rule	...	1342-1402
13. Koṇḍyā Śah	...	1402-1442
14. Bābjī Ballāl Śāh	...	1442-1522
15. Dhuṇḍyā Rām Śah	...	1522-1597
16. Kṛṣṇa Śāh	...	1597-1647
17. Bīr Śāh	...	1647-1672
18. Rām Śāh	...	1672-1735
19. Nilkaṇṭh Śāh	...	1735-1751

Another genealogical list of the Goṇḍ Kings of Candrapūr found with one Dhume family of Vaṇī, District Yavatmal, in the service of the last two Goṇḍ Kings, tallies well with that compiled by Major Lucie Smith. The only difference in the list of the Dhume family is that the reign of the first King Bhīm Ballāl Siṅg is given between 890 and 915 A.D. and that of the last King Nilkaṇṭh Śāh 1735 to 1743. The reigns of the other Kings also differ by about twenty years in the list[1].

[1] *RCI.* pp. 33—35.

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The list shows that out of the total nineteen Kings, six ruled for sixty years each, one for seventy and one for eighty years. The average reign of each king comes to 46.5 years. By any historical standard even a family blessed with good longevity cannot claim such a high average life over as many as nineteen generations. Of these nineteen Kings, the historicity of Nilkaṇṭh Śāh, Rām Śah and Bābjī Ballāl Śāh is beyond doubt. Rām Śāh and Nilkaṇṭh Śah were contemporaries of Bhosale Raghujī I, and their reigns given in the genealogy can be taken as more or less correct. The *Ain-i-Akbarī* records that when the list of the territories of Akbar was compiled, a Goṇḍ prince Bābjī by name, was ruling at Candrapur. This is obviously Bābjī Ballāl Śāh of the list. On the evidence of *Ain-i-Akbarī* Bābjī Ballāl Śāh could be taken to have ruled between 1570 and 1595 A.D. Retracing the four generations preceding Bābjī on the basis of twenty-five years for each generation, we get the reign of Khāṇḍakyā Ballāl Śāh the founder of the city of modern Candrapūr from 1470 to 1495. Working on this hypothesis back for nine generations we have the date of the founder of the Goṇḍ dynasty at Śirpūr to be 1320 A.D. ($1495-9\times25=1320$). Let us see to what extent this date corresponds to the known historical facts of the period.

Babjī Ballal Śah, contemporary of Akbar.

Gond family at Sirpur founded after 1320.

Bābjī Ballāl Śāh became a feudatory of the Moghal emperor Akbar and the Cāndā kingdom formed part of the Moghal territory. By 1598 Berār had been annexed to the Moghal empire. The fort of Māṇikgaḍh was included in the new *Subhā* of Berār.[1] With the defeat of Rāmadeva of Devagiri in 1296 by Alā-ud-din Khiljī, the former among other things promised to cede the revenue of Ellicpūr.[2] This was the beginning of the Muslim rule over Berar. In 1318 when the last of the Yādava rulers Harapāladeva fell, the whole of Berār passed under the Khiljīs though they could not hold it beyond 1320, themselves being defeated by the Tughluqs[3].

The Yādava King Siṅghaṇa II ruled from 1210 to 1246. His general Kholeśwar defeated a Paramār King of Candrapūr recorded in the Āmbe inscription. Cāhanda has been identified with Candrapūr[4] the metropolis of the later Goṇḍ Kings. A stone inscription in old Marāṭhī at Bhāndak, sixteen miles to the north-west of Candrapūr mentions the renovation of a temple dedicated to Nāga Nārāyaṇa by a Paramār King[5]. The evidence establishes Paramar rule in the region of Candrapūr or Cāhanda before it fell to the prowess of the Yādavas. In addition to the reference to Cāhanda in the Āmbe inscription of 1228 A.D., the inscription of Rāmṭek and Lañjī bear testimony to the Yādava rule to the east of Berār. According to a tradition, Umur in Āndhra Pradesh, District Adilābad, was in olden times

Yadava rule over Chandrapur region.

[1] *PAGA.* p. 20.

[2] *HCIP. DS.*, Vol. VI, p. 16.

[3] *HCIP. DS.*, Vol. VI, p. 46.

[4] Khare G. H., *Sources of Mediaeval History of the Deccan* I., p. 64. (The Ambe inscription. Also see *E.I.* XXVI, p. 182. I. 27. is dated at 1228 A.D.)

[5] Hiralal, "*Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar No.* 18," pp. 15-16.

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Yadava rule over Chandrapur region.

Viṭhalnagar named after the patron deity of the Yādavas, Viṣnu or Viṭhala. There are also some ruins of a Viṣnu temple at Utnur[1]. Utnur at the heart of the tribal country is not far away from Śirpūr, the original seat of the Goṇḍs of Candā. The temple of Honakdev or Honakeśwar twenty-five miles to the east of Mahur on the Paingaṅga dates from the Yadava times. The inscription on the temple belonging to the last quarter of the thirteenth century is counted among the earliest known Maraṭhi inscriptions. Further east at Jainat there are quite a few old temples. At Cāndūr at the foothills of Maṇikgaḍh there are remains of old temples. To the south of Ballarśah, at Rajurā, there is an old temple of Someśwar. In the Mahanubhava literature, the territory to the east of Berār or Vidarbha forming part of Goṇḍavana is often referred to as, *Zaḍī Maṇḍal*, meaning 'wooded country'. The founder of the Mahanubhava Sect speaks of his visits to the Goṇḍs in his autobiography dated around 1275 A.D.[2] Thus, inscriptional, monumental and literary evidence leaves no doubt about the Yādava rule at and around Candrapūr.

Malik Kafūr invades Waraṅgaḷ *via* Śirpur and Wairagaḍh.

In 1307, Malik Naib Kāfūr invaded Devagiri on the pretext of collecting tribute from Rāmadeva its ruler, who had failed to pay it as agreed to in the previous expedition. Rāmadeva was taken a prisoner to Delhi and subsequently allowed to go back to his capital with the honorific title '*Rai Rayan*'. In 1309 Malik Nāib Kāfūr carried an expedition into the Kakatiya Kingdom of Wāraṅgaḷ by way of Basiragarh (Wairāgaḍh) and invested the fort of Sirbar (Śirpūr). Ramadeva offered all kind of help to Malik. The garrison at Śirpūr could not resist the might of the Muslim and Yādava, *i.e.*, Marāṭhā forces, in spite of their valiant defence. Women and children committed themselves to flames and the brother of the commandant surrendered to the invader[3]. It is evident that till 1309 Śirpūr was under the Kakatiyas, of Wāraṅgaḷ. At least it was not under the Goṇḍs as they are not mentioned in the contemporary works. Śirpur was a frontier town between the kingdoms of the Yādavas and the Kakatiyas. Candrapūr and the adjoining country formed the easternmost part of the Yadava Kingdom. The Goṇḍs in this frontier region now partly in the Adilabad district and partly in Candrapūr district could not have risen to power prior to 1318 1323. The Yādava Kingdom fell in 1318 and the Kakatiyas of Waraṅgaḷ surrendered in 1323. The Khiljis were succeeded by the Tughluqs in 1320. During the reign of Muhammad Tughluq, the successful revolt in the Deccan led to the establishment of the Bahamani Kingdom at Gulbarga-Kalburgī in 1347. Firuz Śah (1397 1422) of this dynasty defeated the Goṇḍ *Rajā* Narasiṅg Rai of Khedlā, about four miles north of Betul in Madhya Pradesh. The *Rāja* had invaded Berār at the instigation of the Muslim rulers of Mālwā and Khāndeś, and on the advice of the *Raja* of Vijaynagar. This campaign against the Goṇḍ *Rājā* was led some time

[1]*PAGA*. p. 14.
[2]*PAGA*. p. 16.
[3]*HCIP. DS*. Vol. VI, pp. 31, 33, 34.

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Malik Kafūr invades Waraṅgaḷ *via* Śirpur and Wairagaḍh.

after 1417.[1] During the reign of Ahmad Śāh Bahamani (1422—1436), according to Ferishta, the fort of Māhur was invested and the town of Kalamb was taken possession of. Both these places had diamond mines and they belonged to the *Rāja* of Goṇḍ.[2] The identity of the *Rāja* of Goṇḍ is not known. But in all probability he was the Goṇḍ ruler of Candrapūr as both Māhur and Kalamb are nearer to Candrapur than to Khedlā where Narasiṅg Rāi ruled.

In the tangle for power between the Bahamanis and the Muslim rulers of Khāndeś and Māḷwā, by proximity, it is the kingdom of Khedlā that often comes into picture than the Goṇḍ Kingdom of Candrapūr. Candrapūr was rather away from Western Berār, the scene of fast changing political happenings.

Ādil Khān (1457 — 1503), the ruler of Khāndeś, is said to have forced the *Rājās* of Goṇḍawana and Gaḍhā Maṇḍalā to acknowledge his supremacy. He freed the country from the depredations of the Koḷis and Bhills. He assumed the title *Shāh-i-Jhārkhaṇḍ* (King of the Forest)[3]. It is not known who the *Rājās* of Goṇḍwana were. But the term Goṇḍwana may be taken to have included the Goṇḍ Kingdom of Candrapūr along with others.

In 1482 after the assassination of Mahmūd Gāvān the Bahamani kingdom disintegrated giving rise to the five Śāhīs of the Deccan[4] One of these Śāhīs, Imād śāhī of Berār with its seat at Ellicpūr had practically assumed independence by 1490. In 1574 Imād Śāhī Kingdom was absorbed by the Nizām Śāhī of Ahmadnagar which in its own turn was conquered by Akbar in 1600. With these changes in the history of Berār one might presume that the Goṇḍ Kingdom of Candrapūr after the Bahamanīs first passed under Imād Śāhī and later under the Nizām Śāhī.

Thus, following the fall of the Yādavas and the Kākatīyas of Wāraṅgaḷ—1318, 1323—the Goṇḍs of Śirpūr must have got an opportunity to establish themselves as an independent power. This might have required at least a decade, *i.e.*, 1333 or 1340 if we take the round figure. From this time the Goṇḍs of Candrapūr seem to have enjoyed independence till about 1422 or a little more, when Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī subjugated them. The Goṇḍ kings of Candrapūr thus, were independent since the days of their founder for less than a century. We have no means to ascertain the exact nature of the hold over them either of Imād Śāhī or of Nizam Śāhī.

In the light of these historical facts the traditional date of the foundation of the Goṇḍ Kingdom of Śirpūr, 870 A.D., recorded by Major Lucie Smith has got to be rejected. Some time around 1340 the kingdom was founded at Śirpūr by Bhīm Ballāl Siṅg.

[1]*HCIP. DS*. Vol. VI, pp. 254-55.
[2]Brigg's Ferishta, Vol.II, p.489, C.U. Wills, *The Rajgond Maharajas of Satpura Hills*, p. 40.
[3]*HCIP. SD*. Vol. VI, p. 172.
[4]*HCIP. SD*. Vol. VI, p. 269.

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The dates of Babji Ballal Śah who was a contemporary of Akbar, and those of Ram Śah and Nilkaṇṭh Śah who were contemporary personalities of Bhosale Raghuji I, could be determined without any difficulty.

Śirpūr Kings.

The first three kings who ruled at Śirpūr were Bhim Ballal Siṅg, Kharja Ballal Siṅg and Hir Siṅg. Kharja was of gentle nature. His son Hir was warlike and prudent. He for the first time levied tax on occupied land. He was respected by his people.

He was succeeded by Ādiyā Ballāl Siṅg, who was a tyrant. The fort of Ballarśah according to the anecdote recorded in the old Gazetteer of Candā district was constructed by Khāṇḍakyā Ballāl Śāh, the tenth descendant of the dynasty. But the credit of constructing the fort is given to Ādiyā by the account given in the History of Waṇi[1]. It is more likely that Ādiya who shifted the capital from Śirpūr to Ballarśah should have constructed a fort there for protection and defence as practically every capital in those days had a fort.

The fort stands on the eastern bank of the Wardha occupying six acres of land. The entrance faces the east. Outside the fort stands the temple of Keśavnāth meant for the visit *darśana*— of the members of the royal family. In 1822 a stone image of Keśavnāth was installed by Punj Patil, an officer of the Bhosales as the original gold-enamelled image was stolen in 1818. A huge mound of debris in the fort was probably the site of a once moderately splendid palace. Nilkaṇṭh Śah, the last ruler of the Candrapūr dynasty, was confined here by Bhosale Raghuji I. From the ruins one could guess that the fort had all the necessary equipment – residential buildings, offices, stores magazine, cellars and stables.

From the fort walls, the Wardha, when in floods, presents a wild panoramic view. Because of its crescent shape at this spot the Wardhā is called Candrabhāgā after the Candrabhāgā of Paṇḍharpūr.

After Ādiyā the following five kings in succession ruled at Ballārśah. Talvār Siṅg, Kesar Siṅg, Dinkar Siṅg, Ram Siṅg and Surjā Ballāl Siṅg *alias* Śer Śah.

Talwār being fickle-minded was not respected by his people. He was succeeded by his youngest son Kesar whom he loved dearly. Kesar was an able ruler. He subdued the rebellions that broke out in his kingdom and extended it to the boundaries of the Bhil country. He possessed horses and oxen, and was wealthier than any of his predecessors. His son Dinkar was a man of peaceful pursuits. He invited to his court Gond bards and learned men from outside, and encouraged the study of religion and philosophy. For the first time he invited Marathī

[1]*RCI*. pp. 40, 41.

literati to reside at his capital though no details are available about them. The peace and prosperity which the people enjoyed during his reign led them to believe that Dinkar Śah was in possession of a philosopher's stone.

Ram Siṅg who succeeded Dinkar was brave and ambitious. He governed the Kingdom righteously and enlarged its boundaries. For the defence of his territory he constructed hill forts in the south-west part and maintained a chosen band of invincible soldiers called *tadavel*. A rare orchid growing occasionally on the bamboo when eaten with certain ritual was supposed to make the person steel-bodied and, therefore, invulnerable. It is not known whether the plant eaten was a kind of orchid growing on the bamboo or was bamboo shoot itself.

It seems that during the reign of Rām Siṅg the western part of his kingdom was threatened by the Bahamanīs. As already observed Ahmad Śah Bahamani (1422–1436) invested the fort of Mahur and took the town of Kalamb, which belonged to the Gond *Raja*[1]. This Gond *Raja* was Ram Siṅg. Ahmad Śah is said to have massacred a large number of Hindus in this campaign. The Ṭhakūrs of this region bore the brunt of the attack. In memory of this tragic incident the people of Māhur celebrate a day called '*jaya takari*'.

On the death of Ram Siṅg his son Surjā Ballāl Siṅg mounted the throne. Surja was very handsome, brave and adventurous. The legend recorded in the old Gazetteer of Cāndā about the exploits of Surjā needs careful scrutiny. Surjā Ballāl is said to have been to Kāśī to learn the art of war and music. During his stay there, his escort plundered the country around eventually drawing upon itself the wrath of the emperor of Delhi. In a skirmish that followed between the followers of Surjā Ballāl and the emperor's men the former came out successful. Later, Surjā Ballāl while wandering alone was captured by the emperor's soldiers and taken a captive to Delhi. At this time the Rājput chief of Kaibur, Mohan Siṅg, had incurred the displeasure of the emperor by refusing to offer his daughter of infatuating beauty asked for by the emperor. The emperor had sent a force against the Rājput chief which was defeated. In the meanwhile Surjā Ballāl's men who had returned to the capital, Śirpūr, acquainted the regent Jarbā about the happenings at Kāśī during Surjā's stay there. Upon this Jārbā collected a force of 70,000 men, of whom 10,000 were *tadavels* and proceeded to Delhi. When the force was on its march the emperor's daughter's admiration was excited on frequently hearing the melodious songs of the captive Surjā.

At the request of his daughter the emperor sent for Surjā and asked him whether he would fight for him. Surjā readily agreed

[1]Briggs, Ferishta, Vol. II p. 489. C.U. Wills, *The Rajgond Maharajas of Satpura Hills*, p. 40.
[2]*RCI*. p. 49.

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to serve the emperor and took upon himself the task of reducing the fort of Kaibur. While Surjā was preparing to return to Goṇḍavana in order to make necessary preparations for the attack on Kaibur, the force under Jārba, the regent, reached the precincts of Delhi. Jarba was presented to the emperor. Under the leadership of Surjā the Goṇḍ force together with the imperial contingent attacked Kaibur fort and reduced it. In the engagement the Rajput chief Mohan Siṅg was killed. Among the spoils secured was a sacred sword which is said to have been preserved in the royal Goṇḍ family till today. On Mohan Siṅg's death his widow entreated Surjā to save her daughter and herself from the impending dishonour at the hands of the emperor. Surjā promised them protection. On reaching the emperor's court Surjā presented the daughter of Mohan Siṅg to the emperor disguised as the young prince of the dead Rājput chief. The emperor seated the prince in his lap and blessed him as his own child. When the emperor asked Surjā about the beautiful daughter of Mohan Siṅg, Surjā explained that she was already with emperor as his child in the lap. The emperor though chagrined at this trick conferred a dress of honour on the Goṇḍ King and allowed Mohan Siṅg's daughter to return home with grace. The Goṇḍ King was allowed to retain the entire territory from Bengal to Bundelkhaṇḍ, and as far as Rajmahendrī as was once held by his ancestors.

He was granted the title of Śer Śah. Henceforth all the Goṇḍ Kings from Surjā suffixed the title Śāh to their names.

This legend about Surjā's adventure is not supported by the known historical facts. The name of the emperor at Delhi is not known, and no emperor is recorded to have asked for the help of a Goṇḍ King named Surjā for securing the daughter of the Rājput chief[1]. This story, therefore, has been concocted in order to enhance the importance of the Goṇḍ King Surjā. Any ruler in those days who merited the attention of Delhi naturally merited the attention of the public gaining name for himself. The fact in the anecdote is that Surjā Ballāl Siṅg *alias* Surjā Ballāl Śāh accepted the supremacy of the Muslim rulers, most probably, of the Bahamanis.

Khaṇḍkya Ballal Śah, the founder of Candrapūr.

On the death of Surjā *alias* Śer Śāh, his son Khaṇḍkyā Ballāl came to the throne. This prince had tumours all over his body. He was looked after by his wise and beautiful wife. When no remedy could heal Khaṇḍkyā she induced him to leave Śirpūr and reside on the northern bank of the Wardhā, where he erected a fort named Ballālpūr. One day, as the legend goes, while the king was hunting north-west of Ballālpūr he grew thirsty and rode up to the dry bed of the Jharpaṭ river in search of water. He discovered water trickling from a hole, and after drinking,

[1]According to J. N. Seal (*History of the Central Provinces and Berar*, Calcutta, 1917, p.59) the emperor of Delhi in whose custody Surjā was for some time, must be Firuz Tughluq—1351—88. On the basis of chronology computed for the Gonds of Chanda in the previous pages, Surjā's reign comes to 1445—70. Even if Surjā is considered as a contemporary of Firuz Tughluq, there is no evidence to show that Surjā had been to the court of Firuz Tughluq.

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washed his face, hands and feet. That night he slept soundly for the first time in his life. Next morning the queen was delighted to see that many of the tumours on her husband's body had disappeared. On enquiry the wonderful cure was ascribed to the water of Jharpaṭ where the King drank water and washed his face. The queen requested Khāṇḍkyā to take her to the spot where he had quenched his thirst. Both proceeded to the Jharpaṭ and in a little while the hole was found. On clearing the grass and sand there were seen five footprints of a cow in the solid rock, each filled with water. The water source at the spot was inexhaustible. The place was holy—the *Tīrtha* of Acaleśvar of the *Treta Yuga* fame. When the King bathed in the water all the tumours on his body vanished. That night the royal party encamped near the place, and in the visions of sleep Acaleśvar appeared to the King, and spoke comforting words. On hearing the dream the queen advised the erection of a temple over the healing waters, and the King, approving of the idea, sent his officers to collect skilled architects for the work. He took great interest in its progress. One morning, after his daily visit, while he was riding he saw a hare darting out of a bush and chasing his dog. Astonished at this unusual sight he looked on and saw the dog running in a wide circle while the hare took zig-zag cuts to catch it. At one point it closed in with the dog which however shook it off and continued its flight. On nearing the point where the chase had commenced, the dog turned on and killed the hare. The King found that on the forehead of the hare was a white spot. Pondering what this might mean, he rode home and recounted to his wife all that he had seen. That wise woman counselled that the occurrence was a good omen, and that a fortified city should be built within the circuit of the chase, with walls following the hare's track. She further advised that special bastions should be erected, both where the hare had closed in upon the dog and where the dog had killed the hare. She expressed her belief that the latter point would prove to be dangerous to the city in future. The King lost no time in giving effect to her suggestions. A trench was dug along the hare's track, which was easily discernible by the footprints of the King's horse. The gates and bastions were planned, the whole marked out, and the foundations commenced. The work was under the management of the Rājput officers of the King, called Tel Ṭhākūrs. Thus began the building of the city of Cāndā or Candrapūr. Some scholars derive the name from Indupur (city of the moon), which stood near the Jharpaṭ in the *Tretā Yuga*, but the common people see its origin in the white spot (*Candar*) which marked the forehead of the wondrous hare.

The Śanivār Palace at Pooṇā is said to have been constructed by *Peśvā* Bājīrāv I on a site where he saw a hare chasing a dog while he was on his morning ride.

Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh thus founded the city of Cāndā or Candrapur. He used to reside both at Ballālpūr or Ballarśah and Candrapūr. He died at Ballalpūr.

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The tomb of Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh is on the Siroñcā-Ālāpalli road, half a mile to the east of the Ballārśāh station in the jungle. It is constructed of black stone, square in shape and adorned with a dome. It looks like a Muslim monument. A small platform in front of this tomb is said to be the monument of the chief queen Hiratani. Nearabout lies a stone marked with a pair of forty-two foot-prints considered to be the monument of the forty-two minor queens of Khāṇḍkyā who killed themselves after the *satī* custom on the death of their lord[1].

Hīr Śah.

Hir Śah succeeded Khaṇḍkya Ballal. One of the notable achievements of this King was the encouragement he gave to cultivation. He issued a declaration *(firmān)* stating that one who brought new land under the plough by clearing the forest would be granted a *sanad* as the *Zamindar* of that piece of land and would be raised to the status of a nobleman *Sardar*. Any one constructing a tank was rewarded with as much land as could be watered by the tank. These incentives had their results soon. The thick forest was felled and as many as twenty new land proprietorships *Zamindaris* were established covering an area of nearly 5,000 square miles. The boundaries of the lands owned by individuals were well demarcated. Land grants were freely made to those who constructed wells and canals. At the same time Hir Śah sternly warned the old land proprietors that their lands would be confiscated should they keep them fallow. Hīr Śah constructed a tank at Junonā, six miles to the east of Candrapūr for the use of poor farmers. He personally toured the country, carefully inspecting whether the new incentives he had offered were properly utilised. According to a legend the farmers paid their rent not in cash but in field implements which were taken to the King every year and changed by him into gold. Hir Śāh introduced all these measures having understood the importance of agronomy for the prosperity of his kingdom which traditionally depended upon the forest wealth.

Hir Śāh is stated to have paid tribute to none. There is much significance historically in this statement. On the basis of the reigns of the different Goṇḍ Kings calculated in the previous pages of this chapter, Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh ruled between 1470 and 1495. His successor, Hir Śāh, therefore, has to be given the period from 1496 to 1521. The Bahamanī kingdom ceased to exercise any power after the assassination of Mahmūd Gāvān in 1481, though in theory it continued to exist till the death of its last ruler Kalim-ullā-śāh in 1527. The collapse of the Bahamanīs coincides with the reign of Hir Śah. The statement, therefore, that Hir Śah paid tribute to none is historically corroborative. It is not borne out by facts that the immediate predecessors of Hīr Śāh paid tribute to the Haihayas of Ratanpur[2].

[1] *RCI*. pp. 61-62.

[2] J. N. Seal—*History of The Central Provinces and Berar*—Calcutta, 1917, p. 60. Seal's statement that Hir Shah's successors paid tribute to the Haihayas of Ratanpur is not supported by historical evidence.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Hīr Śah.

Hīr Śāh filled in the foundation of the walls which his father had begun. He erected high gates facing the four main quarters. On the gates he carved the typical Goṇḍ royal crest. It represents a lion treading on an elephant with its left front foot and pulling the trunk with its right front paw. The hind right leg of the lion is planted on the back of the elephant. The projecting tongue of the lion and its curved tail impart motion and grace to the carving. The elephant looks quite helpless in the grip of the lion. The lion is much larger than the elephant, and though this is unnatural, it is probably intended to convey the prowess of the lion. Crests of this type are repeated on all the fort-gates constructed by the Goṇḍs. In the absence of any literary evidence it is not possible to interpret the exact meaning of this emblem. Nor are the Goṇḍs of to-day able to explain its meaning[1].

Hīr Śah constructed a citadel and within its confines prepared a palace for his own stay. One of the gates of the citadel was styled as *lāl daravājā*. It was a common fashion in those days to name a number of gateways and buildings as *lāl daravājā* and *lal mahal*. Inside the citadel was built the temple of Someśvar and a tank called Kohinur for the use of the members of the royal family. All these constructions bear testimony to the artistic sense of Hir Śāh.

Hir Śah was sonless. He had two daughters Gaṅgubāī and Virūbaī. The former was married to Aṅkum, the ruler of Jungāṅv and the latter to Rāmjī, the Goṇḍ nobleman of Rājgaḍ, about thirty miles to the east of Chandrapūr. Aṅkum who was attracted by Virubāī on seeing her wanted to have adulterous relations with her. When his efforts bore no fruit he hatched a plot with a view to raping Virubāī for which he succeeded in securing the consent of his wife, who was unwilling at the beginning. Virubāī was childless and sought God's grace for a child by prayers and worship. In order to carry the plot through, Gaṅgubāī urged her sister Virubāī to come to Jungāṅv and offer prayers to the deity Baleśvar there, known to fulfil the wishes of his devotees. When Virubāī entered the temple of Baleśvar, Aṅkum who was hiding raped her. Helpless, Virubāī came home and narrated the tragedy to her husband Rāmjī. Rāmjī vowed vengeance common with the Goṇḍs. Soon it was declared that Rāmjī was dead and his wife who pretended to be a widow secretly invited Aṅkum to her place. On the appointed

Aṅkum's love legend.

[1] In the '*Report of the Land Revenue Settlement of the Chanda District, Central Provinces*' (1869) by Major Lucie Smith, p.70, the meaning of the crest has been interpreted as follows :—

"The device of the Gond kings was a Sing or Griffin destroying an elephant and doubtless had reference to their family name of Sing—This crest is carved, upon wall and gateway and tower wherever the Bullal Sing line held sway, and is to be seen far beyond the boundaries of the present Chanda district."

"The Gond kings styled themselves as, "Great King of Kings, Lord of the Earth" but their official seal came from Delhi, and bore a far humbler legend. Only two of these seals can now be found, and in the older of the two, granted by the Delhi Emperor to Ram Shah in 1719, A.D., the inscription runs—Mohumud Gazee Emperor of Supreme dignity, to Raja Ram Sing, Dependent, 1131 Sun."

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day lovelorn Ankum came and Rāmji who was hiding seized him and blinded him. Ankum according to this legend repented all his life for the crime he had committed[1].

Successors of Hīr Śah.

Sonless Hir Śah's widow, Hirabai, adopted Bhūma and Lokba as successors to the *gādi* from the Gond family of Movad. Hirabai looked after the administration of the Kingdom till the two adopted sons came of age. The two brothers Bhūma and Lokba ruled peacefully and were well respected by the people.

Bhūmā and Lokbā.

Every summer on an appointed day all the Gond feudatories assembled at Canda or Chandrapūr the capital of their sovereign, and presented to him specimens of every animal and jungle produce obtained in their territory. There was dancing and singing accompanied by instrumental music. The participants painted their bodies in bright variegated colours and beautified their head-dress with peacock feathers. The revelry was concluded with a grand bouquet at the palace. All this was quite in keeping with the custom common to many an aboriginal tribe.

During the reign of the two brothers the chief of Amaravati near Guntur in Andhra Pradesh offered them a valuable diamond. Pleased with the gift they ceded a large part of their eastern Kingdom to the chief of Amaravati. This is a rare instance in which a portion of the kingdom is bartered for a valuable gift. It indicates what importance the Gonds attached to the *terra firma* highly valued by the civilised people.

Koṇḍya *alias* Karaṇ Śah.

On the death of the two brothers, Koṇḍya Śah *alias* Karaṇ Śāh became the chief of Candrapūr. He was a great supporter of the Hindu religion and a devotee of Śiva in particular. A large number of Telugu Brahmins along with other communities migrated to Candrapūr during the reign of Koṇḍyā Śah owing to oppression of the neighbouring Kings. It is, however, not known who the neighbouring kings were.

Koṇḍyā Śah liberally gave rent-free lands and villages to the Telugu Brahmins and conferred upon them *varṣasanas* or annual pensions. The presence of a large number of Telangis in the Candrapūr area even today probably dates back to this period.

As a devotee of Śiva, Koṇḍyā constructed a good number of Śiva temples, repaired the old ones and cleared the wild growth of vegetation which had covered caves and temples. One of the temples in the *Paṭhaṇpura* ward of modern Candrapūr is said to have been constructed by Koṇḍya, in which, a Śiva *liṅga* is mounted on an elephant. This is a rare instance of a Śiva *liṅga*.

Koṇḍya listened attentively to the epics *Rāmāyaṇa* and *Mahābhārata*, and arranged for their recitals.

Up to this time the Gond rulers did not interfere with the disputes of the individual subjects. They allowed the operation of the crude jungle law of 'eye for an eye and tooth for a tooth', in the case of the complaints that reached them. Koṇḍyā Śāh abandoned this practice. He summoned the two parties, the Plaintiff and the Defendant, to his Court, carefully heard them and then delivered the judgment. An accused telling a lie was banished from the Kingdom, but if he confessed the guilt he was reprimanded and released. On the second occasion the accused was given the same concession. However, if he repeated the crime for the third time he was expelled from the Kingdom.

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Koṇḍya *alias* Karaṇ Śah.

During the reign of this King the walls of the city of Candrapūr rose to half of their estimated height.

Bābjī Ballāl Śah.

Babji Ballal Śah mounted the throne after the death of Koṇḍyā. This pleasure-loving King entrusted every thing to his ministers who, for him, were fortunately able administrators, and spent his time in the harem and the wine flask. The *Ain-i-Akbari* mentions this King as an independent ruler who paid no tribute to Delhi having under him a force of 10,000 horse and 40,000 infantry. He conquered the fort of Wairāgaḍ once noted for diamonds with the help of Pūram Śāh of Ṭipagaḍ, his feudatory.

This fort was one of the strong-holds of the Goṇḍs. The temple of Keśavnath in the fort is said to have been constructed by Babji. The fort occupies an area of about ten acres. It has a moat. At present it is a protected monument[1].

Bābjī Ballāl Śah became feudatory to Akbar. After the conquest of Berār by the Moghals, they included Mānikgaḍ in the *Subha* of Berar. Māṇikgaḍ is to the south of Candrapūr. Further south is Utnur in the modern Āndhra Pradeś. Utnur passed to the Moghals as part of Berār and was the seat of a *Sarkār* then known as Nabinagar. All this proves that Bābjī Ballāl accepted the supremacy of Akbar[2].

Puram of Tipagad.

According to a tradition noted by Major Lucie Smith, Pūram of Ṭipagaḍ in the Muramgāñv *Zamindāri*, was a mighty Goṇḍ King. He had a body-guard of 2,000 men, five elephants and twenty-five horses. He held the Wairāgaḍ country under his sway. Envious of his growing power his subordinates in the Chattisgaḍ area advanced against him. The contending armies met at Koṭgal. Countless fell to Pūram's sword and the Chatrisgaḍī forces were beaten back. In the thick of the battle one of the Chattisgaḍī soldiers picked up an embroidered sandal of Pūram that had slipped off and showed it to his queen at Ṭipagaḍ. Thinking that Pūram had fallen on the battle field, the Rāṇi bedecked with gold ornaments and royal jewellery rode in a bullock-driven cabriot and like a true *satī* disappeared in the waters of a neighbouring lake. Pūram with his victorious army returned to the capital in the midst of thundering drums and

[1] *RCI*, pp. 67--70. The story is taken from *Mathuvana* 3rd issue, collected by V. V. Joshi. *Gondavani Lokakatha* No. 2.

[1] *RCI*, p. 75.
[2] *P.IGI*, pp. 20, 21.

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clashing cymbals. But alas, the queen was no more to greet him. Unable to bear the pangs of separation Pūram too plunged into the lake where his dear queen had drowned herself, and disappeared. Thereafter Ṭipagaḍ became a deserted place[1].

After the death of Pūram his general Harcand was appointed as the keeper of the Wairāgaḍ fort by Babji Ballāl Śah, the ruler of Candrapūr. Harcand founded around Wairāgaḍ seven holy temples—*Sapta dhāma—i.e.*, Bhaṇḍareśwara, Nandikeśwara, Pātāḷeśwara, Dubaḷeśwara, Acaleśwara, Rameśwara and Mahābaḷeśwara. At present the last alone survives as a protected monument atop a hill to the south of Wairāgaḍ. The temple of Śiva at Ārmorī standing on the edge of a tank, according to General Cunningham's *Archaeological Survey of India Report* was constructed by one *Raja* Haracandra Goṇḍ. In all probability this was Harcand, the general of Pūram[2].

The fort of Wairāgaḍ is 80 miles to the north-east of Candrapūr on the confluence of Khobrāgaḍī and Satnale. It is a place of great antiquity supposed to have been founded in the *Dvāpāra Yuga* by a king named Wairocana, and therefore, known as Wairāgaḍ after him. The place was ruled by the *Maṇa* kings from whose hands it was wrested by the Goṇḍs. It is difficult to decide the date of transfer of this place from the Māṇas to the Goṇḍs with any certainty. The Maṇas belonged to the Nagavaṁśī Kṣatriyas. One of the descendants of the Māṇas constructed the fort of Māṇikgaḍ about 27 miles to the south of Candrapūr. The gate of this fort has a carving of a cobra and not the usual Goṇḍ crest. This may mean that the fort belonged originally to the Māṇas. The Māṇas in their own turn were conquered by the Haihayas of Ratanpūr[3].

It is interesting to note that in one of the heroic songs of the Goṇḍs there is an account of a hero called Hīrākhaṇ. He was the king of Hīrāgaḍ and his Kingdom included the forts of Hīrāgaḍ, Bairāgaḍ (Wairāgaḍ), Śirpūr, Bhānpūr, Cāipārā, etc. The name of his queen was Kamal Hiro. No further details are known about this king of Bairāgaḍ or Wairāgaḍ[4].

Dhuṇḍyā Ram Śah.

Bābjī Ballal Śāh died in about 1597, and was succeeded by Dhuṇḍya Rām Śāh. Dhuṇḍyā Rām Śāh completed the construction of the Canda fort which was commenced by Khaṇḍkya Ballāl Śāh (1470–1495). The walls encircling the city vary in height from 15 to 20 feet, and cover an area of 7.5 miles. The rampart has semicircular bastions with embrasures at suitable points to fire through. At the main four quarters are the imposing gates named *Jātpurā* (north), *Vinbā* or *Ghoḍ-maidan* (west), *Paṭhāṇpurā* (south) and Mahākalī or Acaleśwar (east). The five small gates are Cor, Viṭhobā, Hanumant, Masān and Bāgaḍ.

[1]Major Lucie Smith, *Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Chanda District, Central Provinces*, 1869 (1870), pp. 25-26.
[2]*RCI.* pp. 80, 81.
[3]*RCI.* pp. 21—24.
[4]Rambharose Agrawal, '*Gadha-Mandla ke Gond Raja*' Samvat 2018, p. 152.

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There is cultivable land within the walls. The suburbs outside the walls were *Jatpurā, Govindpūr, Hivarpurī, Lālpeṭ* and *Bābupeṭ*.

The important historic remains which attract a visitor today are the city walls of black cut stone, the gates adorned with the typical Goṇḍi crest, the glittering Ramala tank and the tombs of the Goṇḍ kings. The monoliths at Lālpeṭh, the temples of Acaleśvar, Mahākalī and Muralīdhar are equally interesting. Just after the rainy season Cāndā or Candrapūr with the Māṇikdurg hills to its south shining under a clear blue sky, the greenfields all around and the Jharpaṭ-Irai closing the fort on two sides presents an enchanting view to the eye.

Some of the temples and gates were constructed by the successors of Dhuṇḍya Rām Śāh late in the Marāṭhā period. One Rāyappa of Komaṭī caste was the chief architect of Dhuṇḍyā[1].

When the work of the Cāndā fort was finished Dhuṇḍyā Rām Śah celebrated a function with great pomp. The courtiers assembled at Candrapūr and offered presents. Gifts were liberally given to the Brahmins and the poor. A *sanad* of Deśpandeship of *paraganā* Ghāṭkul was granted to a Brahmin of Rājur in the former Nizam State. The *paraganas* of Keḷāpūr, Bhorī, Yavatmal, Kaḷam and Haveli were conferred on a Liṅgāyat Baniyā[2].

The old Gazetteer of Cāndā District which in many respects is an exact copy of the account given by Major Lucie Smith in his *Report of the Land Revenue Settlement of the Cāndā District, Central Provinces, 1869*, describes Dhuṇḍyā Rām Śāh as foolish, drunken, untruthful and treacherous. But from his actual achievements it seems that he was tolerably good. Major Lucie Smith, one is forced to say, just wrote down uncritically whatever information he got in writing and by oral tradition. In the interest of historical truth it would have been better if Major Smith had exercised his judgment.

Kṛṣṇa Śah.

Kṛṣṇa Śāh the son of Dhuṇḍyā came to the throne after the latter's death. He governed his subjects well. The practice of sacrificing a cow in honour of Parsapen or Badadev common among the Goṇḍs was banned by Kṛṣṇa Śah. He substituted a goat for the cow as the traditional Goṇḍ practice touched the feelings of the Hindu population[3]. His father is said to have prohibited human sacrifice which was performed per force clandestinely[4].

During Kṛṣṇa Śāh's reign the Candrapūr Goṇḍ house recognised the independence of the Devgaḍ rulers by a treaty. According to the *Ain-i-Akbarī* the ruler of Devgaḍ, Jāṭabā, was a feudatory to Akbar. He extended his territory as far as

[1]*LSRLRSC.* pp. 26-27.
[2]*LSRLRSC.* pp. 66-67.
[3]*LSRLRSC* p. 67.
[4]*RCI.* p. 89.

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Nagpūr and constructed there a fort. Jaṭabā during Akbar's reign was a well-known Goṇḍ ruler having 2,000 cavalry, 50,000 infantry and 100 elephants. A powerful ruler like Jaṭaba must have ceased to pay allegiance to the week Candrapūr Goṇḍ house.

According to C. U. Wills, Kiba, the *Zamindar* of Candrapūr helped Khan Daurān in his attack on Nagpūr fort which was held by Koka Śah of Devgaḍ. Kiba, the Candrapūr *Zamindar* arrived at Nagpūr with 1,500 horse, 3,000 infantry and presented a sum of Rs. 70,000[1]. It is difficult to say who this Kiba was, but in all probability he was Kṛṣṇa Śāh as suggested by A. J. Rajurkar[2]. Kṛṣṇa Śah (1622–1640) was a contemporary of Śah Jahan (1627–58). Khan Daurān was sent against Nāgpur in 1637.

Bīr Śah.

Bir Śah succeeded to the throne on the death of his father Kṛṣṇa Śah. Bir Śah is described as a valiant prince who ruled successfully[3].

When Aurañgzeb was the governor of the Deccan for the appointed as the governor of the Deccan which post he held first from 1636 to 1644, and from 1652 to 1658 for the second time[4].

When Aurañgzeb was the governor of the Deccan for the second time, Bir Śah appealed to him for the remittance of the annual tribute as he was financially in bad straits. Aurañgzeb secured sanction for this from his father. A similar appeal was made by Kesar Siṅg of Devgaḍ. Kesar Siṅg, it was reported, possessed an elephant named Jaṭaśaṅkar of rare elegance. Śah Jahān urged his son in the Deccan to secure the animal and send it to him. Kesar Siṅg had no such elephant with him. Through the mediation of Bir Śah of Candrapur who had good relations with Aurañgzeb, Kesar Siṅg convinced Aurañgzeb that he did not have the animal and the enquiry was closed[5].

In September 1657 Śāh Jahan's serious illness, plunged the empire in Civil War. Aurañgzeb hastily retreated his steps to the north, took possession of Āgrā fort and imprisoned Śah Jahān for life[6]. This naturally gave respite to the Goṇḍ Kings and Bīr Śāh of Candrapūr seems to have stopped the payment of tribute to the Moghals. With a view to punishing Bir Śah for this act of defiance, Aurañgzeb sent Diler Khan to Goṇḍavana with a large army. Bir Śāh unable to face the Moghals offered rupees five lakhs to Diler agreeing to pay heavy fine to the Emperor. Bīr Śāh on the whole ruled wisely and successfully.

Bīr Śah had only one daughter whom he loved dearly. She was married to prince Durgpāl *alias* Durg Śah of Devgaḍ. On learning that she was insulted by her husband, Bir Śah marched

[1] *WRMSH*. p. 141.
[2] *RCI*. pp. 92, 93.
[3] *SHCPB*. p. 61 (Seal J. N., *History of the Central Provinces and Berar* Calcutta, 1917).
[4] *SMEI*. Part II., pp. 500-01
[5] *WRMSH*. pp. 147, 148, 151, 153.
[6] *SMRI*. Part II, pp. 503, 469.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Bīr Śāh.

on Devgaḍ and killed his son-in-law. His severed head was brought to Candrapūr and ceremonially offered to Goddess Mahakah. This was quite in keeping with the Goṇḍ practice of reacting revengefully for redressing the wrong.

At the court of Bir Śah there was a Rājput called Hirāman who was said to possess a magic sword of wood. Bīr Śāh often asked him about the sword out of curiosity but never got any reply. On the occasion of his own second marriage Bīr Śāh pressed Hiraman to show him the magic sword in the presence of the assembled courtiers. The king imagined that some misfortune might befall him if he did not acquaint himself with the mystery of the sword. Hirāman, however, did not like that the king should press him to show the sword in the presence of the courtiers. He at once grew furious and struck the king down dead while the gathering looked dumb-founded at the tragedy. Bir Śah was celebrating his second marriage as he had no male issue from his first wife Hirāī. Thus ended the life of Bīr Śāh.

As Bir Śah died sonless his widow adopted a boy from the royal Goṇḍ family of Candankheḍā related to Bir Śāh. This boy was the famous saintly Rām Śah. He proved to be a wise and good ruler.

Rāṇi Hirāī reconstructed the temple of Mahākālī as the Goddess had proved to be propitious when Bīr Śāh vowed to kill his son-in-law Durgā Śah. The present temple of Mahākālī was built by her. In memory of the victory over Durgā Śāh atop the temple his head in stone was placed facing Devgaḍ[1]. In honour of the Goddess Mahakali a fair is held on the full-moon day of *Caitra* when devotees flock to Candrapūr from places far and near.

Raṇī Hirāī

Hirāī took great interest in building temples. In place of the old temple of Acaleśvar a new one was built. By the side of the statue of Mahākāli was installed the image of Ekavīrā. On the full-moon day of *Caitra*, Mahākālī-Ekavīrā meeting is celebrated after the usual offerings to Mahākālī.

Bir Śah is said to have started the construction of the temple of Gaṇapati and Hirāī carried it to completion. The temple today is known as Gaṇapati of the Khāṭīs as one Ambābāī Khāṭī during the reign of Vyañkojī Bhosale (1788–1811) donated her wealth to the temple. Ambābāī burnt herself as a *satī*.

In honour of her husband, Hirāī built a beautiful tomb in the mansion opposite to the temple of Acaleśvar.

At Wairāgaḍ, Hirāī constructed the temple of Gorajāī. About forty miles to the east of Candrapūr on the bank of Waingaṅgā a temple of Śiva which was in ruins was rebuilt by Hirāī. As at

[1] *RCI*. p. 101.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Raṇī Hirāī.

all famous Śiva temples, a fair is held here on the *Śivarātri* day in the month of *Māgha*. Bāpūjī Vaidya, the *Divan* of Rāṇi Hirāī constructed a temple of Śiva and a spacious well.

The seventeenth century was an age of faith. Construction of a temple, a tank or well, a rest house or any building of public utility in the eyes of the public was considered an act of piety, and therefore a matter of achievement. Hirāī's place, therefore, as a builder in the history of Candrapūr is the same as that of Ahilyābāi Holkar in the eighteenth century India.

Rām Śāh

Hirāī, the mother regent, entrusted the charge of the Candrapūr Kingdom to her adopted son Rām Śah in 1691. Ram Śāh was noted for his piety. He is said to have possessed divine qualities as a result of which there was minimum crime during his reign. But as ill-luck would have it, he had to send an army against his own noblemen of Śirpūr.

At Śirpūr in the tahsil of Wani on the western bank of the Wardhā there lived three Goṇḍ brothers Āgbā, Bāgbā and Rāghbā by name. They were *mokasdārs* of *paraganā* Śirpūr and were nephews of king Ram Śah. Bāgbā, the most handsome of them, had once been to Candrapūr for official work. As prearranged he met Rām Śāh's beautiful daughter who was of marriageable age. The next day he left for Śirpūr. He had left his shoe in the apartment of his beloved unawares. Rām Śāh on learning about this love affair was naturally upset, and sent a small force to punish the unwarranted lover of his daughter. Bāgbā gathered his men to face the calamity and the two armies met at Ghughus twenty miles to the north-west of Candrapūr. Āgbā and Rāghbā fell fighting, and Bagbā in order to save his honour crossed the Wardhā and hid himself in a cellar along with his family. There he beheaded his family members and killed himself.

This love episode is wholly based on the ballad composed some time before 1862, *i.e.*, about 175 years after the actual event[1].

When Rām Śāh was ruling at Candrapūr (1691—1735), his territory was invaded by Kānhojī Bhosale the second *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*.

Marāthā Incursions.

Marāṭhā incursions into Berār go back to Śivājī's reign. In 1670 Śivājī suddenly fell upon the rich and flourishing city of Karañjā and looted it. Again in 1672 he entered Berar from Khāndeś but was beaten back[2]. He did not have Candrapūr in his programme of spoil. After his wonderful escape from Āgrā he took his homeward route *via* Bundelkhaṇḍ, Goṇḍawana and Golkoṇḍā[3]. In all probability his route from Goṇḍawana to Golkoṇḍā passed through Candrapūr. However, the required details supporting this statement are not available.

[1] *RCI.* pp. 122—129. The ballad was composed by one Mādhav poet. It is referred to in the *History of Wani* by Nilkanthrao Dhume, unpublished.
[2] Jadunath Sarkar, *Shivaji*, 1961, pp. 178, 190.
[3] *JSS.* p. 152.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Rām Śāh *Marāthā Incursions.*

During the reign of Rājārām the Marāṭhās were engaged in a life and death struggle with Emperor Auraṅgzeb. Fleeing *svarajya*, Rājarām reached Jiñjī on 15th November 1689. Among the trusted men who accompanied him there, was Rūpājī Bhosale the uncle of Parasojī Bhosale. Shortly after this Rājārām duly honoured his noblemen with titles and territory. Parasoji Bhosale had distinguished himself by his ravaging activities in Berar and Goṇḍawana and had established his influence there. The title of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* was conferred on him and the country of Berār and Goṇḍawana which was already subject to his pillages was given to his charge. No details of his raids into Goṇḍawana-Candrapūr are available. He is taken to be the founder of the House of the Bhosales of Nāgpūr with his headquarters at Bham in Berār, in the present district of Yavatmāl.

When Śahū came to the Marāṭhā country in 1707, Tārābāī, his uncle's wife proclaimed that he was an impostor, and therefore, had no claim to Chatrapatiship. In this hour of difficulty Parasojī Bhosale dined with Śāhū in the same dish and convinced the Maraṭha nobility that the latter was a Marāṭhā-Kṣatriya of the bluest blood, Śivājī's grandson, and thus by the law of primogeniture had the right to mount the throne. This helped Śāhū tremendously in bringing the Marāṭhā noblemen to his side. For this assistance Śāhū graciously conferred on Parasojī *Senā-Sāheb-Subhaship*, offered him the dress of honour and granted a *sanad* for *Prānt* Ritpur and *Sarkār* Gāwel of *Prānt* Berār, *Prānt* Devgaḍ, Candā-Goṇḍawana and Anāgondī[1]. It is not known when and how Parasojī invaded Cāndā. Major Lucie Smith's, *'Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Cāndā District, Central Provinces, 1869,'* which is the main source for the history of Candrapūr of the mediaeval period makes no reference to Parasojī's raids on Candrapūr.

Kānhoji at Candrapur.

Parasojī died in 1709 and was succeeded by his son Kānhojī who became the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*[2]. In the life of Śāhū by Malhār Rāmrāv Ciṇīs it is stated that the Cāndā *rājya* which was brought by Kānhojī Bhosale under his influence should be included in *Svarājya*. At another place in the same work it is mentioned that Kānhojī should continue to have Goṇḍawana, Berār and Cuttack[3]. Kānhojī it seems, was not very successful in his Candrapūr expeditions. He invaded Candrapūr in order to collect the dues of *cauth* and tribute which had not been paid. Rām Śāh sent an army to oppose him under the command of one Mānojī Badawaik and Kaserāv of Ādāpallī. The army consisted of Goṇḍs, Jāṭs and Paṭhāṇs. In the skirmish that took place near Rāmbāg outside the fort of Cāndā Kānhojī was defeated.

[1] *KNBB.* p. 31.
[2] *KNI.* pp. 49, 50.
[3] Sane K. N., *' Life of Shahu Maharaj The Elder,'* Third Edition, 1924, pp. 51, 55.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Rām Śāh. *Kānhoji at Candrapur.*

He was also not successful in his campaign against the Goṇḍ Kingdom of Devgaḍ[1].

The exact date of Kanhoji's invasion of Candrapur cannot be ascertained. Up to 1727 Kanhoji Bhosale was on good terms with Chatrapati Śahū[2]. Within a year or two thereafter he fell from Śahū's grace, and Śahū appointed Bhosale Raghuji I in place of Kanhoji. Kanhoji ran for help to the Nizam of Hyderabad. But the latter offered no shelter to Kanhoji when reminded by Śahū that this would be against the agreement entered into by the two powers, *Chatrapati* and Nizam, *viz.*, neither of them should give asylum to the enemy of the other. Bhosale Raghuji I and Kanhoji were already at cross roads as they had disputes regarding their shares in the ancestral *jagir*. Raghuji was pressing his uncle Kanhoji to give him his share in the *jagir*. So long as Kanhoji had no son he looked upon Raghuji as his successor and child. For sometime Raghuji lived with Kanhoji, his uncle. However, when by God's grace Kanhoji got a son his attitude towards Raghuji changed. He loved him no more. Kanhoji was recalcitrant and was not regularly paying the dues to the central treasury. It seems that his relations with *Peśwā* Bajirav I, the most influencial personality at the court of Śahū were neither cordial. They were rather strained. The result was that Kanhoji fell from *Chatrapati* Śahū's grace. Śahū sent Raghuji against Kanhoji. When Raghuji stormed Bham, the headquarters of Kanhoji, the latter escaped towards Wani but was overcome, defeated and taken a prisoner at Mandar. Kanhoji was handed over to the *Chatrapati* and spent the remaining part of his life in custody. This incident took place in 1730. Kanhoji, who was responsible for founding Maratha power in Gondwana and Orissa, thus ended his career as an unfortunate prisoner.

Raghuji invades Candrapur.

Raghuji was granted the *mokasa* right of Deur near Wani before he was sent against Kanhoji, in 1728. The title of *Sena-Saheb-Subhaship* was conferred on him, and *sanads* were issued on

[1] *R.C.I.*, pp. 133—36. This work describes Kanhoji's invasion of Chanda. It was originally prepared by one Sitaram Shastri Kanchanpalliwar in 1865 for the Settlement Commissioner of Chanda. A copy of the same was preserved and was found in the records of one Prabhakar Domalwar of Chanda. In this original copy it is stated that Shahu ordered Kanhoji Bhosale *to invade the Gond Kingdoms of Deogad and* Chandrapur as the Gonds had become defiant. Kanhoji ravaged Deogad territory but was not successful in subduing the Gonds. According to the original copy Shahu ordered Kanhoji to invade the Gond territory in the *Phasali* year 1107 *i.e.*, in 1697 A.D. In 1697 Shahu was in the custody of Aurangzeb. He came to the Maratha country in 1707 and crowned himself as the *Chhatrapati* in 1708. The year of Kanhoji's invasion of Chanda 1697 A.D. (1107 *Phasali*), is obviously wrong. The account of Kanhoji's invasion of Chanda too has to be taken with a grain of salt.

In the *KNBB* p. 38, it is stated that Kanhoji Bhosale established his rule over Berar, attacked Chandrapur and Deogad, looted some *parganas* thereof and returned to Berar. There is no mention of his defeat at Chandrapur or Chanda.

The source quoted in *RCI* pp. 133—37, states that Kanhoji was defeated and forced to flee by the army of Ram Shah. The source further says that Shahu sent Raghuji against Kanhoji because of Kanhoji's defeat at Chandrapur. The date of Kanhoji's death given in the source is 1112 *Phasali*, *i.e.*, 1702 A.D., and that of Raghuji's rule over Chandrapur 1125 *Phasali*, *i.e.*, 1715. These dates are absolutely wrong, therefore, one cannot take the source given in *RCI* as authentic. It is written in praise of Ram Shah and belittles Kanhoji.

[2] *SPD.* Vol. 20, pp. 6, 7.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Rām Śāh. *Raghuji invades Candrapur.*

28-2-1723, granting him the right to collect *mokasā* and *cauth* from *Paraganā* Ritpur of *Sarkār* Goval, *Prānt* Warhāḍ, Devgaḍ and Candrapūr of *Prānt* Goṇḍawana, *Prānt* Multai, *Prant* above the Ghats, *Prant* Chattisgaḍ, *Prant* Bastar, *Prānt* Makasudābād (Murśidabad, *i.e.*, Bengal), Paṭṇa and Ailahabād. The date of this *sanad* 1723, A.D. mentioned in the *Nagpurkar Bhosalyāñci Bakhar* is not correct. This *sanad* was issued between 1728 and 1730[3].

About 1730, Raghuji marched on Candrapūr but did not wage a war finding its ruler Rām Śāh of saintly disposition. Raghujī was so much impressed by Rām Śah that he honoured him with dress, collected the tribute and left the Candrapūr territory unmolested[4]. Towards the end of Rām Śah's reign (1734 A.D.) the *Mokasdār* of Gaḍabori in the Brahmapurī tahsil rebelled against him. It was quickly quelled by Semaji *alias* Śankar Dhume who was appointed for this task. In the engagement that took place Semājī brought the *Mokasdar* a captive but lost his nose. Rām Śāh honoured his valiant servant by presenting him a palanquin and a gold nose. Semaji secured from Rām Śah a *sanad* for Deshpandeship of 209 villages of *Paraganā* Gaḍbori and also a *sanad* for *mokasgiri* of Navargaṅv[5].

From the documents describing the grants, etc., made by the Goṇḍ Kings we find that they styled themselves as "*Rājeśri Maharājādhirāj Śri Bhūpatirāj*", *Śri Rāmśaheji Rāje* or *Rājeśri* Nilakaṇṭhaśāhaji *Raje*, Gosāvī[1].

Rām Śah constructed tanks and ghāṭs. The famous Rāmalā tank built by him was named after him[2]. Rām Śāh died in 1735. He was remembered for a long time for his saintliness.

Ram Śah was succeeded by his son Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh (1735—1751), who was ill famed as a tyrant given to vices.

Nīlkaṇṭh Śah and end of the Candrapūr House.

When Raghujī was busy with the Bengal expeditions, Raghunāth Siṅg, the *Diwaṇ* of the Goṇḍ King of Devgaḍ, with the help of Nīlkaṇṭh Śah, tried to overthrow Raghuji's sway. Raghujī in 1748, seeking respite from the Bengal affair, invaded Devgaḍ and killed Raghunāth Siṅg. He next proceeded against Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh and defeated him.

Nilkaṇṭh Śāh's hereditary *Diwaṇ* Mahādajī Vaidya was not happy with his master and had secretly invited Raghujī Bhosale to invade Candrapūr Kingdom. Nilkaṇṭh Śāh got scent of this treachery and poisoned his *Diwaṇ* Mahādajī Vaidya to death.

With his defeat by Raghujī Bhosale, Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh had to enter into a treaty with him. The treaty is dated 1159 *Phasali* year, *i.e.*, 1749 A.D. According to this treaty Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh

[1] *KNBB.* p. 42, Also see Grant Duff, *A History of the Marathas*, Vol. I, p. 424 (1912).

[2] *KNPI.* p. 37, Exact date of this invasion cannot be ascertained.

[3] *RCI.* pp. 138—40.

[4] *RCI.* pp. 141, 153.

[5] *RCI.* p. 151.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Nīlkaṇṭh Śah and end of the Candrapūr House.

surrendered to Raghujī two-third revenue of his kingdom. The share was as follows:—

Raghujī	Rs.	a.	p.	*Nilkaṇṭh Śah*	Rs.	a.	p.
Brother's share	37	8	0	Brother's share ..	37	8	0
Cauth	25	0	0	..	..		
Sar-Deśmukhi	10	0	0	..	..		
Total ..	72	8	0		37	8	0

This account has been secured from the authentic copy of the original documents in the possession of *Śrimant Raja* Bāḷasāheb Citṇavīs of Nagpūr. In these documents *cauth* is termed as *chaharam*. The city of Candrapūr together with the fort which was in excellent condition was retained by Raghujī for himself. *Kasabe* Ballalpūr *i.e.*, Ballarśah was left to Nilkaṇṭh. The ancient fort of Wairagaḍ fell to Raghujī's share.

Raghujī appointed Śivajīpant Taḷkuṭe as the keeper of the fort of Candrapūr. Timajī Sagadev, Nilkaṇṭh Śah's *Diwaṇ* sought service with Raghujī as his old master could not afford to maintain his services.

In 1751, Nilkaṇṭh foolishly took the possession of Candrapūr fort by driving the *Diwaṇ* Taḷkuṭe out. Raghujī immediately swooped upon Nilkaṇṭh, defeated him without any difficulty and imprisoned him permanently in the fort of Ballalpur. Raghuji took all the care of the royal prisoner. Thus ended the Goṇḍ house of Candrapūr when pitted against the superior power of the Marāṭhās.

Administration under Goṇḍs.

The history of Candrapūr as already observed falls into three distinct periods; the Goṇḍ, the Maratha and the British. Between the Goṇḍ and the Marāṭhā periods the Bahamanis, the Ādil Śāhs of Bijāpūr and the Moghals for sometime established their sovereignty over Candrapūr. Whether the Imad Śahī of Berār with its seat at Ellicpūr, during its short existence, extended its sway over Candrapūr cannot be ascertained for want of evidence. These Muslim rulers were quite content when the Goṇḍ rulers of Candrapūr accepted their sovereignty and paid them tribute regularly. Owing to the wild nature of Candrapūr country they could neither establish their sway there nor had they enough time to undertake the venture as they were preoccupied with other important political matters. In effect the internal administration of Candrapūr remained practically unaffected during the Muslim interlude. In studying the administrative history of Candrapūr, therefore, one has to reckon with the Goṇḍ, Marāṭhā and the British periods as of consequence. Islamic elements in Cāndā administration are to be traced to the Marāṭhā rule as it was of a hundred years duration and effective, and when it commenced it was itself impregnated with Muslim influence.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Administration under Goṇḍs.

The original source-material of the Goṇḍ period for Candrapūr is extremely scanty. All records concerning Cāndā administration were destroyed by one influential Brahmin Liṅgopant Dikṣit between 1819 and 1823, as he found them containing evidence unsuited to his designs. He had amassed a vast fortune and owned a number of villages[1]. The administrative history of Candrapūr of the Goṇḍ period has, therefore, to be compiled mainly from the extant papers of the Marāṭhā period and the references found in the history of the British period.

The Goṇḍ administration forms an important chapter of Candrapūr history revealing as it does the Goṇḍī concept of administration, the importance they attached to agriculture and the efforts they made for the habilitation of the country.

Under the Goṇḍs, land was divided into two categories *Zamindari* and non-*Zamindāri* or *Khālsā*. The *Khālsā* part of the country was portioned out into numerous divisions, each of which was governed by a *Killedār*—Fort Keeper—known as *Diwaṇ*. He was named after the fort where he resided. The *killa* unit was sub-divided into *barsas* or groups of villages, but a village was described according to its main division. Thus Cop in the Wairāgaḍ *paraganā* was styled *mauzā* Cop, *kille* Wairāgaḍ. There are no papers available showing these divisions under the Goṇḍ Kings, but in 1775 A.D., twenty-six years after the Marāṭhā conquest some of the divisions mentioned are as follows:—

Divisions in 1775	*Divisions to which they belonged in* 1869
1. Havelī ..	1. Havelī Paraganā.
2. Ballārpūr	
3. Rājgaḍ	
4. Barsāgaḍ ..	2. Rajgaḍ Paraganā.
5. Ghāṭkul ..	3. Ghaṭkul Paraganā.
6. Āmbgāṅv ..	4. Āmbgāṅv Paraganā.
7. Gaḍhcirolī ..	
8. Konsurī ..	
9. Brahmapurī ..	5. Brahmapurī Paraganā.
10. Gaḍborī ..	6. Gaḍborī Paraganā.
11. Phersagaḍh ..	
12. Wairāgaḍ ..	7. Wairāgaḍ Paraganā.
13. Śegāṅv ..	8. Warodā Paraganā.
14. Bhāndak	
15. Bhāndak ..	9. Bhāndak Paraganā.
16. Aṣṭā Khaṭorā	
17. Nerī ..	10. Cimūr Paraganā.
18. Kursiṅgī ..	
19. Goṇḍwarh ..	
20. Nāndorī	Wardhā District.
21. Nāndgāṅv ..	
22. Pohnā ..	
23. Uṇḍorī ..	
24. Devḷī ..	
25. Nācangāṅv ..	
26. Ārvī ..	
27. Woon Śirpūr ..	Woon District.
28. Mārḍī ..	
29. Rāḷegāṅv ..	
30. Māṇikgaḍh ..	
31. Śirpūr ..	Hyderābād Territory.
32. Bejur ..	
33. Jungāṅv ..	

[1] *LSRLRSC*, pp. 120, 127.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Administration under Gonds.

Zamindāris.

After the Treaty of Devgaṅv in 1803, the territory to the right bank of Wardha and the Praṇahita was ceded to the Nizam. Waroda, Cimūr and Brahmapuri were first included in Nagpūr but later retransferred to Candrapur the former in 1837-38 and the latter in 1820-21.

The *Zamindaris* were settled in 1869 after taking into account their history as it came down either through the Goṇd or the Maraṭha reigns. A brief account of the *Zamindaris* would not be out of place as it enables us to know their status and function under the Goṇds and the Maraṭhas.

Major Lucie Smith compares the Candā *Zamindars* with the English Barons and the Scottish chiefs, who were men ruling on the spot as the administrators at the centre were away, in the days of clumsy and slow means of communication. They exercised large powers but were not recognized either by the Goṇd or the Maraṭhā Government. They were regarded as nobles and were required to furnish a small contingent to the overlord when needed. They do not seem to have owned absolute right in the soil. In fact this concept does not seem to have existed in any part of India in the past.

The Goṇd and Maraṭha rulers made and unmade *Zamindārs* at pleasure. Around 1790 an instance is noted in which the Marāṭha Government took one *taluka* from each of the Ambāgaḍ Cauki, Paḷusgaḍ and Wairagaḍ *Zamindāris* and formed a new *Zamindāri* called Gevarḍa and bestowed it upon a Muslim who was the *Divāṇ* of the Wairagaḍ chiefs. Similar reshuffling was made in the nineteenth century.

The terms of tribute and the number of men to be furnished for police duty were often altered. From these instances one could infer that the *Zamindārs* enjoyed no absolute rights in the soil either under the Goṇds or the Marāṭhās.

At the time of the land revenue settlement of Candā in 1869, one of the provisions not approved by the Central Government was, that on the death of a *Zamindar*, his estate in default of a son, should devolve upon his widow. This mode of succession was obtaining among the chiefs of Candrapūr from time immemorial and was found to be in existence among all classes of landlords. In particular it suited well the Goṇd women who in history have, more often than not, displayed good common sense, courage, managerial ability, economy and moderation, which were usually wanting in their extravagant brothers and husbands[1]. *Rāṇi* Durgāvatī of Gaḍha-Maṇḍla and *Rāṇī* Hirāī of Candrapūr are noted in history for their valour and good government.

Gaḍha or a *Killā* was an important administrative unit, as well as a military station. The importance attached by the Goṇd

[1]*LSRLRSC*. pp. 179-80.

rulers to the *gaḍhs* or *killās* is well displayed in the fifty-two *gaḍhs* in which the administrative units of Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā were distributed[1].

The British after the land revenue settlement of Candrapūr grouped the *Zamindari*'s into two divisions the northern and the southern, the former being attached to Wairagaḍ and the latter to Āmbegaṅv. These two divisions had in all twenty *Zamindaris*. A brief survey of these *Zamindaris* yielding their history is given here.

Ambagaḍ Cauki Zamindari. The family of these *Zamindārs* hailed from Maṇḍla originally and belonged to the Khatulvar Goṇds of the Murāṇī Section. The *Zamindar* in 1869, Umrāv Siṅg could read and write Nagarī and was fairly intelligent.

Aunḍhī Zamindari. Situated on the eastern highland, the tract presented a picturesque panorama. Most of the area of this *Zamindari* was under forest. Aunḍhi the capital was a hamlet of 16 houses, having Raj Goṇds, Haḷbās and Dhers.

Dhanora Zamindari.- It was owned by one Sitāram Ṭhakūr of the Raj Goṇd race. The *Zamindari* is recorded to be of great antiquity but had no reliable accounts or documents.

Dudhmāla Zamindāri. The *Zamindar* Bhārik Rav was a young man of pleasing manners. In this area Marāṭhī and Goṇḍi dialects were spoken. Situated in the Waiṅgaṅgā valley the *Zamindāri* was picturesque. The family had a copper *sanad* (plate) which was plundered.

Gewards Zamindāri. This was founded at the close of the eighteenth century by a Muslim *divāṇ* of the Wairāgaḍ Chiefs.

Jharapaprā and Khutgāṅv Zamindāris.—Both these *Zamindāris* are recorded as very ancient but yielded no documents at the time of the settlement. The *Zamindar of* Jharapaprā was a Haḷbā and that of Khutgāṅv, a Rāj Goṇd.

Korecā, Kotgul and Murmgāṅv Zamindāris.—The first and the last of these were ancient without documents in their possession.

In these and other *Zamindāris*, tank and well water was commonly used for irrigation since Goṇḍī times.

Pānābāras Zamindāri. This was a very ancient *Zamindāri* of the Rāj Goṇd race of the Murāṇī section. At Rāmgaḍ in this area there was an old fort, and near Devulsud there were remains of an ancient temple.

At one time, the *Zamindars* of this area were subject to the Haihava rulers of Chattisgaḍ. According to the tradition a former chief of Pānābāras, Dhām Śāh, displayed great valour in an engagement with the Delhi troops in virtue of which the emperor bestowed upon him Princeship over Wairāgad chief and other insignia of rank *morchel* (fan of peacock feathers) and a *cauri* (fan of horsehair set in a silver socket). These emblems of dignity were not possessed by any *Zamindar*.

[1]Rambharosa Agrawal: *Gadha-Mandla Ke Gond Raja*- *Samvat* 2018, pp. 47–50.

CHAPTER 2. History. GONDS. Administration under Gonds. *Zamindāris.*

Nizām Śāh, the *Zamindār* of this place sided with Āppāsāheb Bhosale in 1818, in his struggle with the British. He was joined by other chiefs. In an engagement at Goelgāñv near Rangi a British detachment of 70 was cut to the last man. Nizām Śāh was driven back, pardoned, and his *Zamindari* was restored to him.

Palasgad, Rangi, Sirsuṇḍi and Sonsari Zamindaris.—All these *Zamindārīs* were ancient, possessing no documents. About the first there are anecdotes of the warlike character of its chiefs.

Aheri Zamindārī.—This was a grand *Zamindārī* having among other things teak and shisam probably unequalled in quantity in any other part of India.

Dharm Rāv, the chief at the time of settlement was receiving education in a High School. He belonged to a line related to the royal family of Candrapūr. The family has always been loyal to its sovereigns. In 1749 it fought for the Goṇḍ king, in 1773 for Mudhoji Bhosale the *Senā-Dhurandhar* of Candrapūr, in 1818 for Āppāsāheb Bhosale of Nāgpūr and in 1858 for the Queen of England.

This family has suffered from heirlessness.

Chandala, Gilgaon, Pawee Mulanda and Potegaon Zamindārīs.—Of these *Zamindārīs* some are recorded to be very ancient at the time of settlement[1].

From this description of the *Zamindārs* it is obvious that they held large tracts of land on a kind of feudal tenure. With the exception of two, all Candrapūr *Zamindārs* were descendents of chiefs who for hundreds of years administered the tract owing allegiance to the paramount power. The Gond kings controlled them sternly, promptly punishing them for plundering and rebellion[2].

Khālsā System.

In the Khālsa or non-*Zamindari* area those villages which were granted as *mukāsās*, *muktā* and *tukum* were regarded as the property of the grantee. The grantee paid a fixed annual sum which was not subject to alteration. Forest lands or waste villages taken for cultivation were often bestowed upon such tenures. But where these terms were not applicable the lessee held land either rent free or at a low rate ranging from three to five years. At the expiration of the period the village was subject to assessment like its neighbouring areas. The cultivated lands in all other villages were settled yearly with the royts. The village officer was *Mukāddam* or *Paṭel*[3].

The *Zamindārs* as already observed held large tracts of land on a sort of feudal tenure.

[1]*LSRLRSC*, pp. 185—202.
[2]*LSRLRSC*, p. 120.
[3]*LSRLRSC*, p. 184.

In the *Khālsā* area *the Mukāsdārs* held rent-free villages generally in lieu of military or religious services. The *Muktādārs* held estates and permanent annual demands which were not subject to alterations. The *Tukumdārs* had to pay fixed rent for as much area of land as could be watered by a tank which they had constructed.

The *Paṭels* called as *Mālguzārs* held villages on short lease at the pleasure of the Goṇḍ Government and were in fact just middlemen between the Government and the actual cultivators of the soil[1].

Every village, however small, had a *Mukāddam* or *Paṭel*, a *Koṭvār* and *Bhūmak*. If the village was of bigger size it had in addition to these officers a *Havā'dār*, a *Mahājan*, a *Vāri* (carpenter) and a *Khāṭi*. For a large village or a group of villages there was a *Pāṇḍe* and a *Nānoṭi Sonār* (goldsmith). In the later period of the Goṇḍi rule was added a *Jośi* (village priest) and in some cases a *Gārpagree*.

The terms *Mukaddam* and *Paṭel* seem to have been synonymous in the Marāṭhā period in the Candrapūr area. In the older documents the term used is *Mukāddam* but this was gradually replaced by the term *Paṭel*. The duty of the *Mukāddam* or *Paṭel* was to collect the Government revenue from the ryots and pay it in the *paragaṇā* treasury, to help the cultivators by offering them advances of grain for food and seed, and to encourage cultivation. He had also to arrest culprits, settle petty disputes, cater for the needs of travellers of position, and in general to carry out all Government orders as he might be asked to. As remuneration for his services he held revenue free lands the annual value of which was roughly estimated at ten per cent of the annual total demand on the village. He had also certain emoluments such as fees on marriages. The office in practice became hereditary, personal to the holder unencumbered by any right to share by other members of the family.

The *Koṭvār* was always a Dher or Pradhān and was the watchman of the village. He was well acquainted with the village history, fields and boundaries. He reported to the *Mukāddam* or the *Paṭel* whatever happened in the village, traced out the culprits and captured them. He supplied provisions to respectable travellers and arranged for their transport. He also provided forage.

In lieu of his services he annually received from each ryot a head-load of crop. On the occasion of marriage ceremonies and festivals he received certain presents. Dead cattle, sheep, etc., were his perquisites. More often than not he held revenue free land of small value.

[1]*LSRLRSC*, P. 14.

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The *Bhūmak* was always a Raj Gond and performed religious ceremonies of the village God. He used charms against tigers, remembered village boundary marks, helped village patrolling, fetched water for Government officials visiting the village and supplied the *Patel* leaves for plates (*patrāvali*). From each ryot he received annually *ahom a Kudav* of grain and generally had a field or some *mohwa* trees rent-free.

The *Havaldar* assisted the *Patel* in carrying out Government orders, and was fed by him. In addition he received a *payali* or two of grain from every ryot.

The *Mahajan* though strictly not an official, advanced grain to the cultivators and helped *Patel* in matters concerning village administration.

The *Vāri* (carpenters) and *Khati* (blacksmith) repaired the agricultural implements of the village, receiving annually a head-load of grain for every plough.

The *Pandia* was the village accountant who prepared its *lagvāns*. He annually received a *Kudav* of grain on each plough. He also received a small fee on the occasion of marriage ceremonies.

The *Nānoti Sonar* (goldsmith) tested the village rupee and in exchange received from two to four *payalis* of grain annually on each plough.

The *Joši* was always a Brahmin and functioned as the village priest and astrologer among the Hindus. He found out from the almanac days auspicious and inauspicious, performed marriages, other ceremonies and religious rites. He often held rent-free land and received a rupee or two from the village. He was separately paid by persons who consulted him on special occasions and asked him to perform religious ceremonies for them.

This office seems to have been added to the village when the Gondi territory was inhabited by a large number of Hindus who needed his service as required by their religion.

At a later date perhaps, the Gonds utilised his services.

The *Garpagāri's* duty was to prevent hailstorms, but only a few of these men were found in the Candrapūr district at the time of the 1869 settlement—as then they were mainly confined to the extreme west.

Next to the village the bigger administrative unit was the *paraganā*. When in full muster-roll it had the following officials :—

1. *Killedār* or *Divān*,
2. *Deśmukh*,
3. *Deśpānde*,

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4. *Sir Mukāddam*,
5. *Wanad Pande*,
6. *Karkūn*,
7. *Potdār*,
8. *Naj Pande*.

The *Killedar* later known as *Divan* was the governor of the *paraganā*.

The *Deśmukh*, the *Deśpānde* and the *Sir Mukāddam* were entrusted with the duty of extending cultivation in the *paraganā*. They were not to allow the village to fall waste and were to make annual settlements.

The *Deśmukh* was first in rank and had control over the other two. Next to him was the *Deśpande* and was in charge of the village papers which were furnished to him through the *Wanād-pānde*. The *Sir Mukāddam's* duty was to explain the orders to the *Mukaddam* or the *Patel* and to report to the *Divān* how cultivation was progressing. All these officers were styled as *Zamindārs* enjoying certain dues in cash and kind. They also held rent-free lands. These officers were not found in all the *paraganās*. At the time of settlement (1869) they were absent in the area east of Waingaṅgā or in the Brahmapurī *paraganā*. Probably their duties here were performed by the *Wanādpānde*.

The *Wanadpande* collected and examined the annual papers of each village prepared and submitted to him by the *Pānde*. When he was directed to raise any special impost called *burgun*, he assisted the *Deśmukh*, the *Deśpānde* and the *Sir Mukāddam* in assessing it ratably over the *paraganā*.

The *Kārkun* was the *Divan's* clerk and did all sort of writing for him.

The *Potdār* tested money paid into the treasury and received annually from 8 annas to a rupee per village as salary.

The *Nāj Pande* supervised matters connected with the Government granary.

The work of preparing and testing the village papers commenced after the rainy season. In summer the *Patels* assembled at the *paraganā* headquarters and the settlement for the year was finally fixed. The basis on which Government assessment was made is not known in the absence of contemporary documents. However, from the public memory it seems that the land revenue appropriated by the Gond Government was light and not exacting. The system of farming villages to individuals was quite unknown. Special imposts or *burgans* which were levied occasionally were not distressing to the people. The agriculturists of the settlement period (1869) looked back upon the Gond rule

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as the golden age of their country which had vanished once for all. In the latter part of the Goṇḍ rule Candrapūr attained prosperity the like of which was not witnessed thereafter.[1]

The structure of Candrapūr administration under the Goṇḍs was semi-feudal. The entire territory was apportioned among different petty or smaller chiefs who owed allegiance to their overlords or the *Rājās*. The *Rājās* were at first feudal superiors receiving only military service from the lesser chiefs. The *Rājās* like their feudatories had their own territorial domain in which alone they exercised direct authority. This system is traceable to ancient times and was definitely Goṇḍī in character.

The entire country was divided into *paragaṇas* each consisting of a number of villages. Each of them had a *Zamindar* with the establishment of a *Deśmukh* and a *Deśpaṇḍe*. The Marāṭhās removed them retaining only their *Kamāvisdār* whose original denomination was *Hudār*. They also retained the accountant *Phaḍṇavīs* who was formerly known as *Muharir* and the *Waraḍpāṇḍe* or the recorder of the village accounts. The *Waraḍpāṇḍe* had deputies all over the country to keep the *lagvan* accounts of the actual position of cultivation, occupancy and rents of the lands. This office existed under the Goṇḍs and was continued by the Marāṭhās. The office of the *prīti* under the Goṇḍs corresponded to that of the *Phaḍṇavīs* under the Marāṭhās. But what is puzzling in this system obtaining in Devgaḍ and Candrapūr is a net-work of permanent and hereditary officials extending over the whole area in which the feudal chiefs have no place[2].

A closer study of the facts helps to solve the apparent puzzle. According to Sir Richard Jenkins who had made a careful study of the revenue administration of the territory under the Bhosales, the tract from Waingaṅgā eastwards was parcelled out amongst the Goṇḍ *Zamindārs* at the time of Marāṭhā conquest. These Goṇḍ *Zamindārs* were warlike and of wild and irregular habits. The word *Zamindār* here connotes a local chief and not a local officer. The highly centralized administration through *Hudārs*, *Deśpāṇḍes* etc., was originally not of the Goṇḍs. This system is better known as *Khālsā*. It was found only in the area adjoining Berār, where it was introduced at an early date under Hindu rule. When the Rāj-Goṇḍs extended their sway over the low country *i.e.*, from the Waingaṅgā river eastward they found the *Khālsā* system prevailing in some parts of the newly acquired territory, and simply continued it. The *Khālsā* system though sufficiently old was later in time sequence than the semi-feudal system indigenous to Goṇḍawana.

Another possible explanation of the prevalence of the *Khālsā* system in Candrapūr is that it was introduced there, at least in some parts, by the Muslims when they overran it. They applied

[1] *LSRLRSC*. pp. 120—22.
[2] Sir Richard Jenkins—*Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur* (1827) Ed. 1901., pp. 67, 71.

the system to Candrapūr taking it from Berār which had fallen into their hands first. During the period between the fall of the Muslim power and the establishment of the Marāṭhā rule over Candrapūr, the Goṇḍs of Cāndā were practically independent and it is quite possible that they continued the system—*khālsā*—which had been introduced by the Muslims.

In this regard it may be noted that in Damoh, Narasiṅgpūr and Harai which for a long time retained their typical Goṇḍī character, before they were affected either by the Moghal or the Maraṭha influences, the administrative system native to the Goṇḍs was prevailing. For instance in Damoh the petty chiefs enjoyed land revenue in lieu of the military service they rendered to the overlord. In addition they offered annually a jar of butter or a couple of bamboo sticks to their overlord as a token of their subordination to him. The Candrapūr Rāj Goṇḍ too was offered jungle products and tiger skins by his subordinates every year when the court met.[1]

At the time of the Land Revenue Settlement of Cāndā (1869) majority of the *Zamindārs* are recorded to have held positions as subordinates of the feudal type since the time of the Goṇḍs.

Nilkaṇṭh Śāh, the Goṇḍ king (1735—1751) before he was subjugated by the Marāṭhās styled himself as *Mahārājādhirāj Śrī Bhūpati Rājeśrī* Nīlakaṇṭhaśāhājī Rāje. This clearly shows Marāṭhā influence even before the conquest of Candrapūr by them.[2]

CHANDA UNDER THE BHOSALES OF NAGPUR. (1751—1853)

With the imprisonment of Nilkaṇṭh Śāh in 1751 by Raghujī I, Candrapūr passed directly under the rule of the Bhosales of Nāgpūr and remained with them till 1853. In fact since the deposition of Āppasaheb Bhosale by the English in 1818, the Bhosales of Nāgpūr lost their independent status. This state of affairs continued till 1853. At the end of 1853 Bhosale Raghujī III died without a male heir and the entire *Rāj* of the Bhosales fell a victim to Dalhousie's famous *doctrine of lapse*. The Bhosale *Rāj* was annexed to the British territory and on 18-12-1854 the administration of Candrapūr was taken over by Mr. R. S. Ellis of the Madras Civil Service as its first Deputy Commissioner[3].

As early as 1803 by the Treaty of Devgāṅv, the Bhosales of Nāgpūr had ceded to the British, territory to the east of the river Wardhā. From this paralysing stroke they never recovered and died their political death in 1853.

During the Bhosale rule, 1751—1853, Candrapūr underwent many changes, political and administrative. By the rule of primogeniture the eldest son of the House of the Bhosales ruled at Nāgpūr with the title *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* bestowed upon him

[1] *Nagpur District Gazetteer*, 1966, p. 59.
[2] *RCI*. p. 153.
[3] *LSRLRSC*. p. 75

and the scions of the junior branch were given charge of Candrapūr with the title *Senā-Dhurandhar*. This arrangement was originally suggested by Raghujī I. For securing sanction to this arrangement officially from the *Chatrapatī* of Satārā, the Bhosale's of Nāgpūr had to approach the all powerful *Peśvas* from time to time. In matters of general policy the Bhosales of Nāgpūr were supposed to follow the Pesva as the Prime Minister, and to help him. The family dissensions among the sons of Raghujī I ruling at Nagpūr and Candrapūr often ended in bloody wars. There was contest for *Sena-Saheb-Subhāship* and *Sena-Dhurandharship*. After the Third Battle of Pānipat the *Peśvā* House lost its unity. Following the death of *Peśva* Madhavrav I the rivalry for *Peśvaship* between Raghunathrav and Narayanrāv culminated in the assassination of the latter. The parties at Pooṇā led to formation of factions at the Nagpūr Court among the sons of Raghujī I. The factions continued even during the period of Raghujī's grandsons. The history of Candrapūr was naturally affected by the course of events taking place both at Pooṇā and Nāgpūr. The fate of Candrapūr is seen to have been tied inevitably with the affairs at Nagpur and Pooṇa. Since 1751 Candrapūr lost its typical Goṇḍī character and was slowly influenced by that of the Bhosales, *i.e.*, the Marāṭhās. With the end of the Bhosale rule over Candrapūr ended the mediaeval period of its history. The British ushered in the modern age.

Raghujī I, who was responsible for annexing the Gond Kingdom of Candrapūr to Nagpūr, died in 1755. He had four sons Jānojī, Mudhojī, Bimbājī and Sabajī. Jānojī being the eldest naturally considered that he was entitled for the *gādī* of Nāgpūr and the title *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*. But Mudhojī, who was next to him in age, claimed for himself Nāgpūr *gādi* and *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship*, on the plea that he was the son of the eldest wife of Raghujī I, though junior in age to Jānojī.

When Raghujī was on his death bed, Jānojī and Sābājī were with him while Mudhojī was sent with an army to reduce the fort of Gāvilgaḍ. On getting the news of his father's death Mudhojī strengthened his position at the newly conquered fort of Gavilgaḍ, but Jānojī secured it for himself deceitfully.

War between Janoji and Mudhoji.

Differences between the two brothers became keener every day. Jānojī had the support of influential persons and diplomats of his father's regime such as, Bāburāv Kānhere, Rakhamājī Ganeś Citṇavīs, Trimbakajī Raje Bhosale, Kṛiṣṇājī Govind, the *Subhedār* of Berār, Narahar Ballāl, the *Subhedar* of Nagpūr, Śivbhat Sāṭhe, the noted *Subhedār* of Cuttack, Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Bimbājī Vañjāl, Narhojī Jācak, Śivājī Keśav Tāḷkuṭe, Girmājī Khāṇḍerāv, Ānandrāv Wāgh and Kṛṣṇajī Aṭoḷe. Mudhojī was backed by Sadāśiv Hari, the *Deśmukh* of Paroḷe related to him and Dinkar Vināyak, Śivājī Vināyak and Narasiṅg Bhavānī of Prabhu community.

After a few skirmishes the differences between the two brothers were settled for sometime through the mediation of *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrav. The two brothers were called to Pooṇā by the *Peśvā*. Jānojī was granted *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* and was to rule at Nagpūr; to appease Mudhojī the title of *Senā-Dhurandhar* was bestowed upon him with Candrapūr as his headquarters. Bimbājī was given the charge of Chattisgaḍ and Sābājī was to administer from Dārve in Berār. This arrangement was made by the *Peśvā* in 1757, but the *sanad* of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* was actually given to Jānojī as late as 1761 when Mādhavrāv I was the *Peśvā*[1].

When the negotiations between the brothers were on, the *Peśvā* demanded from them the time-honoured *nazarāṇā*-present—for settling their differences. The sum of the *nazarāṇa* which was quite big is said to have been substantially brought down by Devajīpant Corghaḍe who at this time seems to have been a promising young diplomat[2]. He was the chief counsellor of Jānojī in all political matters but by his intrigues soon came to be hated by Mudhojī Bhosale and also by the Pooṇā Court.

Mudhoji reduces Candrapur Fort, 1756.

Within a year after the death of Raghujī I, Ballāl Śāh, the son of Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh, availing himself of the fratricidal war between Jānojī and Mudhojī, collected the Goṇḍs and Rohilās and took the fort of Cānda. Mudhojī sent his general Mahipatrāv, who restored the fort without much difficulty. Ballāl Śāh, who had escaped from Cāndā fort, was overtaken at Gānāpūr of the Ghāṭkul *paraganā*. A bloody war ensued in which Ballāl Śah was wounded by a cannon ball and taken a prisoner to Nāgpūr. In 1789 Raghujī II released him and graciously offered him a pension for maintenance. He was also known as Bombalya Ballāl Śah[3].

Battle of Rahatgāñv 1759.

The reconciliation between Jānojī and Mudhojī brought about by *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv proved to be shortlived. Mudhojī was given the charge of Candrapūr, according to the understanding, reached between the two brothers immediately after the death of Raghujī. But he continued to press his demand that Jānojī being the eldest should reside at Nāgpūr, whereas he should be in charge of the actual administration. Jānojī was not agreeable to this suggestion and wanted that Mudhojī and himself should administer their territories from Nāgpūr and Candrapūr respectively as was decided in 1757 through the mediation of the *Peśvā*. As a result of the family feud the revenue affairs of Berār were at sixes and sevens. The *Peśvā* constantly demanded the dues from the Bhosale brothers amounting to Rs. 10,00,000 as the share of each. Mudhojī had actually started collecting revenue from Berār and distributing *mokāsā* rights to persons of his own choice, without caring for Jānojī's rights. Before matters went from bad to worse an attempt was made to reconcile the

[1] *KNI*. pp. 115—18.
[2] *KNBB*. pp. 68, 69.
[3] *KNI*. p. 118 and *RCI*. p. 165.

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Battle of Rahatgāñv 1759.

two brothers. Jānojī sent Raghujī Karāṇḍe and Bālaji Keśav to Candrapūr with a view to bringing Mudhoji to Nāgpūr for a talk. Mudhojī accompanied by his *Phaḍṇavis*, Moro Raghunāth arrived in Nāgpūr and the two brothers met and discussed matters on the auspicious day of *Dasarā*, in October 1759. They could not arrive at any understanding and Mudhojī fearing arrest fled from Nāgpūr. He collected a force of 5,500. To counter this Jānojī with his army started out from Nāgpūr on the first day of the *Dipāvalī* festival. The two brothers with their forces encountered on the plain of Rahatgāñv near Amrāvatī. Mudhojī was defeated and fled towards Karañja. The two brothers were once again reconciled on the agreement that Mudhoji should be in charge of the entire administration, and the trio Raghuji Karāṇḍe, Trimbakajī Rāje and Pirajī Nimbalkar acting as mediators should ward off all differences in future. Mudhoji's partisans together with Mudhojī himself brought home to Jānoji that it was Devājīpant Corghaḍe, his chief counsel, who was mainly responsible for the continuation of the discord between them, and as such, should be kept in confinement in the fort of Devgaḍ. Another man of Jānoji unwanted by Mudhojī was Bāḷājī Keśav Sapre. It was suggested that he should be imprisoned in the fort of Āmbegaḍ in Bhaṇḍārā. Jānojī, of course, could not consent to this proposal as both Devājīpant and Bālājī Keśav were his right-hand men[1].

In the battle of Udgīr *Peśvā* Bhāusāheb had invited Jānojī and Mudhojī to join him against the Nizām. Jānojī with his 12,000 force and Mudhojī with his contingent joined the *Peśvā* when the war with the Nizām was over[2]. The Bhosale brothers seem to have avoided accompanying Sadāśivrāv Bhāu to Pānipat as their financial condition was not satisfactory. Moreover, the *nazarāṇā* dues which they owed to the *Peśvā* amounting Rs. 20,00,000 were yet to be paid. Later when Nānāsāheb *Peśvā* proceeded from South to help Sadāśivrāv Bhāu who was locked up in the North, Jānojī and Mudhojī accompanied him with their armies. But they returned along with the other Marāṭhā noblemen as the sad news of the debacle of the Marāṭhās reached the *Peśvā* Nānāsāheb when he was on the banks of the Narmada[3].

Activities during the Pesvaship of Madhavrav I.

In the post-Panipat period the political situation at Pooṇa was very critical. Quite a large number of families was in mourning throughout the Marāṭhā country. Raghunāthrāv was secretly trying to secure the support of Haidar Alī and the Nizām as he coveted the office of the *Peśvā* for himself. Mādhavrāv I, since he assumed *Peśvāship*, was carefully watching the activities of his uncle Raghunāth and his supporters. The Nizām, who was smarting under the shameful defeat he had suffered at Udgīr, was eager to fish in the troubled waters of Pooṇā politics. He

[1] *KNI*. pp. 127, 128.
[2] *KNI*. p. 129.
[3] *KNI*. pp. 131-2.

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Activities during the Peśvaship of Madhavrav I.

saw within no time that the Pooṇā Court was a house divided against itself owing to Raghunathrāv's ambition to become the *Peśva*. He found in Jānojī a permanent enemy of the *Peśvā* and therefore his friend. The *Peśvā's* difficulty was Nizām's opportunity. He held for Janojī the promise of making him the *Chatrapati* at Sātārā or at least to place him in a position by virtue of which he could control the affairs of the *Chatrapati*. Mudhojī Bhosale of Candrapūr was inevitably drawn into this political tangle.

Mādhavrāv *Peśva* faced the situation calmly and courageously. By taking his uncle into confidence he defeated his arch enemy the Nizām in the Battle of Rākṣasabhuvan, in 1763. He next proceeded against Janojī Bhosale who had formed an unholy alliance with the Nizām in the sack of Pooṇā. After Rakṣasabhuvan the Nizām joined hands with the *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv I in his campaigns against Janoji. Jānojī for his personal gains had deceived both the *Peśvā* and the Nizām.

On 17th October 1765, Mādhavrāv set out from Pooṇā and was joined by Rukna-ud-daulā, the Nizām's *Dīvāṇ* with a force of seven to eight thousand. The two brothers Jānojī and Mudhojī came together forgetting their differences in the hour of calamity. They carried the members of their family into the fort of Āmner for safety. Nāgpūr was panic stricken. Timely peace was effected through the mediation of Raghunāthrāv who had a soft corner for Jānojī, Devājīpant, and Vyaṅkaṭ Moreśvār, the *Peśvā's* envoy at the court of Nāgpūr[1]. The terms of peace were

(1) After the battle of Rākṣasabhuvan the *Peśvā* had secured territory from the Nizām. Out of this the *Peśvā* had given to the Bhosales territory worth 32 lacs revenue.

(2) Now the Bhosales should return territory yielding 24 lacs revenue to the *Peśvā* out of 32 lacs.

(3) The Nizām should receive from the *Peśvā* for the help he had rendered against Jānojī, territory worth 15 lacs revenue out of his 24 lacs.

The net result of this treaty (1766) which was finalised at Kholāpūr was that the *Peśvā* got for himself territory worth nine lacs, the Nizām 15 lacs and the Bhosales 8 lacs[2]. Out of this territory yielding 8 lacs revenue the share of Mudhojī is not known.

Jānojī was not very happy with this arrangement arrived at in the treaty of Kholāpūr. He agreed to help Raghunāth in his struggle with *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv I and drew upon himself the wrath of the latter. Mādhavrāv defeated his uncle Raghunāth and imprisoned him. He next marched upon Nāgpūr with a view to teaching a lesson to Jānojī once for all. Jānojī deputed

[1] *KNI*. pp. 160—2.
[2] *KNI*. p. 165.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BHOSALES OF NAGPUR, (1751—1853) Activities during the Peśvaship of Madhavrav I.

Devājipant to Pooṇa for talks. But this time the *Peśvā* was determined to punish Janoji and carried Devajipant as his prisoner when he set out for the expedition. The Nizām sent his contingent of *eight thousand under Rukna-ud-daula* and Rāmcandra Jadhav. The Bhosales sent their family and jewellery into the fort of Gavilgad for safety.

On 20th January 1769, the *Peśvā* stormed the fort of Āmner and proceeded straight towards Nāgpūr, without chasing Janoji who had resorted to guerilla war tactics. Nāgpūr was sacked and burnt. The sack of Pooṇā by Janoji on a previous occasion was fully avenged[1]. Janoji at this time had the full co-operation of Mudhoji. After the loot of Nagpur the Bhosales defended themselves from the strong fort of Candā. The *Peśva's* army laid siege to Candrapūr. Devajipant, the Machiavellian diplomat of Janoji, who was at this time in the custody of the *Peśvā*, advised his master to address a letter to him Devajipant—stating that the *Peśvā should be encouraged to continue the siege* of Candrapūr which was not easily conquerable, so that a part of Janoji's army would get time to fall upon Pooṇā. The letter was to be dispatched in such a manner that it should be inevitably intercepted by *Peśva's* scouts. This trick had its effect[2]. *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv, who had other important urgent matters requiring his presence, hastily concluded a treaty with the Bhosales and withdrew the siege of Candrapūr.

The treaty between the Bhosales and *Peśvā* known as the Treaty of Kanakpūr on the banks of the Godavarī was concluded on 23rd March 1769. Among the terms which are relevant to the history of Candrapūr may be mentioned:—

1. The Bhosales should help the *Peśva* when called.

2. The Bhosales should make no changes in their army without the consent of the *Peśva*.

3. Rebels from the *Peśva's* territory should not be given a shelter by the Bhosales.

4. The Bhosales should not have diplomatic relations with any one of the following powers without the permission of the *Peśvā*: The *Pādaśāh of* Delhi, the *Nawab* of Oudh, the Rohillas, the English and the Nizām.

5. The Bhosales should pay annually rupees 5 lacs in five instalments to the *Peśva* as tribute.

6. The *Peśva* should not interfere with the internal affairs of Janoji so long as he was satisfactorily looking after his relations.

7. The Bhosales should cede the following *mahals* to the *Peśvā*: Reva Mukundpūr, Mahoba, Carṭhaṇe, Jintur, Sakarkherdā and Mehekar.

[1]*KNI*, p. 175.
[2]*KNI*, p. 180.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BHOSALES OF NAGPUR, (1751—1853) Activities during the Peśvaship of Madhavrao I.

8. The Bhosales should dispatch an army against the English at Calcutta only when the *Peśva* is not in need of their help.

9. In the event of an invasion upon the Bhosales, the *Peśvās* should help them[1].

These terms it seems were applicable both to Janoji and Mudhoji. Madhavrav's aim in attacking Janoji was to stop the English from sending him any help. After Jānoji's death Mudhoji became the ruler of Nāgpūr in addition to Candrapūr which was already with him.

In the early months of 1772, Janoji had been to Theur to see Madhavrav *Peśva* who was on his death bed. Both the *Peśvā* and Janoji had friendly talks. Janoji, who had no son wanted to adopt Raghuji, his brother's son (Mudhoji's son) as his successor to *Sena-Saheb-Subhaship* at Nāgpūr. The *Peśva* agreed to sanction this arrangement. Janoji left Theur for Nāgpūr but unfortunately died on the way at *mauja* Yeral of *Paraganā* Naḷdurg on 16th May 1772.

Following the death of Janoji, his wife Daryābai pretended that she was carrying and would give birth to a posthumous child. She declared that the arrangement made by her husband of adopting Mudhoji's son as the successor to *Senā-Sāheb-Subhaship* would be unnecessary if she gave birth to a boy. This would have naturally enabled Daryābāi to keep control over Nagpūr affairs during the minority of her son who was yet to be born. In fact she was not carrying and therefore never gave birth to a child. She was joined by Sābājī, her husband's brother, against Mudhoji of Candrapūr.

When Janoji met Madhavrāv at Theur, the latter had agreed to allow Janoji to adopt Mudhoji's son as the successor to *Senā-Saheb-Subhaship* at Nāgpūr. But after Jānoji's death the arrangement was not confirmed as Mudhojī was a partisan of Raghunāthrāv. On the contrary the *Peśvā* sent robes of *Senā-Saheb-Subhāship* for Sābāji. Sābāji's position with the support of the *Peśva* became stronger than ever before. Mudhoji seeing the situation that was developing against him went to his capital Candrapūr with his son Raghuji. Both the parties resorted to arms and met at Kumbharī near Akolā. After a skirmish they came to terms in which it was decided that none should resort to war, Raghuji should be recognised as the *Sena-Saheb-Subhā*, and both Mudhoji and Sabaji should carry on the administration (28-1-1773). It was decided to depute the Prabhu brothers Vyaṅkaṭrav Kaśi and Lakṣmaṇrav Kāśī to Fooṇā in order to secure the robes of *Senā-Saheb-Subhāship* for Raghujī, from *Peśvā* Nārāyaṇrāv. When the brothers reached Pooṇā they learnt that Raghunāthrav had been put behind the prison bars by Narayaṇrav *Peśvā*. Shortly thereafter Nārāyaṇrāv was

Skirmish between Sabaji and Mudhojī at Kumbhari.

[1]*NPI*, p. 182.

Battle of Pāegāñv.

assassinated. Raghunathrav became the *Peśva* and the cause of his old partisan, Mudhoji, became stronger. Sābāji, Mudhoji's rival, joined the league of *Bārabhāis*[1]. Raghunathrav sent Muhammad Yusuf, one of the *gārdis*, who was directly responsible for the murder of Narāyaṇrāv to help Mudhoji against Sābāji. Once again the two brothers made preparation for a war and their armies met on the plain of Pāegañv about ten miles from Nāgpūr on the Nagpūr-Umreḍ road. Sābāji was killed by a chance shot fired by Mudhojī. (26-1-1775). With Sabaji's death Mudhoji became the master of Nagpūr affairs in addition to Candrapūr region which was under him. On 24-6-1775 Mudhojī's son, Raghuji, received from *Savai* Madhavrāv *Peśva* the title and robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship*. This brought about a rapprochement between the League of *Barabhāis* and Mudhojī. As a gesture of friendship Mudhoji got arrested Muhammad Yusuf, one of the assassinators of Narayaṇrav *Peśvā* and made him over to Paraśurām Paṭvardhan, a member of the *Bārabhāis*[1]. Yusuf was blown off from the mouth of a cannon.

Mudhoji successful.

In the Battle of Badamī fought on April 1786, Mudhoji sent his sons Khaṇḍojī and Vyañkojī to help the Marāthas against Ṭipū *Sultān*, at the instance of Nanā Phaḍṇavīs. Khaṇḍoji *alias* Cimaṇabāpū distinguished himself in this battle by his bravery[3].

Following the death of Raghujī I, Mudhojī was granted the title *Senā-Dhurandhar* and was put in charge of Candrapūr territory. Since then, as already observed, the history of Candrapūr inevitably forms part of Nāgpūr politics and is also affected by the fast changing affairs at the court of Pooṇā. During Mudhojī's rule of *Senā-Dhurandharship* (1756 1788) Candrapūr did not have independent political entity of its own and Mudhojī does not seem to have paid attention to its progress.

In the changing politics of the day Mudhojī played fast and loose with the Pooṇā court as well as with his own brothers at Nāgpūr, for his own interest. This is a common characteristic displayed by many a Marāṭhā nobleman of the period, completely ignoring the interest of the Marāṭhā Power or Marāṭha Confederacy. The best instance in this regard is provided by Raghunāthrāv *Peśvā* who sought the help of the English for his personal ambition, not realizing that he was selling the freedom of the Marāṭhās as a whole for a mess of pottage. No wonder if Mudhojī of Candrapūr provided one more instance by his behaviour, which proved ultimately detrimental to the Marāṭhā interest. In this regard Mudhojīs relations with Nānā Pnaḍṇavīs and the British between 1778 1780 merit the attention of historians.

[1]*KNI*. pp. 195—202.
[2]*KNI*. p. 210.
[3]*KNI*. p. 213.

In 1780, Nānā Phaḍṇavīs realizing the danger of the growing power of the English wrote a letter to Haidar Alī of Mysore, bringing home to him the divide and rule policy of the English, and their plan of subjugating the States of Pooṇā, Mysore, Nāgpūr and Hyderabad[1]. To avert this danger Nānā proposed a quadruple alliance between Pooṇā, Nizām Alī of Hyderābād, Bhosales of Nāgpūr and Haidar Alī of Mysore. Nizām Alī communicated this to Divākarpant Corghaḍe, the Kautilian diplomat at the Court of Nāgpūr with a view to securing his master's co-operation for the execution of the plan. Nānā and Mahādajī asked Mudhojī to play his role of attacking Bengal as the arrears of *cauthai* from that part had not been paid since long. The other members of the quadruple alliance were to attack the English from different sectors. But Mudhojī on the contrary proposed to Warren Hastings to accept him as a vassal of the English. Later, Khaṇḍojī *alias* Cimaṇājī, younger son of Mudhoji was sent to Bengal with an army to exact the payment of *cauthāī* which was in arrears. But before Khaṇḍojī could achieve any thing Warren Hastings purchased peace by offering large sums of money to Khaṇḍojī. When Goddard arrived on the Narmada towards the end of 1778 he succeeded in persuading Mudhojī Bhosale to grant a passage to the British army through his territory into Gujarāt. Similarly, Khaṇḍojī Bhosale allowed free passage to Colonel Pearse's troops through Orissa and agreed not to attack Bengal, when he was bribed by presents of jewellery worth one lac, dress worth two lacs and cash of *mohors* worth four lacs. In the first Anglo-Maraṭhā war there was every chance of the English being signally defeated had Mudhojī *done his duty*. Mudhojī in this affair acted on the advice of Devājipant Corghaḍe[2].

Mudhojī seduced by Hastings.

Devājipant advised Khaṇḍojī to secure the friendship of Hastings while making a show of rendering help to Nānā Phaḍṇavīs. This double role which Mudhojī was playing led Haidar Alī to suspect the honesty of the Marāṭhā activities which were expected to reduce Bengal. Poor Nānā often wrote to Haidar Alī to appease him saying that he would soon hear the news of the occupation of Bengal by the Bhosales. But this was never to happen and Nānā's plan of carrying out the quadruple alliance completely fizzled out[3].

Mudhojī in his dealings with his relations and subordinates was not a safe man to rely upon. After the death of his father Raghujī I, his plea that he should be granted *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāshīb* being the son of the eldest wife of Raghujī is tricky and strange. One of the most trusted servants of Mudhojī, *Sardār* Mahipat Dinkar Gupte, who had served him loyally, was

[1]Rajwade V. K.: *Marathyanchya Itihasachi Sadhane*, Vol. 19, p. 56.
[2]*SNHM*. Vol. III, pp. 97—100.
[3]The terms of the treaty between the Bhosales and the English for which Hastings secured the sanction of the Board of Control on 6-4-1781, see *KNI*. p. 273.

Character of Mudhoji.

imprisoned in the fort of Gavilgaḍ. For twenty years from 1755 to 1775 he had served Mudhoji in Candrapūr politics. He was arrested on the flimsy excuse that he was related to Bāburāv Hari Gupte in the service of Raghunathrāv *Peśwa*, when Mudhoji and Raghunathrav were not on good terms[1]. The treatment which Mudhoji meted out to Udepurī Gosavī, the well known banker of Nagpūr, is equally unbecoming of a King. Mudhoji owed Rs. 50,00,000 to Udepurī. The latter pressed Mudhoji for the payment of the debt. Two young men in the service of Udepurī were treated by him as his sons. One of these men used to visit the house of a prostitute. One day when the person concerned visited the house of the prostitute he found her dead. The young man was charged with murder. Mudhoji's soldiers who had been sent to conduct an enquiry killed the two young men, and forcibly seized the debt deed from the Udepurīs. A document showing Rs. 50,00,000 which Mudhoji owed them. The Udepurīs shortly left Nāgpūr as an unsafe place for business. Mudhoji wanted to exact money from Viśvambhar, a brother of Benirām Pandit, his envoy at Calcutta. But the situation was saved owing to the timely mediation of Bhavanī Munśī, an old and influential person at the court of Nāgpūr[2].

Mudhoji was short-statured and statuesquely built. He was noted for his daring and courage. The Pathāns in his army once wounded him for the non-payment of their salary. He gave promises which he often broke unscrupulously[3].

In the history of Candrapūr there is nothing worth mentioning to the credit of Mudhoji during his long reign of 32 years (1756—1788). He died in 1788 at Nāgpūr shortly after his return from pilgrimage to holy places in Mahārāṣtra[4].

Vyankoji Bhosale.

After Mudhoji's death in 1788, his youngest son Vyaṅkoji assumed charge of Candrapūr *Subhā* and Raghujī II ruled at Nāgpūr as the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*. Of all the Bhosales of Nāgpūr who ruled Candrapūr Vyaṅkoji alone merits the attention of historians for his good deeds. He gave Candrapūr much wanted peace. Perhaps he did not have a full grasp of the political situation in India. He may not have possessed the foresight of his elder brother Raghuji II, at Nagpūr. In 1803 by the Treaty of Devgāṅv his brother Raghuji II had to accept the supremacy of the British. From this time onward it was clear that the days of Candrapūr too were numbered. But it was beyond the capacity of Vyaṅkoji to stop this growing encroachment of the British power on Indian States. He was like many a petty prince of his day just a helpless onlooker of the situation. He was an ordinary good ruler interested in the welfare of his subjects.

[1]*KNI*. p. 181.
[2]*KNI*. p. 288.
[3]*KNI*. p. 287.
[4]*KNI*. p. 214.

Vyaṅkoji Bhosale.

Vyaṅkojī was a man of extraordinary energy and physical vigour. He loved adventures. He was present in the Battle of Badami in 1786 and fought against Ṭipū *Sultān* at the invitation of Nana Phaḍṇavis[1].

Vyaṅkoji as a Soldier.

It was during the second Anglo-Maraṭha War that Vyaṅkojī distinguished himself as a military leader and came into his own. Vyaṅkoji proposed to Daulatrāv Śinde and his own brother Raghuji II that the Marāṭhā forces should intercept the British army under the protection of the two strong forts Narnaḷā and Gāvilgaḍ. This was an appropriate strategy which the situation demanded. Towards the end of this war in November 1803, in the absence of Raghuji II, Vyaṅkoji was in command of the army camping at Āḍgaṅv before the final action. Vyaṅkojī played his role well even when he was aware that the Marāṭhas were fighting a losing war[2].

After the Treaty of Devgāṅv, adventurous Vyaṅkojī carried out depredations in the Nizām's territory. As this was a breach of the Devgaṅv Treaty, Vyaṅkoji had to give up his marauding activities when sternly reminded by the Resident. He was arrested for a short time and then released[3]. Raghujī II and Vyaṅkoji were not on good terms though they did not wage wars like the Bhosales of the previous generation. On one occasion Vyaṅkoji thought of joining Daulatrāv Śinde so that he might get full scope for his soldierly qualities. Daulatrāv in his own way was eager to have a brave soldier like Vyaṅkojī in his service. This would have given Daulatrāv an opportunity to keep control over Nāgpūr affairs. But for reasons not known Vyaṅkojī did not join Daulatrāv. His *jāgīr* at Candrapūr which was confiscated was freed and once again he ruled his *subhā* till his death[4].

Vyaṅkoji's career as a soldier was a failure in spite of his personal bravery, as he had to bend before the might of the British along with the other Marāṭhā princes. However, as a builder and patron of learning he deserves a high place in the history of Candrapūr of the Marāṭhā period.

Vyaṅkoji, a Builder.

Part of the historic fort of Ballālpūr or Baʾlarśāh which was in ruins was rebuilt by Vyaṅkojī. The fort of Cāndā too received his attention. It was put in good defensible condition. This strong and extensive fort afforded good defence to the Bhosales in time of difficulties.

Rāmalā tank named after Rām Śāh, the Goṇḍ King, was repaired by Vyaṅkoji. For his own use he constructed a beautiful palace which was destroyed by the British in 1818.

[1]*KNI*. p. 213.
[2]*KNI*. p. 332.
[3]*KNI*. pp. 362-3.
[4]*KNI*. p. 380.

Vyaṅkoji, a Builder.

The temple of Muralīdhar which is an interesting piece of architecture standing to this day was built along with the palace or *mahal*[1].

Vyaṅkoji, a patron of learning.

Vyaṅkoji was a religious-minded person. With a view to encouraging learning he offered land grants to a number of Brahmin families. One Vīr Rāghavācārya well-versed in the *Vedas* was a highly respected and honoured person at the Candrapūr Court. A number of *sanads* extant, bear testimony of Vyaṅkojī's munificent land grants to learned Brahmins.

Gaṇobā Rudrapavār, a *Vaidya*, who had cured Govindsvāmī, a saintly person of Candrapūr of his stomach-ache within a moment, was given a village by Vyaṅkojī on the recommendation of the Brahmin Vīr Rāghavācārya[2].

Under the Bhosales, Candrapūr was a centre of commercial activities next to Nāgpūr. Candrapūr had a large number of weavers. Commodities coming from the east passed towards Nāgpūr and the Berār *via* Candrapūr.

The following persons in the service of Vyaṅkojī show the different offices in his administration:—

1. Sitārām Sadāśiv—*Dīvāṇ*.
2. Kṛṣṇarav Ānand—*Phaḍṇavīs*.
3. Bhikājī Bāpū—*Citṇavīs*.
4. Rāmcandra Wāgh—*Musahib*.
5. Candājī Bhosale—*Musahib*.

During the last three or four years of his life Vyaṅkojī was suffering from consumption which was then practically an incurable ailment. Tired of life he visited Amarkaṇṭak with his mother in 1807-8. In 1810 pious Vyaṅkojī went on a pilgrimage to Kaśī, there he was taken ill seriously and breathed his last in August 1811[3].

Appasaheb Bhosale.

Following Vyaṅkoji's death, his son Mudhoji popularly known as Āppāsāheb was put in charge of Candrapūr *subhā* by his uncle Raghujī II, the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* at Nāgpūr. However, for the administration of Candrapūr a regent was appointed as Āppāsāheb was just a boy of fifteen. In addition to Candrapūr, Chattisgaḍ was given to the *Senā-Dhurandhar* when Āppasāheb was born. Now when Āppāsāheb came to the *gādi* he too got the charge of Candrapūr and Chattisgaḍ[4].

Last Days of Raghuji II.

Raghujī II, the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* died on 22-3-1816 after a short but sudden illness. It was rumoured that Āppāsāheb got Raghujī killed by the use of witchcraft. Before death Raghujī had expressed his desire that Āppāsāheb should be in charge of the *subhās* of Candrapūr and Chattisgaḍ, while his own son

[1] *RCI*. pp. 209—12.
[2] *RCI*. pp. 219-20.
[3] *RCI*. pp. 224, 234.
[4] *KNBB*. pp. 181, 182.

Āppāsaheb Bhosale.

Parasojī *alias* Bāḷāsaheb, who was physically disabled and mentally deranged, should rule as the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* at Nāgpūr on the advice of the trusted and experienced persons. Raghujī was apprehensive that after his death, Āppāsāheb might usurp *Senā-Sāheb-Subhaship* for himself fully exploiting Parasojīs weakness. With a view to averting this danger Raghujī before his death suggested this arrangement to Gujābādādā Gujar, Yaśavantrāv Bhavānīśaṅkar, Nārāyaṇ Gopāḷ Paṇḍit, Gaṅgādhar Mādhav Citṇavis, Bāḷājī Jāmdār, Nārāyaṇ Kālikar, and others in the presence of Āppāsāheb. Unfortunately, Raghujī's fears came true shortly after his death.

After Raghuji's death the court at Nāgpūr was split into two rival parties. Parasojī *alias* Bāḷāsāheb's mother had died long back. Bakābāī, his step-mother and endeared queen of Raghujī II, was an influential and intriguing lady. She at once took possession of the new palace and there confined Parasojī, the half-witted prince under the protection of strong guards. She wanted to administer and control the affairs of the state on behalf of Parasojī as practically the regent. She secured the support of Dharmājī Bhosale, an illegitimate offspring of the royal family, who was in charge of the state treasury and jewellery of the Bhosales. Gujābādādā Gujar, Raghujī's sister's son joined her. Among others who for some time sided with Bakabaī were Naroba Citṇavīs and Nārayaṇ Yaśvant the *mutalik* of the Citṇavīs.

Āppāsāheb versus Bakābāi.

Āppāsāheb Bhosale, the only capable scion of the Bhosale House at this time, naturally merited the attention of many an influential noblemen. Among his chief supporters who backed him from first to last were Rāmcandra Wāgh and Mānbhaṭ Jośī. They were clever, brave and loyal to their master. Rāmcandra Wāgh in particular had the daring to execute the plots he hatched for his master unscrupulously. To oppose Bakābāī's designs Āppāsāheb pleaded that when he was the direct descendant of the royal Bhosale family, Dharmājī, a bastard should not be in charge of the treasury, jewellery and Parasojī, the half-witted prince[1]. Dharmājī, Siddik Alī Khān and Gujābādādā Gujar had armies under them. Āppāsāheb further persuaded the partisans of Bakābāī to allow him to carry on the administration as the regent as Parasojī was a half-mad person. He promised them that he would protect Parasojī who had succeeded Raghujī II as the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*. This had its effect in seducing Bakābāī's supporters. At the same time Āppāsāheb sought the help of Resident Jenkins by agreeing to enter into a subsidiary alliance with the British. Raghujī II, after the Treaty of Devgāṅv, had successfully avoided the formation of such an alliance as it meant the end of his independence. Indian States which had accepted the subsidiary alliance of the British had practically signed the death warrant of their political independence. Blinded by the ambition to become the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*, Āppāsāheb

[1] *KNI*. p. 395.

Appasaheb Bhosale.

sought the help of the Resident. This was the most suicidal way he chose to paralyse the efforts of Bakabāī and her supporters. But in the heat of family feud and personal ambition, he was not aware that the subsidiary alliance with the British was bound to recoil upon him like a boomerang depriving him of his freedom once for all. The cunning, opportunist Jenkins simply jumped at Appasāheb's suggestion to have British help in lieu of agreeing to enter into a subsidiary alliance with them. Secret discussions were held at the house of one Nagopant in which Āppāsaheb, Jenkins and others were present. It was decided to give Āppāsaheb a free hand to seize power. Āppasaheb called Dharmāji for a talk, chained him and put him behind prison bars. He took possession of the treasury and jewellery and the person of the king Parasojī[1]. Parasojī was ceremoniously carried in a palanquin to the *darbār*, Āppāsāheb moving a whisk over his head, himself walking on foot. Parasojī was seated on the throne, (14-4-1816). Resident Jenkins was present on this occasion. Parasojī was made to declare that he had appointed Āppāsāheb as the Regent to administer his kingdom. This masterly stroke silenced all opposition to Appasaheb. As the price for this mastery Āppasaheb entered into a subsidiary alliance with the British on 28-5-1816, and once for all sold the freedom of the House of the Bhosales at Nagpūr. Āppāsaheb got Dharmājī assassinated and practically secured all power for himself. All opposition to Āppāsāheb offered by Bakabāī and her supporters broke down.

Āppāsāheb accepts subsidiary alliance.

The act of bringing Nāgpūr under the subsidiary alliance was duly regarded by Hastings, the Governor General of India, as the greatest diplomatic triumph of the British[2].

The next obstacle in the way of Āppāsaheb's ambition to become the *Senā-Sāheb-Subha* was Parasojī, the King. On 1-2-1817, when Āppasāheb was at Candrapūr, Parasoji was found dead in bed. He appears not to have died a natural death. It was rumoured that Āppāsāheb got him killed during his absence from Nāgpūr in order that he should easily escape the guilt. Mr. Jenkins sent his man to the palace and stated that Parasojī's body indicated no signs of death by assassination[3]. Later, when Āppāsāheb tried to free himself from the shackles of the subsidiary alliance, the British charged him of Parasojī's murder.

Āppāsāheb sat on the *gadi* of Nāgpūr as the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* on 21-4-1817. From hereon Āppasaheb had to face a critical situation as he was pitted against the vastly superior power of the British.

Āppāsāheb's struggle for freedom and war with the British.

After occupying the *gādi*, Āppasaheb sent his agents to Pooṇā for securing formal sanction from the *Peśva* for *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship*. The Nāgpūr Resident too sent letters to the Pooṇā Resident requesting him to secure the robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhaship*

[1]*KNI*. pp. 395—97.

[2]*The Private Journals of the Marquess of Hastings*, pp. 254-55 (Panini Office Edition).

[3]*KNI*. p. 403.

Appasaheb Bhosale.

for Āppāsāheb. But in the meanwhile *Peśva* Bājīrāv II had attacked the British Residency at Pooṇā. A war had broken out between the Marathās and the English. Under the circumstance the Resident at Nagpūr, Mr. Jenkins, informed Āppāsāheb that he should not receive robes of *Senā-Saheb-Subhāship* ceremoniously in the *darbār* from the *Peśvā* and that he would not be present in the *darbar* for the ceremony. Āppāsāheb ignored this warning. On the day fixed for the *darbār* 24th November, 1817, Āppāsāheb received the robes and the title of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*, and mounted on an elephant announced the acceptance of the title and honour from his master, the *Peśvā* to the gathering. Knowing the difficult times which awaited him he further appealed to his noblemen that his honour and position lay in their hands. By accepting the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* title from Pooṇā, Āppāsāheb wanted to prove that his real master was the *Peśvā* and not the English though he had signed the subsidiary alliance with them[1]. But it was too late for Āppāsāheb to play the game with the British who were past-masters in all sorts of intrigues.

Āppasaheb had started making preparation for a war with the British in consultation with his trusted men Mānbhaṭ Jośī, Rāmcandra Wāgh, Nimbāḷkar and Nāro Sakhārām. Secretly he was in correspondence with Cittū, one of the Peṇḍhārī leaders and *Peśvā* Bajirav II. With a view to freeing himself from the bonds of the subsidiary alliance he had no alternative but to wage a war with the British.

Āppāsāheb's war with the British.

Following this decision a bloody battle was fought on the 26th December 1817, known as the Battle of Sītābardī in which the army of Āppāsāheb was finally defeated. Mānbhaṭ Jośī with his Arab and Marāṭhā soldiers gave commendable resistance. Gaṇpatrāv Subhedār, Rāmcandra Wāgh and Amrutrāv Kāḷū also offered good resistance. But in the absence of firm leadership from the master, Āppāsāheb, the day was lost. Āppāsāheb from first to last was vacillating in his attitude. When he found that he would be defeated he sent Nārāyaṇ Gopāḷ Paṇḍit and Nārāyaṇ Nagāre to the Resident for negotiations and when actually defeated, told the Resident shamelessly that his general Mānbhaṭ Jośī had started the war without his express orders. He was unworthy of trust. He behaved in a manner which was unbecoming of a king both in peace and war.

In the truce that followed, Āppāsāheb accepted all the conditions put to him by the English on 6th January, 1818. Āppāsāheb was allowed to remain at Nāgpūr under strict vigilance.

Dissatisfied with the lot of his own creation Āppāsāheb made a last attempt to regain his independence. He entered into secret correspondence with *Peśva* Bājīrāv II. Bājīrāv after his defeat escaped from Pooṇā and marched towards Wāśīm in Berār. From there he was to proceed to Candrapūr, a stronghold under

[1]*KNI*. pp. 407-8.

Āppāsaheb. It was rumoured that Āppāsaheb had ordered the keeper of Canda fort to recruit additional force for its defence. When Āppāsaheb's actions had aroused suspicion in the mind of the Nagpūr Resident, he received a letter from Elphinstone, the Resident at Pooṇa, revealing the secret correspondence between Āppāsaheb and Bajīrāv for joint action against the British. Upon this the Resident arrested Āppāsaheb and deported him to Prayāg along with Rāmcandra Wāgh and Nāgopant, under the escort of Captain Brown. On his way to Prayāg Āppāsāheb slipped from the custody. A prize was set for his arrest. In his great escape Āppāsaheb for some time took shelter with the Goṇds of Pacmaḍhī. He then went to the strong fortress of Aśirgaḍ and after wandering through the hilly states of the Himalayas, finally begged of the *Rāṇā* of Jodhpūr for asylum. True to the Rājput traditions the *Rāṇā* offered all protection to Āppāsāheb in spite of protestations from the British political agent at Jodhpūr. At Jodhpūr Āppāsāheb died in 1840 forgotten by his subjects and his near relations.

Thus ended the eventful career of Āppāsaheb who had combined in himself the *Senā-Dhurandharship* of Candrapūr and the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* of Nagpūr.

After his defeat at Pooṇa Bājīrāv II escaped towards Pāṇḍarkavaḍā in Berār. It was feared that he would seek shelter in the fort of Cānḍā. To prevent this Captain Scott and Adams started for Candrapūr and reached there on 9th May 1818. Canda fort had not been surrendered to the English though Āppāsāheb had agreed to do so in the final treaty with the British. Captains Scott and Adams sent their messenger into the fort asking the garrison to surrender. He was killed. Part of the British force took a vantage position on the Māna hill near the Zarpaṭ river. Firing continued from this position for four days without any effect on the wall. The keeper of the fort Gaṅgā Siṅg, Alī Khān in charge of the artillery, Bhujaṅgrāv and Vyaṅkaṭrāv the landlords of Aherī and Ādapallī, respectively, returned successfully the British fire. On the 17th May guns were used against the fort from a distance of 400 yards. They could not create a breach in the wall. At last heavy eighteen pounder guns were trained on the fort walls. They had their telling effect. They created breaches and Captain Scott entered the fort on 20th May. Bhujaṅgrāv and Vyaṅkaṭrāv left for Aherī. Gaṅga Siṅg the keeper of the fort, fought bravely till he fell on the battlefield. The Goṇd King Ram Śah ran away without offering resistance. The English took possession of the historic fort of Cānḍā and hoisted their Union Jack. Candrapūr was looted and the palace built by Vyaṅkojī was destroyed.

The fall of Candrapur fort.

Gaṅga Siṅg, who loyally resisted to the last, when seriously wounded took poison to escape dishonour and torture at the hands of the British. In appreciation of his bravery the British offered a pension to the successors of Gaṅga Siṅg. Raṇajit Siṅg, the son of Gaṅga Siṅg, constructed a tomb in honour of his father which stands today outside the Jaṭpurā gate at Candrapūr[1].

After Āppāsaheb's deposition there was no direct male descendant belonging to the scions of Raghujī I, the *founder* of the Bhosale House at Nagpūr. Nagpūr Kingdom could have been annexed to the British territory at this time. Correspondence passed between the Resident of Nāgpūr, Mr. Jenkins, and Warren Hastings, the Governor General of India, regarding the successor of Appāsaheb. It was decided that Durgābaī, the wife of the late King Parasojī, should adopt Bājība, the son of Banubaī, daughter of Raghujī II. Banubāī was given in marriage to Vyaṅkaṭrav Gujar. The adoption ceremony was gone through on 25-6-1818 and the next day, Bājībā styled as Raghujī III was seated on the *gādī*. Bakabaī, who had opposed Āppāsāheb's designs, was taken into confidence. She was to look after the palace affairs and Gujābādādā Gujar was to be the chief counsellor of the King in all political matters. Raghujī III was just a ten-year old boy. Actually everything was done in consultation with the Resident. The entire army was under him. He appointed English officers in all departments.

After the death of Vyaṅkojī Bhosale in 1811, the administration of Candrapūr region seems to have fallen into confusion. Following the treaty of Devgaṅv (1803) Candrapūr was subject to repeated disturbances leading to lawlessness everywhere. It is recorded that owing to continued lawlessness, the population in 1822 was half of that estimated in 1802. Nearly half of the total houses counted in 1802 were found to have been deserted in 1822.

During the period of the British protectorate from 1818 to 1830, efforts were made to restore the prosperity of the Candrapūr region. The Goṇd chiefs who had rebelled were brought to submission. The heavy assessments on land were reduced. Deserted villages were repopulated, ruined irrigation works were repaired and agriculture was encouraged. Education too was encouraged.

From 1818 to 1824, Captain Crawford was the superintendent of Candrapūr. He repaired the fort wall ruined during the war and constructed a prison. Cain Śah, the *Rājā* of Harai, who had helped Āppāsaheb in his great escape was arrested and imprisoned in this fort[2].

Under Crawford the Candrapūr revenue was Rs. 3,34,277. Crawford is said to have experienced great difficulties in restoring the land revenue of Candrapūr as the old records of the Goṇd and Maraṭhā periods were destroyed by one Liṅgopant *alias* Ābā Dikṣit. Liṅgopant who was just a clerk or *kārkoon* under the Bhosales had risen to the position of a *Sadar*

[1] *LSRLRSC*, pp. 73, 74.
[2] *KNI*. p. 452.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BHOSALES OF NAGPUR. (1751—1853)

Candrapūr 1818—1853.

Warāḍpāṇḍe when Crawford had taken charge of Candrapūr as the Superintendent. He was a very influential man and was consulted by Captain Crawford. He had amassed a large fortune and owned a number of villages. He is said to have destroyed old records yielding references inconvenient to him. However, he enjoyed the confidence of Captain Crawford.

Captain Crawford left Candrapūr on 31st October 1824 and was succeeded by Captain Pew who remained in office till 22nd April 1827. Thereafter Wilkinson became the Superintendent till the end of the British protectorate in 1830[1].

Maraṭha rule resumed.

In 1826 before Jenkins, the Resident, left Nāgpūr, he held a grand *darbar* at Nagpūr (1st December 1826) and entered into a fresh treaty with Raghuji III. It was signed by him and later (13th December 1826) ratified by the Governor General. Clause No. 9 of the treaty states that the English rule over the feudatories of Candrapūr, Devgaḍ, Lāñjī and Chattisgaḍ should continue. After deducting the expenditure of these areas, a sum of Rs. 17,00,000 should be paid annually to Raghuji by the English. The administration of Canda etc., would be handed over to the *Rājā* when he attains necessary competence for the same. All matters concerning the feudatories and the landlords of the area were to be settled by the *Rājā* in consultation with the English[2].

This clause indicates the importance attached to Candrapūr by the British in 1826.

Raghujī III.

In 1830 Candrapūr was made over to Raghuji III, though he had come of age much earlier. According to Jenkins Raghuji was of average intelligence. He was educated in the three R's according to the time-honoured custom and had preliminary knowledge of Persian which was the Court language under the long Muslim rule in India. He was ease-loving and was interested in petty things. Other Englishmen who had known Raghuji intimately speak highly of his intelligence. He was well-behaved and had good manners. All, however, agree that Raghuji was indolent[3]. Like many a prince of his day in India, he does not seem to have made any attempt to understand the impact of the Western Civilization on India and incidentally upon his own state. This was something beyond his grasp.

In 1831, Raghuji got a son. On this happy occasion the Resident gave Raghujī Rs. 5,500 as present. But unfortunately the boy died within six months of his birth[4].

Towards the end of his career Raghuji grew despondent and neglected administration.

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[1] *LSRLRSC*. pp. 126, 127.

[2] *KNI*. pp. 486-87.

[3] *KNI*. p. 497. Raghuji took great interest in wrestling, races, kite flying, music and dance.

[4] *KNI*. p. 390.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BHOSALES OF NAGPUR. (1751—1853)

Raghujī III.

So far as the administration of Candrapūr was concerned the broad and liberal policy of the British protectorate gave way to measures that proved to be short-sighted and grasping in the last years of Raghuji's reign. Land tax became burdensome to those who took genuine interest in cultivation while the influential got their land taxed lightly. Old holders of the land were ejected and villages yielding good revenue were bestowed upon favourites. This naturally gave rise to absentee land owners who leased the richest estates with a view to extracting as much income as they could without caring either for the interest of the country or the people. This was all in contrast to the wise policy pursued by the Gond Kings. Plundering revived in spite of the posting of military parties in the district. As late as 1852 Government treasure escort was attacked and looted by the Gonds on the Mul road, just sixteen miles from Candrapūr, the district capital.

End of Maraṭha Rule.

In 1853, Raghuji died heirless and the Nāgpūr province together with Canda was declared annexed to the British Empire. The administration of Candrapūr was entrusted to Mr. R. S. Ellis of the Madras Civil Service as its first Commissioner. He assumed charge on 18th December 1854.

The Bhosale rule over Cāndā of just over a hundred years (1751–1853) came to an end.

Maraṭha Administration.

The Marāṭhās conquered Candrapūr in 1751, and soon extended their administration over the whole territory. They retained the fiscal machinery and procedure of the Gonds. However, in practice, their method proved to be exacting. They increased the demand on the village and what was taxable was made liable to assessment. The *Paṭels* who were Gonds were replaced by their favourites or by those who agreed to raise larger sums than in the previous regime. At the same time the Marāṭhas have to be credited for observing the fundamental principles, namely the ryot should not be asked to pay more than the assessment fixed by the state, and the *Paṭel's* duty was to look to his free land, his percentage on collections, his dues and increased cultivation for remuneration. Even during the British protectorate (1818—1830) and the second Marāṭhā administration (1830—53) the principle strictly followed was that the Paṭel was not to increase the assessment fixed by Government, and was to bring the waste and fallow lands under the plough.

While settling the assessment the Marāṭhās did not rely upon the *Deśmukhs*, *Deśpaṇḍes* and the *Sir Mukāddams*, probably because of their being in office since Gonḍī times. As a check upon these hereditary officials the village papers were forwarded by the *Dīvaṇ* to the *Subhedār* or the head executive officer at Candrapūr. This officer after the rains sent an examiner called *Tanakhīvālā* with the papers to each village. The *Tanakhīvālā* going from village to village called the cultivators before him questioning them one by one as to the actual amount they had paid in the previous year. He then visited the cultivated area

Maratha Administration.

and noted if any field had been left out or could be assessed at a higher rate, at the same time carefully inspecting all the land in the possession of the *Paṭel* and his relatives. The original papers together with the *Tanakhwāla's* notes were then submitted to the *Subhedār* who thereupon proceeded to fix the assessment for the ensuing year, sometimes in consultation with the *paraganā* officials but often without their advice. When a village had fallen waste it was settled for a term of five years on what was called *istawoa* or *sawāī*. In the *istawoa* the demand for the first year was low and then increased at a fixed ratio say five rupees per year. In the *sawai* the rate of increase was one-fourth per year. In both the systems, after the expiry of the term, assessment was brought to the normal rate as under the *Paṭel's jurisdiction*.

Heavy *burguns* or extraordinary imposts were levied yearly on the *paraganās* distributed over the villages. These sources of emolument were utilised by all officials from the *Diwān* to *Paṭel*, as each exacted from his subordinates something more than what he had to pay.

After the death of Janoji, the *Senā-Saheb-Subha*, Candrapūr was subject to frequent disturbances. In 1803 the Peṇḍharīs appeared and during the next fifteen years plundered the country creating consternation among the peasantry. A severe famine swept the country in 1804 when the rich sold their jewels to supply food to the poor. During Āppasaheb's hostility with the British, 1817-1818, the city of Candrapūr was stormed, sacked and the cattle driven away. The net result was the impoverishment of the country.

Candrapūr as already observed was the capital of Mudhojī, Vyaṅkojī *alias* Nanāsāheb and Āppasaheb. Their rule was harsh and they dismissed a good number of Goṇḍ *Paṭels* appointing in their place their favourites and relations. However, absentee farmers were not so common at this time as in the second Marāṭhā period. The net result was that a good area of land fell out of cultivation. Details regarding the revenue collections of this period are not available as the account papers together with the old Goṇḍ records were destroyed by Liṅgopant Dikṣit. But according to the Resident Sir Richard Jenkins, the collections from the *Khalsa* portion during the ten years preceding the British protectorate averaged Rs. 3,34,227 per annum.

British Protectorate.

During the British protectorate (1818–1830) the administration of Candrapūr along with the Nagpūr territories was conducted by the Resident acting in the name of the *Raja* Raghujī III. He was assisted for the Candrapūr *subha* by Captain G. N. Crawford. He at once took stern action against the Goṇḍs who were up in arms against the new British administration. He put down rebellion and plundering by the anti-British elements.

As regards the land revenue policy he maintained the ancient system and did away with those Maraṭhā practices which were coercive and had proved abusive to their power. The period of British protectorate was reckoned as one of peace and improvement. The *burguns* and petty imposts which were entered in the accounts as land revenue were abolished. Tanks were repaired and deserted villages repeopled.

British Protectorate.

The allowance of the *Paṭels* ranged from 13 to 15 per cent of the total village assessment. The system adopted by Captain Crawford was that of *istawoa* for assessment. Among the people it was known as the *tahoot bandobast*, *tahoot* meaning lease. The idea was that the sum represented what the *Paṭel* could afford to pay from the annual increase to be expected by the improvement of the village. The Resident recorded that Captain Crawford's last or five years' settlement resulted in the decrease of the revenue. However, on the whole the collections showed a rise. During the superintendentship of Crawford, Liṅgopant Dikṣit popularly known as Ābā Sāheb was appointed *Sadar Warādpaṇḍe*. He wielded great influence with the Resident. It was he who destroyed the records which ran counter to his designs. He died in 1824.

Captain Crawford dismissed *Pāṇḍes* and made the *Paṭels* responsible for submitting the village papers. The system introduced during the period of the protectorate was not free from defects. But the much needed order and peace which he brought was gratefully remembered by the people.

Second Maratha Administration.

In 1830, Nāgpūr territories were entrusted to Raghujī III and the Candrapūr administration was managed from Nāgpūr through a resident executive officer styled *Subhedār* or *Subhā*. His establishment consisted of the following officers:—

1. *Ciṭṇavīs.*
2. *Roznamcānavis.*
3. *Phaḍṇavis.*
4. *Sadar Warādpāṇḍe.*
5. *Khajāñcī.*
6. *Ubhait.*
7. *Diwāṇī Śirastedār.*
8. *Faujdari Śirastedar.*
9. *Moharīr.*

The bodies of horse and foot police were under a superior officer.

Ciṭṇavīs.—*Ciṭṇavīs* read all reports, petitions, etc., to the *Subhedār*. He endorsed the *Subhedār's* orders thereon.

Roznāmcānavīs. The *Roznāmcānavīs* worked under the *Ciṭṇavis* and kept a regular diary of all that happened in the Court and forwarded a copy of the same daily to the *Rājā* at Nāgpūr.

Phaḍṇavīs and Sadar Warāḍpaṇḍe.—The *Phaḍṇavīs* was the head of the revenue department and no payment could be made from the *Sadar* Treasury without an order signed by him. The *Sadar Warāḍpaṇḍe* was subordinate to him in charge of the village papers and the *Khajāñcī* or Treasurer.

Ubhait.—The *Ubhait* always attended upon the *Subhedar* and was in charge of the orderly-*Caparaśis*. He noted everything that was done by the *Subhedar* and forwarded a daily report of the same to the *Sadar Ubhait* at Nāgpūr.

Dīvaṇī Śirastedar, Faujadarī Śirastedar, and Moharīr.—The *Dīvaṇī Śirastedar* was the head of the Civil Judicial Department, and the *Faujadarī Śirastedār* that of the Criminal. The *Moharīs* were clerks. All these officials were appointed by the *Rājā* generally on the recommendation of the heads of their respective departments at Nāgpūr. The *Subhedar* had no authority to punish them. Each had a good deal of power. The *Subhedār* knowing their influence over the *Rajā* through their patrons was afraid of incurring their displeasure.

To a certain extent these officials served as a sort of check and counter check upon each other.

Paraganā Officials.—The designation of the *paraganā* officer was changed from *Divaṇ* to *Kamavīsdār*. The services of the *Deśmukh, Deśpaṇḍe* and the *Sir Mukāddam* which had become nominal for the last many years were dispensed with and a *Phaḍṇavīs* was appointed to supervise the revenue work. The official styled as *Karkūn* came to be designated *Peśkar*. Thus the newly modelled establishment of a *paraganā* had—

1. *Kamavisdār.*
2. *Phaḍṇavīs.*
3. *Warāḍpāṇḍe.*
4. *Peśkār.*
5. *Potdār.*
6. *Nāj Pāṇḍe.*

All these officers were appointed by the *Rajā* and as a rule were deputed from Nagpūr.

According to the report of Major Lucie Smith this system gave rise to nepotism. Persons having influence at Nāgpūr filled up posts throughout the district. The *Paṭels* were ousted. If they left their posts in good grace they were often rewarded with a rent-free land, but if they opposed, they were required to pay for their villages sums which they could not yield. *Paṭels* who had spent generations in the village were dismayed and desperately agreed to pay more but in fact could not raise more money from the villages and in the end the official bidder stepped in. Thus a *Paṭel* who was rooted in the soil for generations, had

founded a village, had constructed a tank for its prosperity was ruthlessly ejected to make room for a Nagpūr or Candrapūr official.

The officials coming from Nāgpūr or Candrapūr being absentees could not manage the village as the resident *Paṭel* could. In consequence the receipts fell and an influential holder of the village pressed for the reduction if *jamā* (collection) which was rarely refused. To make good this loss demands on the village were increased. But when the village could not yield more, threat, fetters and imprisonment were used upon the peasantry. The *Paṭel* under the circumstances was forced to join the officials and help them in squeezing the village. He offered them bribes and completely neglected the village which had maintained him for generations. Thus the hen that laid the golden egg was killed. A chain of corrupt officials from top to bottom flourished. The *Paṭel* to maintain his position enforced exactions. When this was brought to the notice of the *Rājā* he visited Candrapūr and learned how his officials were abusing power. On the first occasion he fined the *Subhedār* Kṛṣṇarav Ānand and his accomplices Rs. 1,19,072 and on the second occasion he dismissed the Nāgpūr *Citṇavīs*, his relatives and other officials. But it was too late for the *Rājā* to rectify the wrong done.

At this time one Śiubāī Jośīṇ who came forward as the defender of the people merits our attention. Widowed at an early age she took upon herself the task of giving vent to the public feelings, unable to bear the wrongs that were being done by the officials. She was known for her honesty and character. She fearlessly approached the *Rāja* and got wrongs redressed in many cases. The Nagpūr officials feared her and later saw that the *Rāja* would not meet her. But her efforts to help the public in getting their wrongs redressed are noteworthy. Her efforts fell short as hers was a lone voice against the corrupt system.

The land revenue speedily fell. Irreparable wrong was done to many and the people were left demoralised towards the end of the career of Raghujī III.[1]

CHANDA UNDER THE BRITISH. (1854—1947)

With the death of Bhosale Raghujī III in 1853, Candrapūr passed under the British rule. In December 1854, Mr. R. S. Ellis of the Madras Civil Service took charge of Candrapūr as its first administrator. The British ushered in the modern age in Candrapūr as in the rest of India.

In the first phase of the British rule, 1854—1900, Candrapūr experienced the impact of the Western Civilization introduced by the British. Educational institutions, Local Self-Government, Public Works Department and the like of the British pattern came to be established in Candrapūr. The impersonal Government that was introduced was altogether new to the people.

[1] *LSRLRSC.* pp. 123—131.

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According to the report of Major Lucie Smith this system gave rise to nepotism. Persons having influence at Nāgpūr filled up posts throughout the district. The *Paṭels* were ousted. If they left their posts in good grace they were often rewarded with a rent-free land, but if they opposed, they were required to pay for their villages sums which they could not yield. *Paṭels* who had spent generations in the village were dismayed and desperately agreed to pay more but in fact could not raise more money from the villages and in the end the official bidder stepped in. Thus a *Paṭel* who was rooted in the soil for generations, had

founded a village, had constructed a tank for its prosperity was ruthlessly ejected to make room for a Nagpūr or Candrapūr official.

The officials coming from Nāgpūr or Candrapūr being absentees could not manage the village as the resident *Paṭel* could. In consequence the receipts fell and an influential holder of the village pressed for the reduction if *jamā* (collection) which was rarely refused. To make good this loss demands on the village were increased. But when the village could not yield more, threat, fetters and imprisonment were used upon the peasantry. The *Paṭel* under the circumstances was forced to join the officials and help them in squeezing the village. He offered them bribes and completely neglected the village which had maintained him for generations. Thus the hen that laid the golden egg was killed. A chain of corrupt officials from top to bottom flourished. The *Paṭel* to maintain his position enforced exactions. When this was brought to the notice of the *Rājā* he visited Candrapūr and learned how his officials were abusing power. On the first occasion he fined the *Subhedār* Kṛṣṇarāv Ānand and his accomplices Rs. 1,19,072 and on the second occasion he dismissed the Nāgpūr *Cituavis*, his relatives and other officials. But it was too late for the *Rajā* to rectify the wrong done.

At this time one Śiubaī Jośīn who came forward as the defender of the people merits our attention. Widowed at an early age she took upon herself the task of giving vent to the public feelings, unable to bear the wrongs that were being done by the officials. She was known for her honesty and character. She fearlessly approached the *Raja* and got wrongs redressed in many cases. The Nagpūr officials feared her and later saw that the *Rājā* would not meet her. But her efforts to help the public in getting their wrongs redressed are noteworthy. Her efforts fell short as hers was a lone voice against the corrupt system.

The land revenue speedily fell. Irreparable wrong was done to many and the people were left demoralised towards the end of the career of Raghujī III.[1]

CHANDA UNDER THE BRITISH. (1854—1947)

With the death of Bhosale Raghuji III in 1853, Candrapūr passed under the British rule. In December 1854, Mr. R. S. Ellis of the Madras Civil Service took charge of Candrapūr as its first administrator. The British ushered in the modern age in Candrapūr as in the rest of India.

In the first phase of the British rule, 1854—1900, Candrapūr experienced the impact of the Western Civilization introduced by the British. Educational institutions, Local Self-Government, Public Works Department and the like of the British pattern came to be established in Candrapūr. The impersonal Government that was introduced was altogether new to the people,

[1] *LSRLRSC*, pp. 123—131.

They, for the first time breathed the free air of the rule of law, unknown either under the Goṇds or the Muslims or the Maraṭhas.

During the second phase, 1900–20, Chandrapūr witnessed the rise of nationalist movement. Candrapūr contributed its mite to the nationalist movement in its own way inspired by the leadership of Lokamanya Tilak.

After the death of Lokamanya Tilak, Candrapūr like the rest of India came under the influence of the Indian National Congress led by Gandhiji. During the Gandhian era, the people of Candrapūr did not lag behind in their freedom struggle against the British rule. The last phase in the Candrapūr history of the British period ends with the attainment of independence in 1947.

The Rising of 1857.

Within three years of their assuming charge of Candrapūr the British had to face in the area the repercussions of The War of Independence of 1857. A large part of Candrapūr District was covered with thick forest populated mainly by the Goṇds and the Marias. Several *Zamindars* were related to the Raj Goṇd families of Candrapūr. Many Raj Goṇds had helped Āppasaheb Bhosale in his struggle with the British. They were not yet fully reconciled to the British rule which had commenced in 1854. Inspired by the news of the risings of the *Zamindars* of the neighbouring areas of Raipūr and Gaḍha-Maṇḍla, the *Zamindār* of Molampallī, Baburav Puleśvarbāpū and Vyaṅkaṭrāv Rājeśvarrāv Rāj Goṇḍ, the *Zamindar* of Ādapallī and Ghoṭ revolted against the British. Both these *Zamindars* considered the general rising of 1857 as the opportune occasion to regain their independence which they had lost since the subjugation of Candrapūr first by the Marāṭhas and later by the British. The *Zamindar* of Molampallī was a young man of twenty-five. He gathered a considerable force of the Goṇds and Rohilās and brought the Rājgaḍ *Paraganа* under his sway. He faced bravely the British force sent against him at Nandgāṅv on 13th March 1858. He was shortly joined by Vyaṅkaṭrāv Rājeśvar, the *Zamindār* of Ādāpallī and Ghoṭ. Captain W. H. Crichton, the Deputy Commissioner, was sent against the two *Zamindārs*. Two indecisive battles were fought at Sāganpūr and Bāmanpeṭh in April 1858. Baburav the *Zamindar* of Molampallī attacked the English Camp at Chuchgondi on the Prāṇahitā in the Aherī *Zamindari* on 29th April 1858 and looted it. The telegraph operators Messers. Gartland and Hall were killed there. The third operator Mr. Peter escaped into the Aherī forest and joined the Camp of Captain Crichton. Captain Crichton finding it difficult to meet the activities of the two *Zamindars*, secretly sent Mr. Peter to Lakṣmibaī, the *Zamindariṇ* of Aherī to secure her help. Lakṣmībaī readily offered her help. Bāburāv the *Zamindār* of Molampallī was captured by the forces of the lady at Bhopalpatnam. While being taken to Aherī he escaped from the custody. In September he was recaptured, brought to Candrapūr and hanged to death in the jail.

The Rising of 1857.

In the meanwhile Captain Shakespeare was sent from Nagpūr to Aherī with a contingent. He raided Ādapallī and Ghoṭ but was not able to find Vyaṅkaṭrav, the second leader of the rebels. The property of his *Dīvāṇ* Gaṅgadhar Kawalkar was confiscated on the suspicion that he had helped his master.

Vyaṅkaṭrav, after his rout, escaped for a few days to Jaṅgam-Kurūl in the hills of Ghoṭ *taluka*. He next went to Pratappūr in Raipūr District and then sought asylum in Bastar. There he tried to collect a force against the British but was unfortunately captured by the *Raja* of Bastar and handed over to the British. He was tried at Candrapūr and sentenced to transportation for life due to the successful mediation of his mother Nāgābāī, in 1860.

Lakṣmībāī of Aherī was splendidly rewarded for her timely help. The *Zamindārī* of Ādāpallī and Ghoṭ consisting of 67 villages was made over to her.

The rising in Chandrapūr was spontaneous. It practically appeared toward the end of the Great Revolt. Though unsuccessful it stands out as a brilliant attempt of the Rāj Goṇd *Zamindārs* to regain their freedom. Many folk tales and songs are current in the Candrapūr area extolling the heroic exploits of the two Goṇd leaders. Bāburāv, the *Zamindār* of Molampallī, according to one story had consumed *taḍavā*, and as a result of its extraordinary powers, when hanged, managed to break the noose four times. He was finally immersed in quick lime and killed.

The Candrapūr *Zamindars* thus, partly at least, have given a creditable account of themselves in the great Revolt or the War of Independence when the people of Nagpūr were more or less quiet[1].

Captain Crichton, for the services rendered by him was created a Companion of the Bath and Mr. Peter, the telegraph operator received thanks from Her Majesty the Queen.

After 1857.

When the great wave of the Revolt passed away all was quiet in the Candrapūr area. In November 1861 the Nāgpūr Province and the Sāgar and Narmadā territories were formed into the Government of the Central Provinces. Candrapūr came to be included in the Nagpūr Division[2]. A systematic survey of the land of Candrapūr was undertaken with a view to finalising the revenue settlement when Candrapūr became a British territory in 1854. The work was actually started by Messrs. Price and MacGeorge and continued in 1862-63 by Mr. Rivett-Carnac and C. Bernard, the Commissioner. The major part of the work was completed by Major Lucie Smith, the settlement officer of Candrapūr during a period of three years ending in 1869[3].

[1] *LSRLRSC*. pp. 75, 76; and *The History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh* 1956, pp. 85–87.

[2] *LSRLRSC*. p. 76.

[3] *LSRLRSC*. p. 1.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BRITISH. (1854—1947) After 1857.

In preparing the Settlement Report a large number of Marāṭhī-speaking Brahmins had to be employed as other communities were illiterate and incapable of rendering any service as they had been found to be more active than the Brahmins. All records were prepared in Marāṭhī as it was the court language of Candrapūr under the Marāṭhas[1].

During the Goṇd and the Maraṭha periods many Brahmins had migrated to Candrapūr. They imparted instructions in the traditional learning mostly to the boys of the Brahmins.

In the early part of the British rule the literary works compiled by one Nīlkaṇṭhrāv Dhume merit our attention. He wrote extensively on various subjects like history, geography, medicine, prosody and *bhakti* or devotion.

The *History of Waṇī* was written by the same author between 1865 and 1893. It is a very useful source for the history of Candrapūr. According to the author he prepared the said history after consulting *bakhars* and also the history of the Bhosales. The genealogy of the Goṇd Kings given in the early pages of this chapter has been originally taken from the *History of Waṇī*.

Kṛṣṇa Līlāmṛta Kathasara is yet another historical work encompassing the whole period from the age of Śri Kṛṣṇa to Queen Victoria, by Nīlkaṇṭhrāv Dhume. This was the time-honoured way of writing history. It may be semi-epic and semi-historical. However, what is significant is the high sense of history which the author has displayed in this work. It was published in 1895.

Rasarāja a work on medicine by the same author was taken away by Vaidya Dhundiraj Vinod of Baroda for publication. But nothing is known about it thereafter.

Nilkaṇṭhrāv also wrote a commentary on *Siddhanta Śiromani-prakāśa* originally written by one Rāmcandra Subbājī of Candrapūr.

Śrinivās *alias* Āppāji Maharāj Dhume, the son of Nīlkaṇṭhrāv was a celebrity in Candrapūr-Nāgpūr region in the last quarter of the nineteenth century and up to 1931 of this century. He was a greater admirer of Lokamanya Tilak. Though he was well-versed in the traditional lore, his views were very progressive[2]. At this time a number of Brahmins of Candrapūr-Nāgpūr area had been initiated into a cult called the *Kalki panth*. In the rites of this cult its followers were required to prepare a cow from wheat-flour, immerse it into *gud* or *jaggery* liquid and then consume it. Many Brahmins who embraced this cult used to observe this part of the rite secretly as it formally involved the flour-cow slaughter and its consumption. When it was known to the public the *Kalki* Brahmins were ostracised by the rest of

[1] *LSRLRSC*. p. 136.
[2] *RCI*. pp. 241—47.

the Brahmins. To escape the hardships of ostracism the *Kalki* Brahmins appealed that they be readmitted into Brahminhood after undergoing necessary *prayaścitta* ceremony. Realizing the trend of changing times and the need to protect Hinduism, Āppāji Maharaj Dhume in a public meeting resolved that the devotees of the *Kalki* sect be readmitted into their original *dharma* after due *śuddhi* ceremony.

Around 1845, this cult was founded by a cunning Muslim of Khandeś with a view to converting Hindus to Islam by trickery. Āppāji Maharaj has to be given the credit of meeting the cult successfully[1].

In 1867, Local Self-Government was introduced in Candrapūr by establishing a Municipality. From 1880 to 1906 Raosaheb Chandiprasad Patil was the President of the Municipality.

English educational institutions and a public library were founded before the end of the century. Brahmins, being the only literate class, were first to enter the newly founded schools and to enjoy lucrative services in Government.

Nationalist Movement.

After the establishment of the Indian National Congress in 1885, Candrapūr people responded well to national movement in the country. In the Calcutta Session of the Indian National Congress, 1906, the following gentlemen from Candrapūr were present: Balvantrao Deshmukh, Dajishastri Chandekar, Nilkanthrao Sadaphal and Daji Ganesh Devaikar. Inspired by the proclamation of Lokamanya Tilak the Candrapūr people actively followed his fourfold programme of *Svarājya, Svadeśi*, boycott and national education. Nationalism was kept alive and propagated through *Svadeśi* shops, singing of *Vande Mātaram*, celebrations of festivals like Gaṇeś *Caturthī*, *Chatrapati* Śivaji Birth Day and gymnasiums.

Tilak's influence.

The nationalist movement infiltrated down to the masses to a great extent through the elites of Candrapūr.

In 1907, Madhavrao Aney popularly known as Bapuji stepped into the public movement of Candrapūr and continued to lead the people first as a staunch follower of Tilak and later of Mahatma Gandhi. Till his death Bapuji proudly used to call himself a Tilakite.

The late Dadasaheb Khaparde of Amravati was highly respected in the Candrapūr area as a leader in the Nationalist movement. Among others who were held in high regard may be mentioned Dr. Munje, Vir Vamanrao Joshi, and Ogale.

In 1913, Candrapūr like the rest of India had to face a critical situation as a result of the repressive measures adopted by the British Government to crush the nationalist movement. In order

[1] *KNI*. pp. 500—2.

to keep the freedom movement alive Candrapūr District Association was founded in 1913. Among its founders and organizers were Balvantrao Deshmukh, Pandit Balgovind, Atmaram Mukund Mahajan of Brahmapurī and Vishnupant Kane of Waroda.

Candrapūr District Association.

The Candrapūr District Association, undertook varied programmes through which the leaders actively associated themselves with people of all classes and strata. Their programme consisted of trying to get redressed through appeals, wrongs done by Government officials in all administrative spheres. For instance the Association sent appeals from the peasants for remission and *takāvi* in the event of famines or bad harvest years; it demanded re-estimation of the crops when it was suspected that the officials had enhanced it for Government benefit; very often the Association appointed its own enquiry committee which toured the country and collected data regarding a problem that was on the anvil, and sent its report to Government. The Association collected complaints from the merchant community and lodged them with the Government.

Thus, on the one hand the Association kept alive the freedom movement by peaceful and legal means, by being in touch with the middle class, the merchants and the peasants, and on the other hand it brought home to the alien Government that the people were not satisfied with their rule.

The Government harassed by the activities of the Association, prosecuted its active workers Mahajan and Kane in the lower Court, under Defence of India Act. Kane was sentenced but an appeal was filed in the higher Court and Dr. Harising Gaur was invited to plead his case. The higher Court declared Kane not guilty. All these were typical Tilakite tactics adopted by the Association to harass the Government. The activities of the Association prove that the middle class intellectual leadership associated itself also with the masses and played a very important role in the nationalist movement in the pre-Gandhian period. It is wrong to brand it as the movement of a particular class or of the *bourgeoisie*.

Tilak's visit to Candrapūr.

On 16th February 1918, Lokamanya Tilak visited Candrapūr. The people of Candrapūr gave a grand welcome to their great leader. He was carried in a grand procession seated in a victoria from the railway station to the residence of Babasaheb Deśmukh. Every building was decorated with buntings, flags and auspicious *toraṇās*. People from places far and near had thronged into the streets of Candrapūr to steal a look at the Lokamanya. In his public speech at night the Lokamanya among other things praised the Candrapūr people for their unity. He was presented a purse of Rs. 5,000. The ground where Tilak gave his speech to the vast gathering unprecedented in the history of Candrapūr till then, was named after him in his memory.

Tilak's visit to Candrapūr.

On the occasion of Tilak's visit to Candrapūr, his right-hand man Krishnaji Prabhakar Khadilkar founded the District Political Congress *Jilha Rajakiya Pariṣad*. A number of other notable leaders of Maharaṣtra accompanied Ṭilak to Candrapūr.

After the Belgaum Congress of 1916, Ṭilak formed the *Svarajya Saṅgh*. Its executive had Kelkar, Aney, Munje, Khaparde, Gangadharrao Deshpande and Balvantrao Deshmukh. The last was the leader of Candrapūr. He rendered notable service during and after the Ṭilak period.

Saints (1854—1920).

One Nikalasbuvā from Gujarat appeared in Candrapūr in 1875. He lived like a *faqir* and was residing in the Māruti temple of Bābupeṭh Many stories of his miracles are current in Candrapūr. On the authority of the famous saint of Vidarbha Gulābrāv Mahārāj one could say that Nikalasbuvā was a man of spiritual attainments. He died in 1895. Among his disciples were the late Appasaheb Būṭi, Jagannāth Koṭhikar, Kṛṣṇājī Mahipat and Sītārām Sāmbśiv of Nāgpūr.

Hayagriva Svāmī, a Telaṅgi Brahman by birth and Dharmabhat Buvā were highly respected saints of Candrapūr in the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

Gopāldas, Gulabdas, Sundardas and Iśvarpurī Gosāvī were the saints of the *Udasi* Sect.

Pāpamiyā and Bhobadtulla Śah were the Muslim saints having a large number of devotees from among the common people. Gulābrāv Mahāraj was full of praise for these saints. It is difficult to say authoritatively anything regarding the mystical attainments of these saints.

The Gandhian Era (1920—1947).

Around 1911, Balvantrao Deshmukh was elected President of the District Congress Committee and Dr. Munje as the Secretary.

In 1922 Candrapūr Municipal elections were fought on party basis. One of the parties was led by Pandit Balgovind and the other by the pleaders. Perhaps for the first time one Sonbaji Hud from the Kunbi community was elected to the Municipality. Among other followers of the Pandit party were Seth Khushalchandji, Krishnarao Jogi, Jagadishrao Salve, Marotrao Kannamwar and Babaji Patil Dixit.

The *Svarajya* Party founded by Motilal Nehru elected Baburao Deshmukh from the Candrapūr area. He was offered Presidentship of the Council but refused it as the programme of the *Svarājya* Party was to obstruct the working of the Council. S. B. Tambe was selected for Presidentship. He was made the Home Minister and later became the Governor of Madhya Pradesh.

In 1926, elections were held for the central and provincial Assemblies. Dr. Munje of the *Pratisahakārvādī* Party was opposed by *Narakesari* Barrister Abhyankar of the Congress.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BRITISH. (1854—1947)

The Gandhian Era (1920—1947)

Dr. Munje was elected by a clear majority mainly because of the work of Balvantrao Deshmukh. At this time in Candrapūr both the Congress party and the *Rāṣṭriya Pakṣa* were more or less equally powerful.

In the non-co-operation and *satyāgraha* movement of 1930-31 a number of persons courted arrest by breaking jungle laws, picketing toddy shops, manufacturing salt and the like. The *satyāgrahīs* included a number of women, and belonged to all classes and communities. After the Gandhi-Irvin Pact all the *satyāgrahis* were released.

In 1931 the New English School and in 1932 the New Model High School were established. In 1955 the New Model High School was converted into the Lokmanya Tilak Vidyālaya at the hands of Kakasaheb Gadgil of the Central Ministry.

In 1934, Gandhiji visited Candrapūr in his campaign of collecting funds for the uplift of the Harijans. He was given a grand welcome on the Tilak ground by a mammoth gathering. He spoke on the uplift of the Harijans and was presented a purse of Rs. 2,100. In 1939 the City High School was founded by Bhaurao Savalikar and D. B. Deo.

Thus up to 1940 Candrapūr was making rapid progress in education, keeping abreast of the other provinces in the national movement.

Individual Satyāgraha of 1940-41.

During the period of the Second World War, Vinoba was sent as the first soldier on the front of the individual *satyāgraha*, by Gandhiji. Seth Khushalchandji of Candrapūr was the first *satyāgrahī* on this front. He was followed by Ramchandrarao Kathade. Marotrao Kannamwar offered *satyāgraha* at Aramorī and was sentenced for two years. A number of volunteers offered *satyāgraha* from different parts of Candrapūr.

Quit India Movement.

In the All-India Congress Committee meeting of 8th August 1942, the famous Quit-India resolution was passed. It had its repercussions soon in Candrapūr. Seth Khushalchandji of Candrapūr on his way to home-town was arrested. Candrapūr like the rest of India was prepared to wage a war on the British by trying to follow the Gandhian way as far as it could. All those who joined the morning procession were arrested and sent behind the prison bars. One Janardanpant Upagannavar was severely beaten by the police. Within a month he succumbed to the wounds in the Jabalpūr jail.

Cimūr Case.

After the Quit-India movement in all parts of India there was a regular war between the unarmed people and the Government. On 16th August 1942, in the morning young boys of the *Rāṣṭrīya Dal* took out a procession; Uddhavrao Korekar and eight other volunteers were arrested. An order was issued prohibiting processions. Ignoring the order a procession was again taken out.

CHAPTER 2. History. CHANDA UNDER THE BRITISH. (1854—1947)

Cimūr case.

In the lathi charge on the processionists one boy Balaji Raipurkar was badly beaten and died the same day. To inspect the situation Divisional Officer Dungaji with his party came to Cimūr. By this time the mob which had become furious surrounded Dungaji. Suspecting danger he ordered firing in which four people died. The mob which had gone uncontrollable killed the circle inspector Jarasandha and a constable Kantaprasad.

The next day, 17th August 1942, a military contingent appeared at Cimūr. It recklessly beat the people in vengeful mood and looted the property of many residents. About 300 to 400 people were brought to Candrapūr for trial. Balvantrao Deshmukh, Madhavrao Chendke, Siras and Kovale pleaded on behalf of the accused. Funds were collected to help the afflicted. Kanhayalal Munshi had come to Cimūr on behalf of the Congress.

The case went on for a long time and about 200 people were sentenced with different terms of imprisonment. Seven were sentenced to death and about 30 to 35 sent on life imprisonment.

The Cimūr episode thus forms a memorable event in the history of the freedom struggle.

PRELUDE TO INDEPENDENCE.

Within a few years after the passing away of Lokamanya Tilak, Gandhiji appeared on the political horizon of India as a leader of the masses. The new leadership of Candrapūr looked upon Gandhiji as their saviour. His non-orthodoxy and simplicity had tremendous appeal for the masses.

In 1942, the session of the *Hindu Mahāsabhā* was held at Candrapūr under the presidentship of Sir Gokulchand Narang. The session was opened by Dr. Munje, a strong supporter and leader of the *Sabhā* from the Vidarbha area. The Yuvak Pariṣad too had its session at Candrapūr when Annasaheb Bhopatkar of Poonā presided. After this the position and hold of the *Hindu Mahāsabhā* has continuously dwindled in Candrapūr.

Candrapūr has also been a strong centre of the *Rāṣṭrīya Svayamsevak Sangha*. In the years following the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi the *Sangha* was legally banned. With a view to forcing the Government to lift the ban as it was unjust, the *Sangha* volunteers offered *satyāgraha* throughout India. About 250 volunteers from Cāndā district courted arrest. Balvantrao Deshmukh was imprisoned for about 41 days because of his association with the R.S.S.

Among other parties, *Samājvādī Pakṣa* was founded in Candrapūr by Bhagwati Prasad Mishra. Later it was merged with the *Prajā Samājvādī*.

In the Gandhian era after 1930, the Congress gained a good hold over the masses as new leaders from the rank and file joined it in large numbers. In Candrapūr Marotrao Kannamwar was

CHAPTER 2. History.

PRELUDE TO INDEPENDENCE.

making his mark in politics since 1920. He stepped into politics by joining the party of Balgovind. In 1929 he founded the Gandhi *Seva Mandal*. In the 1930–32 movement he courted arrest. By his steady work and devotion to the party he soon merited the attention of the higher authorities in the Congress Party. Between Tilak and Gandhi it can be said that Kannamwar liked Tilak but loved Gandhi.

In 1939 he was the secretary of the Nagpūr Provincial Congress Committee. In the Quit India agitation of 1942, he offered *satyagraha* and was imprisoned.

POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD.

It may here be pointed out that within two years after the Second World War independence dawned upon Candrapūr with the rest of India, on 15th August 1947. Amidst great rejoicings the people of Candrapūr celebrated the day. The tri-coloured national flag was hoisted by Belsare, the Parliamentary Secretary from Nagpūr. In the evening a public meeting was held under the chairmanship of Belsare. Public gardens, chauks, streets, townhall, library and the market were renamed after the national leaders, in memory of the great day[1].

To return to the narrative: After Independence, in the Shukla ministry in Madhya Pradesh, Kannamwar was minister for health. He was originally a staunch supporter of separate Vidarbha, better known as Mahāvidarbha or Nāg-Vidarbha movement. Incidentally it may be noted here that with the Reorganisation of the States in 1956, Candrapūr district was transferred from the Madhya Pradesh to the former Bombay State, and then to Mahārāṣṭra with the bifurcation of the State in 1960. Shri Kannamwar willingly bowed to the decision taken by the Government of India. In this regard the late Bapuji Aney notes that when in 1956 he was taken ill at Poona, Kannamwar had been to see him. Bapuji's friend Brijlal Biyani who was then with him, told him that Kannamwar was a leading Vidarbhavādī. But it seems that on this point finally Kannamwar had to yield to stronger forces from Western Mahārāṣṭra.

Because of his life-long public service, hold over both the masses and elites, and wide practical experience he was made the Chief Minister of Mahārāṣṭra in 1962, by the Congress Party. By his devotion to the party and hold over the masses he rose from humble beginnings to the position of a Chief Minister. By his organising skill, strong common sense and compromising nature he successfully led the ministry till he was unexpectedly snatched away by death in 1963[2].

Among the social workers of Candrapūr district, Babasaheb Amte of Waroḍa, by his Leprosy Asylum, has merited the attention of all the public, the Government and social workers from abroad.

[1]*RCI*, pp. 299–351; And—*The History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh* Nagpur, 1956.
[2]T. N. Katkar—*Karmavir Kannamwar*.

CHAPTER 3—THE PEOPLE

CHAPTER 3. The People.

POPULATION.

ACCORDING TO THE 1961 CENSUS, THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE DISTRICT is 12,38,070 (M. 623,681 – F. 614,389), and is distributed over six tahsils. The table below furnishes the tahsil-wise statistics of population.

TABLE No. I

AREA AND POPULATION, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT IN 1961

Chandrapūr district		Area in		Population		
		Sq. miles	Sq. km.	Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
District ..	Total	10,088·3	26,128·7	1,238,070	623,681	614,389
	Rural	10,061·8	26,060·1	1,142,380	573,334	562,046
	Urban	26·5	68·6	95,690	50,347	45,343
Brahmapurī tahsil	Total	897·0	2,323·2	226,924	113,349	113,575
	Rural	897·0	2,323·2	226,924	113,349	113,575
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..
Waroḍa tahsil	Total	1,282·0	3,320·4	238,323	120,519	117,804
	Rural	1,275·7	3,304·1	224,175	113,095	111,080
	Urban	6·3	16·3	14,148	7,424	6,724
Gaḍhcirolī tahsil	Total	2,870·0	7,433·3	277,398	138,721	138,677
	Rural	2,870·0	7,433·3	277,398	138,721	138,677
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..
Candrapūr tahsil	Total	1,174·0	3,040·7	296,807	151,137	145,670
	Rural	1,159·5	3,003·1	224,972	113,237	111,735
	Urban	14·5	37·6	71,835	37,900	33,935
Rājurā tahsil	Total	776·3	2,010·6	89,624	45,315	44,309
	Rural	770·6	1,995·9	79,917	40,292	39,625
	Urban	5·7	14·7	9,707	5,023	4,684
Sironcā tahsil	Total	3,089·0	8,000·5	108,994	54,640	54,354
	Rural	3,089·0	8,000·5	108,994	54,640	54,354
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..

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The variation in population depend upon three factors, viz., births, deaths and migration. The salient trend in the variation and movement of population since the 1881 Census in the district are analysed below. The account of the pattern of growth of the general population as given in the Chanda Gazetteer of 1909 is reproduced below.

Variation of population: "A Census of the District has been taken on five occasions, in 1866, 1872, 1881, 1891 and 1901. There have, however, as has been explained at length in the preceding section, been considerable changes in the area of the district which vitiate comparisons between the earlier and the later returns. Making allowance for these changes, the population of the present area of the district as ascertained on the last three occasions of taking the Census is shown below.

1881	602,936
1891	659,638
1901	553,105

The total population thus increased by 9.4 per cent during the decade 1881-1891, and decreased by 16.2 during the decade 1891-1901. During the first decade the increase was almost entirely due to the natural expansion of the population, not to immigration; it was most marked in the northern zamindari, but was there doubtless in large measure due to more accurate returns. The *khalsa* tract which showed the greatest increase was Warora, where the increase was 16 per cent exactly equal to the average for the whole district. The appalling decrease in the population which took place during the next decade was of course in the main attributable to the bad years and famine immediately preceding the last census. Some of the loss was due to emigration, but much of it must be assigned to the heavy mortality of the decade. From 1895 to 1897 the number of deaths exceeded that of births by over 10,000 and although an abnormal birth rate in 1899 temporarily made good the wastage, the famine of 1900 resulted in a death rate of 96.62 per mille and the deaths of that year exceeded the births by nearly 37,000. It is very doubtful, too, if the mortality during the scarcity of 1897 was not a good deal heavier than was indicated by the official returns. The only part of the district which has steadily increased in population during the twenty years from 1881 to 1901 is the Sironcha tahsil, where the increase during the first decade amounted to 6 per cent, and during the second to 22 per cent. According to Mr. Hemingway, the reason given for this locally is the immunity from dacoits under British rule, but, as he observes, this hardly seems an adequate explanation, and the true reason appears to be that this part, owing to the fertilising action of the river, never suffers an entire failure of the crops, a circumstance which has not only favoured the multiplication of the present population but has also encouraged a rapid influx of tenants from the Hyderabad side of the river. Since the last Census, matters have, thanks to rather

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more favourable seasons, considerably improved, and, as has been remarked in a foregoing paragraph, the vital statistics indicate that the population has once more expanded to at least [illegible]

Effect of recent bad years on the population. The effect of the cycle of bad years upon the population is summarised by Mr. Hemingway thus: "The decrease over the rest of the district (i.e., excluding Sironcha) varies very largely from group to group. A succession of poor rice years has encouraged the small rice tracts of rice tracts to seek their fortunes elsewhere in the open tracts where a greater variety of cropping is possible, and the probability of all crops failing utterly is very small. The Warora tahsil, for instance, has larger areas of open-field crops; the rice area in that tahsil was 6 per cent. only, the best of the open-field groups showing a good increase; in the *khalsa* portion of Chanda pur tahsil the drop was 12 per cent., in the corresponding portion of Brahmapuri tahsil it was 19 per cent. If the open tracts of the extreme north of Brahmapuri tahsil is excepted, the tract is purely rice-growing; and there are a large number of small villages interspersed between the large stable villages, where the area secured by irrigation is comparatively small and scarcely [illegible] a succession of really unpropitious years for their rice. In the Candrapur tahsil the Ghatkul group returned a large decrease in the population; this is an open-field tract, somewhat remote and for that reason not fully occupied until poor rice years brought its soil into high favour. The increase here is mainly due to immigration from the poorer rice tracts. To what extent the decrease in the population is a permanent loss or merely a temporary exodus in search of work must be largely a matter of conjecture. In certain tracts it has always been customary for the village labourers to repair to Berar after the rice harvest is over, in order to find employment on cotton-picking; and if the census is taken at the exact time when most of the labourers who make a practice of going to Berar have already gone, it may be said with some certainty that the drop in the figures of open tracts adjoining Berar was caused entirely by this temporary exodus, since there is now no marked want of labour for agricultural work in these open tracts. But it is equally certain that the loss in some of the rice groups is more permanent. In groups where there are large areas of second rate rice land unoccupied [illegible] in normal years were occupied by the village labourers and [illegible] tenants; and also a rough census was taken at attestation [illegible] few villages which seemed to be very short of labour for the reaping of their rice. This rough census, though its figures are of little use in that they concern a very small area, showed that a very large proportion of the regular labourers of certain villages had been absent for three years from their villages, and it may safely be assumed that they would not return as permanent [illegible] habitants until the rice crops were giving sufficient [illegible] induce them to return. This want of labour was [illegible] two years ago (*viz.*, 1903-04) when there was a bumper [illegible] but not enough labour to cut it in time; also the [illegible]

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in railway employ could get no labour; and at the present moment the railway construction, and tank construction as well, is proceeding very slowly indeed, because there is not sufficient labour in the district. It may safely be said that the population of the poorer rice tracts will continue to be very short indeed, until a succession of good rice years has been enjoyed."*

The following table gives the variation in population and the percentage of decade variation in Candrapūr district from 1901 to 1961.

TABLE No. 2

VARIATION IN POPULATION DURING SIXTY YEARS, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

—	Year	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	1901 ..	574,323	..	..
	1911 ..	729,347	+155,024	+26·99
	1921 ..	715,365	—13,982	—1·92
	1931 ..	823,321	+107,956	+15·09
	1941 ..	942,053	+118,732	+14·42
	1951 ..	1,052,975	+110,922	+11·77
	1961 ..	1,238,070	+185,095	+17·58
Brahmapurī Tahsil ..	1951 ..	195,486	..	..
	1961 ..	226,924	+31,438	+16·08
Waroḍā Tahsil	1951 ..	210,128	..	..
	1961 ..	238,323	+28,195	+13·42
Gaḍhcirolī Tahsil	1951 ..	231,236	..	..
	1961 ..	277,398	+46,162	+19·96
Candrapūr Tahsil ..	1951 ..	247,042	..	..
	1961 ..	296,807	+49,765	+20·14
Rājurā Tahsil	1951 ..	75,357	..	..
	1961 ..	89,624	+14,267	+18·93
Sironcā Tahsil	1951 ..	93,726	..	..
	1961 ..	108,994	+15,268	+16·29

*Chanda District Gazetteer published in 1909, pp. 67—70.

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The population of the district increased by about 27 per cent. during the decade 1901-11. This percentage of growth was not surpassed in the last sixty years. The influenza epidemic decreased the population of the district by about 2 per cent. in the decade which followed. In the subsequent decades the total population increased at moderate rates among which the growth rate of 17.58 per cent. in the decade 1951—61 ranks the highest. The population of the district has more than doubled during the last sixty years.

The percentage variation for the district and tahsils during 1951-61 is given below :

Percentage variation during 1951—61

	Candrapūr district	+ 17.58
1.	Brahmapurī tahsil	+ 16·08
2.	Waroḍā tahsil	+ 13·42
3.	Gaḍhcirolī tahsil	+ 19·96
4.	Candrapūr tahsil	+ 20·14
5.	Rājurā tahsil	+ 18·93
6.	Sironcā tahsil	+ 16·29

The high percentage rate of variation in Candrapūr tahsil may be attributed to the inclusion of towns, *viz.*, Candrapūr and Ballārpūr, the population of which increased considerably during the last decade.

The Census Report* for Central Provinces and Berār for 1921 throws an important light on the population growth of this district :

"The district has the lowest density in the province, 71 per square mile; and in the tahsil of Sironcā, it is as low as 20. The vital statistics show a steady increase of population until the year 1918, when in the influenza epidemic the deaths exceeded the births by 3,800, and in the following year the low birth-rate caused a further decrease of nearly 10,000. The deduced population shows an increase of 32,000 during the decade, whereas actually there was a decrease of 17,000. It is obvious that in the influenza epidemic the inaccuracy in the vital statistics was greater than elsewhere — a result which is to be expected in so large a district. The factor of migration is a much less important one than in the rest of the division, but the balance of population has moved against the district, the inhabitants of which appear to be attracted to the more prosperous cotton industry".

The 1931 Census Report** analyses the density and growth of population in Cāndā district in the following words :

"It will be observed that in the wild Sironcā tahsil which borders on Bastar State the aboriginal population is almost as scattered as in the State itself, but has grown enormously since

* Vol. XI, Part I, 1921.
** Vol. XII, Part I, 1931.

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the last Census when the density was only 20 per square mile. Conditions in the forest areas of the Gaḍhciroli tahsil resemble those in Sirońcā, the home of the Maria and the haunt of the man-eating tiger.

The development of population was normal throughout the decade except in the year 1921 when cholera was responsible for an unusual number of deaths. There was an another outbreak in 1924, but vital statistics were not seriously affected, and for the ten years the excess of births over deaths was 69,742.

Tahsil	No. of persons per sq. mile	Increase per cent since 1921	Increase of persons per sq. mile since 1921
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Candrapūr	160	17·77	24
Waroḍā	136	11·79	15
Brahmapurī	173	10·97	17
Gaḍhcirolī	59	17·71	9
Sirońcā	41	15·13	8

The increase of population according to the Census figures was 99,065, and there was rise of about 11,000 in the number of immigrants recorded over the 1921 figure. Two collieries opened at Mahakali and Lālpeṭh are said to have attracted a certain number of immigrants, and to have encouraged the increase in population in Cāndā town, which as shown in Provincial Table I rose by 22·44 per cent. Waroḍā, a town with 9,811 inhabitants, has also gained about 1,000 during the decade, being the centre of the cotton business of the district and the rail-head for the rich taluq of Wun in Yavatmāḷ district."

Density of Population.

In proportion to its area, Candrapūr is the most sparsely populated district in the State, a fact which is attributable to the large areas under forest lands inhabited by an insignificant number of aborigines. The incidence of population by tahsils shows this clearly enough. Candrapūr, Waroḍā and Brahmapurī, which did not contain *Zamindāri* lands, all have a fairly good density of 253, 186 and 253 per square mile, respectively, whereas Sirońcā, which contained the Ahiri *Zamindāri* with its huge area of 2,600 square miles almost entirely abandoned to the jungle, has a very poor incidence of population. In Sirońcā almost the whole of the population is confined to a narrow strip along the bank of the Godāvarī whereas inland the country is pure jungle and almost entirely uninhabited. The population is quite dense in the rice tracts, a fact which is reflected in the figures for the Brahmapurī

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and Candrapūr tahsils. This is because rice gives a far heavier outturn than any other crop, and so there are smaller holdings and the pressure of population is greater.

A glance at the spatial distribution of population reveals that the tahsils with higher density also share relatively higher proportions of the district population. Gaḍhcirolī tahsil is, however, an exception.

According to the 1961 Census the density of population in the district is returned to be 123 per square mile. The following statement gives the density in the various tahsils in the district in 1951 and 1961:—

	Density per square mile		Percentage of district population in 1961
	1951	1961	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Candrapūr district	104	123	100
1. Brahmapurī tahsil	218	253	18·33
2. Waroḍā tahsil	164	186	19·25
3. Gaḍhcirolī tahsil	81	97	22·41
4. Candrapūr tahsil	210	253	23·97
5. Rājurā tahsil	97	115	7·24
6. Sirońcā tahsil	30	35	8·80

Urban Population.

Urban population is defined as the population returned from towns which have a municipality, a cantonment, or a population of over 5,000 and at least ¾ of the male population dependent on non-agricultural occupations.

Candrapūr with only 7·73 per cent. of the population in urban areas is the least urbanised district in Mahārāṣṭra State. This becomes evident from the Census statistics in the following table which gives the urban population, the decade variation in population, the percentage of decade variation and the number of towns from 1901 to 1961.

TABLE No. 3

VARIATION IN URBAN POPULATION FROM 1901 TO 1961, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Year	Area		No. of towns	Persons	Males	Females	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
	Sq. miles	Sq. km.						
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1901	..	..	2	28,429	14,441	13,988	..	..
1911	..	..	5	41,704	20,813	20,891	+13,275	+46·70
1921	..	..	6	50,363	25,369	24,994	+8,659	+20·76
1931	..	..	7	62,833	31,934	30,899	+12,470	+24·76
1941	..	..	7	79,396	40,517	38,879	+16,563	+26·36
1951	..	..	8	96,435	48,731	47,704	+17,039	+21·46
1961	26·5	68·6	5	95,690	50,347	45,343	—745	—0·77

The urban population in the district increased by 236·59 per cent. since 1901. The percentage of urban to total population increased gradually from 4·95 per cent. in 1901 to 9·16 per cent. in 1951. The last decade witnessed a decline to 7·73 per cent. This decline is attributable to the revised definition of urban areas in the 1961 Census, as a result of which the four towns of Brahmapurī, Navargāṅv, Cimūr and Armorī have been declassified as rural and only one, *viz.*, Sasti has been newly added to the list.

The towns are classified on the basis of population. The table which follows gives the statistics of population and area of the classified towns in 1951 and 1961:—

TABLE No. 4

TOWNS CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION WITH VARIATION DURING 1951 AND 1961, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Class	Name of town	Year	Area		Population
			Sq. miles	Sq. km.	Persons
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Class II 50,000 to 99,999	Candrapūr	1951	..	..	40,744
		1961	11·02	28·54	51,484
Class III 20,000 to 49,999	Ballārpūr	1951	..	..	12,471
		1961	3·50	9·07	20,351
Class IV 10,000 to 19,999	Waroḍā	1951	..	..	11,517
		1961	6·27	16·24	14,148
Class V 5,000 to 9,999	(*a*) Rājurā	1951	..	..	3,957
		1961	0·30	0·78	4,376
	(*b*) Sasti	1961	5·38	13·93	5,331

Class	Name of town	Year	Population			
			Males	Females	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Class II 50,000 to 99,999	Candrapūr	1951	20,608	20,136	+5,014	+14·03
		1961	27,042	24,442	+10,740	+26·36
Class III 20,000 to 49,999	Ballārpūr	1951	6,356	6,115	+3,759	+43·15
		1961	10,858	9,493	+7,880	+63·19
Class IV 10,000 to 19,999	Waroḍā	1951	5,822	5,695	+1,975	+20·70
		1961	7,424	6,724	+2,631	+22·84
Class V 5,000 to 9,999	(*a*) Rājurā	1951	2,067	1,890	..	..
		1961	2,266	2,110	+419	+10·59
	(*b*) Sasti	1961	2,757	2,574	..	..

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Of the five towns in the district, Candrapūr, with a population of 51,484, is a class II town. Ballārpūr, with a population of 20,351, is a Class III town, while Waroḍā, with a population of 14,148, is a Class IV town. Rājurā and Sasti are grouped under Class V. The decade variation of population in Ballārpūr and Candrapūr shows a percentage increase of 63·19 and 26·36, respectively, over the decade 1951—61.

Most of the towns in the district, except Candrapūr, exhibit semi-urban characteristics. In fact they present a spectacle of the old order in the midst of a developing urbanisation. In the absence of industrialisation and white collared occupations, a majority of the urban population is engaged in agriculture, crafts and allied occupations. The well educated and able bodied hasten to find better jobs and avenues of better life in Nāgpūr city. The people in general seem to be coming under the influence of modern civilization.

Rural Population.

Candrapūr district is more rural in character than any other district in Mahārāṣṭra. The rural population in the district (1,142,380) which is inhabited in 2,755 villages forms about 92.27 per cent. of the total population. The following table gives the tahsil-wise distribution of rural population in 1961, while Table No. 6 gives the rates of growth and percentage of rural population to total population in the district since 1901 to 1961:—

TABLE No. 5

RURAL POPULATION IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT IN 1961

Tahsil (1)	No. of inhabited villages (2)	Total rural population		
		Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)
District Total	2,755	1,142,380	573,334	569,046
1. Brahmapurī	335	226,924	113,349	113,575
2. Waroḍa	442	224,175	113,095	111,080
3. Gaḍhcirolī	843	277,398	138,721	138,677
4. Candrapūr	376	224,972	113,237	111,735
5. Rājurā	229	79,917	40,292	39,625
6. Siroñchā	530	108,994	54,640	54,354

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TABLE No. 6

VARIATION IN RURAL POPULATION SINCE 1901

Year (1)	Rate of variation in rural population (2)	Percentage of rural to total population (3)
1901	..	95·05
1911	+25·97	94·28
1921	−3·29	92·96
1931	+14·36	92·37
1941	+13·43	91·57
1951	+10·88	90·84
1961	+19·43	92·27

The rural population of the district increased by 109.27 per cent. over that of 1901 and by 71·79 per cent. over that of 1921. The 1921 Census recorded a heavy reduction in rural population because of the devastating epidemics in the decade. The Census statistics show that the net increase in rural population in this district has been higher than that for Mahārāṣṭra.

The Cāndā District Gazetteer of 1909 gave a very vivid account of the attitude of the rural population towards the Census operation * which is quoted below :

"The people in Cāndā, a large proportion of whom consists of the scheduled tribes, have now learnt to look upon the Census as one of the harmless eccentricities of the Government, but it was not so a few decades ago. Some stories recorded in the report of the Census held in 1881 originating in this district may, therefore, be reproduced as worth while. The counting operation was held to bring ill luck which was generally expected among the women of the lower classes to take the form of illness or death among their children. In Siroñcā, a story was current that the Government had found a goldmine and it was intended to select one young man and one young woman from each household and to march them off to the diggings. In the Ahiri *Zamindārī*, the numberboards supplied to each house were carefully stowed away underground in rice stores and similar places of concealment, because a story had been circulated to the effect that it was a settled plan on the part of the police to have these boards stolen and then to get every householder fined Rs. 25, who failed to produce his numberboard on the night of the Census. The most ingenious

*Chanda District Gazetteer, 1909, pp. 76-77.

rumour was that which went round in Cāndā itself. Here some waggish person circulated a report that on the night of the Census a brass measure would be applied to the breasts of women and that those too abundantly endowed by Nature were to be deprived of their superfluity by a surgical operation. A little timely ridicule however, scotched this canard."

The pattern of rural population is revealed in the frequency distribution of villages on the basis of population. The Table No. 7 which follows gives the number of villages with various groups of population. Table No. 8 gives the distribution of population by size of villages for the district.

TABLE No. 7

VILLAGES CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION (TAHSIL-WISE), CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1961

Tahsil	Total No. of inhabited villages	Villages with less than 2,000			Villages with 2,000 to 9,999	
		Less than 200	200—499	500—999	1,000—1,999	2,000—4,999	5,000—9,999
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
District Total	2,755	1,261	783	482	173	45	11
Brahmapurī Tahsil	335	92	92	90	45	12	4
Warorā Tahsil	442	115	172	116	31	4	4
Gaḍhcirolī Tahsil	843	471	219	108	32	11	2
Candrapūr Tahsil	376	105	118	88	50	14	1
Rājurā Tahsil	229	98	71	50	10	..	..
Sirōñcā Tahsil	530	380	111	30	5	4	..

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TABLE No. 8

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY SIZE OF VILLAGES, 1961

Size Class (1)	Percentage of the No. of villages to total No. of villages (2)	Percentage of population to total rural population (3)
Less than 500	74·19	32·61
500—999	17·50	29·75
1000—1999	6·28	20·05
2000—4999	1·63	11·12
5000 and over	0·40	6·47

The extremely rural character of the district population is revealed by the fact that 62·36 per cent. of the rural population lives in villages with population less than 1,000 as compared to 40·73 per cent. for the State. The proportion of villages with less than 500 people is as high as 74·19 per cent. Among the various size classes of villages, the greatest number of villages have a population less than 200. Gadhcirolī tahsil has the greatest number of small villages, while Sirońcā tahsil comes next.

It is also interesting to note that the average population per village is as low as 415 in this district whereas the corresponding figure for the State is 792. The average population per village is the lowest (206) in Sirońcā tahsil, whereas the corresponding figure for Brahmapurī tahsil is 677. Gadhcirolī, Rājurā and Sirońcā tahsils have very small villages. The number of villages per 100 square miles of rural area is 27 for this district.

Sex Ratio. The sex ratio is very important from the point of view of sociological studies. The following statement gives the sex ratios (number of females per 1,000 males) for this district since 1901:

Year (1)	Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)
1901	1,023	1,026	969
1911	1,005	1,005	1,004
1921	1,004	1,005	985
1931	990	992	968
1941	989	992	960
1951	996	997	979
1961	985	993	901

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The sex ratio of population of the district fluctuated between 985 and 1,023 since 1901. The ratio decreased gradually from 1,023 in 1901 to 989 in 1941, improved in the decade 1941—51 to 996 and decreased again to 985 in 1961. The Census returns show that the sex ratio of the rural population in Candrapūr district has always been higher than that of urban population.

The sex ratios for different age groups of population are given in the following statement :

Age groups (1)	Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)
0—14	981	985	935
15—34	1,019	1,035	858
35—59	914	919	857
60 and above	1,107	1,102	1,157
All ages	985	993	901

Marital Status. The following table gives the Census statistics of the marital status of population belonging to various age groups :

TABLE No. 9

AGE AND MARITAL STATUS, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1961

Age-group	Marital Status									
	Never Married		Married		Widowed		Divorced or Separated		Unspecified Status	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
All ages	312,781	240,843	286,230	293,282	21,010	76,106	3,453	3,772	207	386
0—9	180,369	181,354	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
10—14	65,281	48,321	1,612	12,735	34	141	18	126	44	53
15—19	37,636	8,393	8,448	37,309	102	380	95	543	33	77
20—24	18,421	1,362	31,354	57,582	547	876	494	738	17	39
25—29	7,097	436	48,747	53,545	1,064	1,810	776	613	28	45
30—34	1,406	182	44,173	38,717	1,331	3,135	568	470	16	34
35—39	706	104	37,322	30,281	1,476	4,752	418	365	11	32
40—44	547	96	29,842	23,119	1,935	7,426	330	292	12	26
45—49	340	74	25,768	16,554	2,129	8,916	244	232	6	17
50—54	196	28	20,855	11,002	2,524	11,196	199	163	9	25
55—59	121	16	13,735	5,717	2,094	8,309	87	87	9	14
60—64	86	25	11,724	3,735	2,585	11,366	96	74	8	7
65—69	34	15	5,334	1,556	1,525	5,997	39	26	3	2
70+	80	14	7,279	1,331	3,663	11,796	89	42	4	8
Age not stated	461	423	37	59	1	6	..	1	7	7

The Census returns for 1961 show that the percentage of never married males increased while that of females decreased during the decade. However, the percentage of married males witnessed a decrease while that of married females witnessed a slight increase. The proportion of widowed males and females registered a decrease. The percentage of divorced or separated witnessed an increase, but the difference is not very significant. The distribution of marital status by age groups reveals that the marriageable age has increased in the district. The percentage of never married in the age group 0-14 increased by 2.35 in the case of males and by 4.84 in the case of females during the decade. It is also noteworthy that the proportion of never married among the male population is larger in 1961 than in 1951. In the case of female population, however, that proportion decreased from 11.93 per cent. in 1951 to 5.03 per cent. in 1961.

Migration.

With growing industrialisation and education, the incidence of migration has been on the increase. The educated are naturally attracted towards towns and cities which provide wide avenues of employment. A number of economic and social factors, such as education, employment, occupational pattern and cross-marriages are responsible for the increase in the rate of migration. A number of persons from this district are found to have migrated to Nāgpūr, Amrāvatī, Hyderābād and Bombay. Nāgpūr is, however, the principal destination of the migrants from this district.

The 1961 Census returns regarding migration of population are given in the following table :

TABLE No. 10

PROPORTION OF POPULATION BY PLACES OF BIRTH IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, IN 1961

(1)	Total population (2)	In place of enumeration (3)	Elsewhere in the district (4)	Outside the district but in Mahārāṣṭra (5)	Outside Mahārāṣṭra (6)
Persons ..	1,238,070	734,507	388,738	65,148	47,778
Males ..	623,681	445,512	128,493	25,641	23,272
Females ..	614,389	288,995	260,245	39,507	24,506
Percentage to total population :—					
Persons ..	100	59·42	31·45	5·27	3·86
Males ..	100	71·52	20·63	4·12	3·73
Females ..	100	47·12	42·44	6·44	4·00

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Thus, the 1961 Census enumerated 59.42 per cent persons at their places of birth, while 40.58 per cent are enumerated to have been born elsewhere. About two-thirds of this migrant population is that of females most of whom migrate on account of their marriage. As much as 80 per cent. of the female migration on account of marriage is within the district.

"The proportion of non-workers is lower among the migrants. The entire movement within the district or from outside the district is not, therefore, by families. Surprisingly the proportion of cultivators is larger among the migrants from within the district than that of the population at birth place. It indicates that a part of the migration within the district may be of cultivators or others for taking lands under ownership or tenancy cultivation and not exclusively to work as agricultural labourers. The proportions of migrants from outside the district engaged in household industry, manufacturing industry, construction, trade, transport and other services are considerably larger than those of the population enumerated at the place of birth. It means that these non-agricultural sectors are attracting and absorbing more migrants from outside the district."*

LANGUAGES.

The sociological implications of the study of languages are of immense value. The study of languages gives an insight into the cultural aspects of the community of people. Language determines the degree of social intercourse between various groups of population. By and large, the rural as well as urban society has still not transcended the language barrier. Individuals have their social intercourse within their own linguistic group. In fact the rural society has still preserved its unilingual pattern.

For purposes of this study mother-tongue is defined** as a language spoken by the person's mother to him in his childhood or mainly spoken in the house. The census returns include the various dialects in the statistics of the main languages on the basis of Grierson's Classification. The Census statistics of the speakers of various mother-tongues in the district in 1961 are given in the following table:

*District Census Handbook, 1961, p. 16.

**This is also the definition accepted by the Census authorities of 1961.

TABLE No. 11

STATISTICS OF MOTHER-TONGUE IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, IN 1961

(1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Banjari		Gondi		Gujarati		Hindi		Kannada	
		Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)	Males (9)	Females (10)	Males (11)	Females (12)
District ..	Total ..	655	686	73,177	73,078	1,378	1,094	14,869	12,479	898	892
	Rural ..	655	686	72,940	72,849	915	665	10,067	9,646	859	859
	Urban ..	..	..	237	229	463	429	4,802	3,833	39	33
Brahmapurī Tahsil ..	Total ..	27	20	705	678	209	155	1,280	1,193	96	95
	Rural ..	27	20	705	678	209	155	1,280	1,193	96	95
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Waroḍā Tahsil ..	Total ..	8	6	207	191	138	123	2,502	2,237	4	..
	Rural ..	8	6	190	181	69	67	1,782	1,556	4	..
	Urban ..	..	..	17	10	69	56	720	681	..	..
Gaḍcirolī Tahsil ..	Total ..	276	310	30,776	30,104	521	349	4,869	5,414	297	289
	Rural ..	276	310	30,776	30,104	521	349	4,869	5,414	297	289
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Candrapūr Tahsil ..	Total ..	..	..	8,140	8,277	477	436	5,563	4,105	491	505
	Rural ..	..	..	7,948	8,094	97	74	1,661	1,074	453	472
	Urban ..	..	..	192	183	380	362	3,902	3,031	38	33
Rājurā Tahsil ..	Total ..	293	307	7,454	7,837	15	14	364	261	2	..
	Rural ..	293	307	7,426	7,801	1	3	184	140	1	..
	Urban ..	..	..	28	36	14	11	180	121	1	..
Sirońcā Tahsil ..	Total ..	51	43	25,895	25,991	18	17	291	269	8	3
	Rural ..	51	43	25,895	25,991	18	17	291	269	8	3
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

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TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

STATISTICS OF MOTHER-TONGUE IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, IN 1961

(1)		Kolami		Marathi		Telugu		Urdu		Others	
	Total Rural Urban (2)	Males (13)	Females (14)	Males (15)	Females (16)	Males (17)	Females (18)	Males (19)	Females (20)	Males (21)	Females (22)
District ..	Total ..	900	857	472,935	467,582	47,812	47,235	8,158	7,227	2,899	2,259
	Rural ..	900	857	437,872	435,384	41,910	42,025	5,276	4,613	1,940	1,462
	Urban ..	..	..	35,063	32,198	5,902	5,210	2,882	2,614	959	797
Brahmapurī Tahsil ..	Total ..	..	2	108,243	108,640	1,672	1,717	835	802	282	273
	Rural ..	..	2	108,243	108,640	1,672	1,717	835	802	282	273
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Warorā Tahsil ..	Total ..	111	105	114,776	112,678	816	761	1,790	1,571	167	132
	Rural ..	111	105	108,894	107,371	714	663	1,198	1,021	125	110
	Urban ..	..	..	5,882	5,307	102	98	592	550	42	22
Gadhchirolī Tahsil ..	Total ..	..	..	93,894	94,541	6,017	6,312	1,153	761	918	597
	Rural ..	..	..	93,894	94,541	6,017	6,312	1,153	761	918	597
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Candrapūr Tahsil ..	Total ..	..	..	117,690	114,785	14,917	14,230	2,444	2,175	1,415	1,157
	Rural ..	..	..	91,185	90,385	10,822	10,742	552	482	519	412
	Urban ..	..	..	26,505	24,400	4,095	3,488	1,892	1,693	896	745
Rajura Tahsil ..	Total ..	789	750	30,431	29,492	4,759	4,515	1,125	1,048	83	85
	Rural ..	789	750	27,755	27,001	3,054	2,891	727	677	62	55
	Urban ..	..	..	2,676	2,491	1,705	1,624	398	371	21	30
Sironca Tahsil ..	Total ..	..	..	7,901	7,446	19,631	19,700	811	870	34	15
	Rural ..	..	..	7,901	7,446	19,631	19,700	811	870	34	15
	Urban ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

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The following table gives the percentage distribution of languages in rural and urban areas of the district. It also furnishes the percentage of population speaking the various languages as between rural and urban areas.

TABLE No. 12

Language	Percentage to total population			Percentage of each language in	
	Total	Rural	Urban	Rural Areas	Urban Areas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Banjari ..	0·11	0·12	..	100	..
Gondi ..	11·81	12·76	0·49	99·68	0·32
Gujarati ..	0·20	0·14	0·93	63·92	36·08
Hindi ..	2·29	1·72	9·02	69·54	30·46
Kannada ..	0·14	0·15	0·08	95·98	4·02
Kolami ..	0·14	0·15	..	100·00	..
Marathi ..	75·97	76·44	70·29	92·85	7·15
Telugu ..	7·68	7·35	11·61	88·31	11·69
Urdu ..	1·24	0·87	5·74	64·28	35·72
Other Languages.	0·42	0·30	1·84	65·96	34·04

From the point of view of numerical superiority, Marāṭhī is the principal language and is the mother-tongue of 75.97 per cent. of the population. Goṇḍī which ranks second is spoken by 11.81 per cent. of the total population. This is the mother-tongue of the Gonds who are inhabited mainly in the rural countryside and forest lands in the Siroñcā, Gaḍhcirolī, Brahmapurī and Rājurā tahsils. Telugu ranks third, and is spoken by 7.68 per cent. of the population. It is prevalent mainly in Siroñcā, Candrapūr and Gaḍhcirolī tahsils. Of the total of 95,047 Telugu speakers, 39,331 are in Siroñcā tahsil, 29,147 in Candrapūr tahsil, and 12,329 in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil. Hindī speakers who form about 2.29 per cent are mainly found in urban areas. Urdū speakers are also mainly urbanites.

The percentage of speakers of various languages during the Censuses of 1901, 1951 and 1961 is given below:—

Language	Percentage to total population		
	1901	1951	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Banjari ..	..	0·09	0·11
Gondi ..	16·40	11·78	11·81
Gujarati ..	..	0·20	0·20
Hindi ..	7·20	1·91	2·29
Kannada ..	..	0·34	0·14
Kolami ..	..	0·02	0·14
Marathi ..	63·60	74·29	75·97
Telugu ..	11·90	9·90	7·68
Urdu ..	..	1·12	1·24
Other Languages ..	0·90	0·35	0·42

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The District Census Handbook of the District (1961) gives the following comments regarding the above percentages :

"It should be remembered that the 1901 proportions are for the district as it existed in 1901. Its boundaries have changed since then and some predominantly Telugu and Goṇḍī speaking areas have been transferred to Madras and some predominantly Hindī speaking areas were transferred to Durg district when it was first constituted in 1907. The addition of the predominantly Marāṭhī speaking talukas of Rājurā has also changed the proportions significantly. The 1901 proportions are now therefore comparable with those of 1951 or 1961. Between 1951 and 1961 the proportions of Goṇḍī, Hindī, Marāṭhī and Urdū have slightly increased. The proportion of Telugu alone has slightly gone down from 9.90 per cent in 1951 to 7.68 per cent in 1961. It may be due to the addition of Rājurā taluka in 1959."

Māraṭhi.

Three distinct languages, Marāṭhī, Telugu and Goṇḍī meet in Candrapūr and around and between each has accumulated a weltering mass of dialects which almost defies enumeration. Roughly it may be said that Marāṭhī is the language that dominates all other languages, and dialects and is spoken by 75.97 per cent of the population and understood by all, Telugu still having prominence in Siroñcā and Goṇḍī in the former *Zamindārīs* and among the Goṇḍs and Madias. It does not appear, however, that Marāṭhī possessed this prominence always. Sir Robert Jenkins has written in 1826 that Marāṭhī and Telugu were spoken in nearly equal proportion. Hindī and Urdū are little employed. Marāṭhī is also the language of the Courts. The variety spoken is that known as Nāgpurī Marāṭhī which is identical with that of Berār and is the typical Marāṭhī of Vidarbha. The local dialect is sometimes called Jhari, *i.e.*, language spoken in the forest areas. Various dialects can be distinguished but they are no more than jargons of the standard type. The most important of these is Kunbārī, the dialect of the Kuṇbīs stated in the Linguistic Survey to be used by over three lakhs of people. Others are Govārī, Kumbārī, Koṣṭī, Mahārī, Kosrī and Netakānī. Most of these are as the names indicate caste dialects and these are all rejected by Dr. Grierson as essentially identical with the ordinary Marāṭhī of the locality.

Goṇḍī.

Goṇḍī belongs to the Dravidian family of languages and forms a link between Telugu on the one hand and Tāmiḷ and Kannaḍa on the other, on the whole approximating more closely to Tāmiḷ and Kannaḍa. The language spoken in Candrapūr, however, forms an exception to this generalisation in that Telugu influence is strong, increasing in power as one goes further southwards. At the Census of 1881, Goṇḍī was ascertained to be the native tongue of 132,348 residents of the district, in 1891, the figure was 132,598 and 1901, 98,428. The figures have gone on decreasing during the last 50 years, Marāṭhī getting more and more into vogue. The Goṇḍs speak Goṇḍī among themselves but employ Marāṭhī, Telugu and even Hindī when speaking with strangers.

The language has no literature and in fact no written characters. There are, however, several popular folk songs of which some were collected and transcribed by the Reverend Hislop. Many variations of Goṇḍī were once recognised including Koi, Gattu and Maria but Dr. Grierson considers that they only represent the same Goṇḍī which might be described as links between the forms of Goṇḍī spoken in the north-east of Candrapūr and the adjoining districts in former Bastar State on one side and the Goṇḍī dialects of Hyderābād and Madras. An interesting point about Goṇḍī is that with one or two exceptions all its numerals above seven are borrowed from Āryan languages. The Goṇḍ has for years freely taken to the use of other languages than his own and Grierson's remark that "It is probably a question of time when Goṇḍī shall have ceased to exist as an independent form of speech" has proved prophetic by now.

Telugu.

Telugu is mostly spoken in Siroñcā tahsil and a little south of Candrapūr tahsil and follows the course of Vaingaṅgā as far north as Cāmurśi and Gaḍhcirolī. Telugu is supposed to be a mellifluous tongue, the Italian of the east, but according to the Census Report of 1901 the euphonious nature of Telugu is not appreciated by the people of Nāgpūr among whom it is said to sound like stones rattled in a tin. It has voluminous literature, mostly poetical written in a dialect that widely differs from the colloquial form of language. The bulk of the Telugu speaking population of this district use the standard form of language but its purity and quality of pronunciation markedly improves from north to south ; when spoken in the direction of Mul and Cāmurśi, it is to a great extent mixed with Marāṭhī. There is wide divergence in form and pronunciation from place to place. Several minor dialects have been distinguished such as Salevari, the weaver's dialect, Komtan's dialect *i.e.*, the shopkeeper's speech and Golari spoken by the nomadic Golars or Golkars but Dr. Grierson does not think that these departures from standard Telugu which these forms exhibit are striking enough to warrant their separate classification. Russel in his Census Report lumps all these dialects together and states that they are one dialect spoken by a number of castes whose Native Telugu has undergone some modification by being brought into contact with Marāṭhī.

Bilingualism.

A considerable number of people speak subsidiary languages besides their mother-tongue. Such population, known as bilingual population, has increased to a considerable extent during the last few decades. Such population is found more concentrated in urban areas than in villages.

Marāṭhī being the mother-tongue of the majority of the people, there is a fairly large proportion among them who know Hindī, Telugu and Goṇḍī. English is confined to employees in Government offices, high schools and colleges. People speaking Telugu and Goṇḍī also speak workable Marāṭhī.

The Census statistics of bilingual population in the district are given in the following table:

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TABLE No. 13

BILINGUALISM IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1961

Mother-tongue	Total speakers	Total of persons speaking a language subsidiary to mother-tongue	Subsidiary Languages: Chattis-garhi	Goṇḍī	Gujarātī	Hindī	Kewati	Marāṭhī	Maria	Telugu	Urdū	Others
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Chattis-garhi.	4,064	942	..	224	..	332	..	384	..	..	..	2
Goṇḍī ..	114,651	65,228	1,669	..	..	1,301	..	51,371	656	6,180	26	25
Gujarātī ..	2,464	1,804	..	..	..	785	..	951	..	3	33	32
Hindī ..	22,399	11,311	12	186	16	..	..	10,220	9	246	242	366
Kewati ..	3,445	2,753	..	..	..	..	..	2,752	..	1	..	..
Marāṭhī ..	930,444	58,650	196	6,237	23	36,929	67	..	1,197	10,897	267	2,837
Maria ..	31,599	5,203	..	779	..	21	..	1,677	..	2,696	..	30
Telugu ..	95,047	35,495	..	1,393	..	4,545	..	29,093	128	..	181	155
Urdū ..	15,385	8,862	..	12	82	2,691	..	4,995	1	940	..	141

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Of the total population of the district, 2,01,837 persons are enumerated as speaking a language subsidiary to the mother-tongue in Candrapūr district in 1961. In the nature of things, the proportion of bilingual males (1,22,429) is very much higher than that of females (79,408).

The 1961 Census statistics of bilingual population speaking the various subsidiary languages are given below:

Marāṭhī (M. 57,334 – F. 50,601); Hindī (M. 40,197 – F. 8,476); Telugu (M. 13,153 – F. 12,702); Goṇḍī (M. 5,329 – F. 4,408); English (M. 2,780 – F. 468): Maria (M. 1,548 – F. 1,323); Chattisgarhī (M. 996—F. 922); Urdū (M. 654— F. 146); Gujarāti (M. 95 – F. 61); Kosṭi-Marāṭhī (M. 67 – F. 70): Kewati (M. 35—F. 32); Kolami (M. 25 – F. 30): Arabic/Arbi (M. 12 – F. 39); Mārvāri (M. 20 – F. 25); Govari (M. 23 – F. 21); Halabi (M. 15 – F. 22): Kannaḍa (M. 25 – F. 12): Mali (M. 36): Kosari (M. 12 – F. 16): Sanskṛt (M. 23 – F. 4); Punjabi (M. 10 — F. 8); Kaikāḍī (M. 15); Pāradhī (M. 2— F. 9); Bengali (M. 6 — F. 2); Tāmiḷ (M. 7 — F. 1): Kurubā/ Kurumbā (M. 4 – F. 2); Pardesī (M. 1 – F. 3); Pārsī (M. 1 – F. 2); Hatakari (M. 2); Oriyā (M. 1 — F. 1): Dhamdi (M. 1): Koyā (F. 1): Nepāḷī (F. 1).

SCHEDULED CASTES.

The 1961 Census enumerated 18 scheduled castes in Candrapūr district, *viz.*, Basor, Bhaṅgī, Cāmbhār, Ḍohor, Dom, Ellamalvār, Gāṇḍā, Kaikāḍī, Khāṭik, Kolupulvandlu, Maḍgi, Maḍiga, Mahār, mala, Malajaṅgam, Mala Sale (Nerkani), Māṅg and manne. The Census, however, did not return anybody belonging to the five castes of the notified 23 scheduled castes, such as, Bahna, Balahi, Ghasi, Katia and Sansi.

The numerically important scheduled castes are Mahār, Madgi, Cāmbhār and Basor. The remaining fourteen scheduled castes together account for a population of 3,538. The following table gives the population statistics about the scheduled castes in the district in 1961.

TABLE No. 14

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHEDULED CASTES POPULATION BY RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

Name of Scheduled Caste	Population: Males	Population: Females	Percentage to total population of the district	Percentage of each Scheduled Caste population in: Rural areas	Urban areas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
*All Scheduled Castes.	21,998	20,645	3·44	84·94	15·06
(1) Basor	1,619	1,498	0·25	86·81	13·19
(2) Bhaṅgī	547	486	0·08	39·69	60·31
(3) Chambhar ..	2,578	2,472	0·41	82·95	17·05

*Inclusive of persons from the Scheduled Castes who have not stated their individual castes.

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TABLE No. 14—*contd.*

Name of Scheduled Caste	Population		Percentage to total population of the district	Percentage of each Scheduled Caste population in	
	Males	Females		Rural areas	Ubran areas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(4) Dohor	14	27	N	100·00	..
(5) Dom	65	64	0·01	12·40	87·60
(6) Ellamalwār ..	12	10	N	100·00	..
(7) Gāṇḍā	63	39	0·01	100·00	..
(8) Kaikaḍī	50	39	0·01	100·00	..
(9) Khāṭik	290	240	0·04	63·02	36·98
(10) Kolupulvandlu ..	11	18	N	100·00	..
(11) Maḍgi	5,543	4,986	0·85	81·35	18·65
(12) Maḍiga	161	172	0·03	79·88	20·12
(13) Mahār	10,432	9,972	1·65	90·47	9·53
(14) Mala	21	15	N	100·00	..
(15) Malajaṅgam ..	1	2	N	..	100·00
(16) Mala Sale (Netkani).	1	..	N	..	100·00
(17) Māṅg	535	549	0·09	78·32	21·68
(18) Manne	51	55	0·01	96·23	3·77

The Scheduled Castes formed about 17.89 per cent. of the population in 1951 while their percentage declined very sharply to 3.44 in 1961. This decline is attributable to the fact that a large number of persons from Mahār caste reported their religion as Buddhist or Nav-Bauddha in 1961. Hence they are included in Scheduled Castes.

"The Scheduled Caste population in the rural areas of the district does not appear to be very much behind the general population in literacy compared to the urban areas where they are very much behind than the general population. It appears that the Scheduled Castes from rural areas are taking more advantage of the educational facilities and concessions than those in urban areas of the district."

"The proportions of workers and non-workers for the Scheduled Castes are more or less the same as for the general population of the district. The proportion of workers in cultivation is much lower and that of agricultural labourers slightly larger than the district average. The proportion of workers in non-agricultural activities is larger for the Scheduled Castes because of the association of some Scheduled Castes with certain traditional services."

SCHEDULED TRIBES.

As many as 34 tribes have been declared as Scheduled Tribes in the three tahsils of Gaḍhcirolī, Sironcā and Rājurā. The declared lists are different for Gaḍhcirolī and Sironcā on the one hand and Rājurā on the other. No tribe is recognised as a Scheduled Tribe in the tahsils of Candrapūr, Waroḍā and

N=Negligible.

CHAPTER 3. The People. SCHEDULED TRIBES.

Brahmapurī. The 1961 Census enumerated only 13 of the 34 Scheduled Tribes* in the notified areas, such as Bhil, Binjhvār, Goṇḍ, Halbā, Kawar, Khairwār, Kolam, Korku, Koyā, Nagesia, Pardhān, Pārdhī and Thoti. They numbered 1,83,431 or 14.82 per cent. of the total population.

The following table gives the 1961 Census statistics about the Scheduled Tribes in the district:

TABLE No. 15

SCHEDULED TRIBES POPULATION

Name of Scheduled Tribe	Population		Percentage to total population of the district	Percentage of each Scheduled Tribe population in	
	Males	Females		Rural areas	Urban areas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
†All Scheduled Tribes	91,565	91,866	14·82	99·71	0·29
(1) Bhil	91,547	43	0·01	100·00	..
(2) Binjhwār ..	4	6	N	100·00	..
(3) Goṇḍ	82,979	83,287	13·43	99·74	0·26
(4) Halbā	2,351	2,386	0·38	100·00	..
(5) Kawār	1,379	1,433	0·23	100·00	..
(6) Khairwār ..	137	138	0·02	100·00	..
(7) Kolam	778	738	0·12	100·00	..
(8) Korku	..	6	N	100·00	..
(9) Koyā	13	13	N	88·46	11·54
(10) Nagesia ..	15	13	N	100·00	..
(11) Pardhān ..	3,579	3,566	0·58	98·77	1·23
(12) Pārdhī	20	17	N	100·00	..
(13) Thoti	22	23	N	100·00	..

*The remaining 21 Scheduled Tribes for which no one was returned in the notified areas are as under:

Andh, Baiga, Bhaina, Bharia-Bhumia, Bhattra, Bhunjia, Birhul, Dhanwar, Gadaba, Kamar, Kharia, Kondh, Kol, Korwa, Majhwar, Munda, Nihal, Oraon, Parja, Saonta and Sawar.

†Inclusive of persons from the Scheduled Tribes who have not reported their individual tribe.

N = Negligible.

SCHEDULED TRIBES.

The Gonds are the most predominant of the Scheduled Tribes from the point of view of numerical superiority and cultural identity. With a total of 1,66,266 persons, they form about 13.43 of the total population of the district and about 99.74 per cent of the tribal population. Pardhān, with 7,145 persons, is the second largest among the Scheduled Tribes. They are followed by Halbā (4,737 persons), Kawar (2,812 persons), and Kolam (1,516 persons).

The tribal population is concentrated to a very great extent in Sirońcā tahsil where they comprise about 54.26 per cent. of the total population. The corresponding percentages for Gaḍhciroli and Rājurā tahsils are 35.94 and 27.43, respectively. It is noteworthy that the tribal population in the district increased from 130,694 in 1951 to 183,431 in 1961.

"The Scheduled Tribes are very much behind in literacy and education compared to the total population. Particularly the females among them have extremely low rates of literacy. The Gond which is the predominant Scheduled Tribe appears to be the most depressed group in this respect. Other Scheduled Tribes comparatively have slightly higher literacy rates. It is so because the Gond is a group name and includes a large number of Madia or Maria Gonds of Bhamaragad, who still live in the most primitive environment."

"Nearly 93 per cent of the workers from the Scheduled Tribes work as cultivators and agricultural labourers in the district. The labour participation rate is higher (62 per cent.) among them than that (58 per cent.) for the general population of the district. It is so because the Scheduled Tribes are entirely a rural people and have a much more depressed economy. Many special schemes for the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes are in progress. The important among them are the two Tribal Development Blocks functioning at Yetapalli and Dewada, each with a combined allocation of Rs. 15 lakhs for stages I and II. Similar Tribal Development Blocks are proposed to be opened at Bedgaon, Dhanora and Karwafa in the district."*

POPULATION BY RELIGION.

The numerical strength of the various religious communities and sects in the district as returned by the Census of 1961 is as under:

* *District Census Handbook, 1961, Chanda District*, Page 21.

TABLE No. 16

POPULATION BY RELIGION, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, IN 1961

(1)	Buddhists		Christians		Hindus		Jains	
	Males (2)	Females (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)	Males (8)	Females (9)
District .. .. Total ..	74,003	73,858	1,352	1,261	534,558	526,436	787	803
Rural ..	68,513	68,639	682	639	495,036	491,080	360	355
Urban ..	5,490	5,219	670	622	39,522	35,356	427	448
Brahmapurī Tahsil	17,891	18,023	29	39	93,863	93,946	32	26
Warorā Tahsil	15,897	15,804	71	63	101,616	99,270	359	393
Gaḍhciroli Tahsil	14,251	14,115	16	6	122,015	122,206	19	23
Candrapūr Tahsil	22,256	22,172	990	893	123,351	118,576	352	331
Rājurā Tahsil	3,528	3,552	39	39	40,441	39,549	20	23
Sirońcā Tahsil	180	192	207	221	53,272	52,889	5	7

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POPULATION BY RELIGION.

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

(1)	Muslims		Sikhs		Zoroastrians		Others	
	Males (10)	Females (11)	Males (12)	Females (13)	Males (14)	Females (15)	Males (16)	Females (17)
District .. .. .. Total ..	12,460	11,577	376	331	7	7	138	116
Rural ..	8,427	8,064	178	153	..	..	138	116
Urban ..	4,033	3,513	198	178	7	7	..	..
Brahmapurī Tahsil	1,488	1,488	29	31	..	..	17	22
Waroḍā Tahsil	2,519	2,220	43	31	..	..	14	23
Gaḍchirolī Tahsil	2,289	2,228	31	44	..	..	100	55
Candrapūr Tahsil	3,935	3,479	240	197	6	6	7	16
Rājurā Tahsil	1,260	1,121	26	24	1	1	..	..
Sirōñcā Tahsil	969	1,041	7	4	..	..	..	..

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POPULATION BY RELIGION.

The Hindus according to the enumeration of 1961 Census numbered 1,060,994 (m. 534,558 ; f. 526,436) or nearly 85.70 per cent. of the total population of the district. Of these nearly 8 per cent. lived in urban areas and the rest 92 per cent. in rural areas. The increase in the number of Buddhists is obviously due to the return of a large number from the scheduled castes, particularly from the Mahārs of 1951 as Nav-bauddhas of 1961.

CASTES.

The Hindu community is divided into various socially differentiated groups, better known as castes. In consonance with the changes in Government policy the Census enumeration has ceased to take cognisance of these groups since 1941. However, the castes have not ceased to exist as exclusive social groups with their peculiar manners of behaviour, modes of speech and dress, and information regarding these is worth recording. They are quite numerous but in important matters, they do have more similarities than differences as Hindus.

Brāhmaṇs.

Of these the Brāhmaṇs are important because, traditionally, they have been literate and enlightened. They form, however, a small minority, not more than two per cent. even among Hindus. The majority of them in Candrapūr belong to what is known as the *Deśastha* sub-division. In physical appearance they approximate more closely to the Scytho-Dravidian type than to the pure Indo-Āryan races of upper India and probably there is a good deal of mixed blood in the race. They rose to prominence during the Bhosle rule so much so that the period is still referred to as Brāhmaṇ *rāj*. They are still influential enough by reason of their being educationally more advanced. As a race, they possess a marked intellectual ability and have courteous manners. At present, they are found in many walks of life but chiefly as traders, teachers, lawyers, physicians, priests, clerks, Government servants etc. ; the *Mālguzārīs* having been abolished they are no more landlords. Brāhmaṇs of Telugu extraction enjoyed a reputation for being Sanskṛt scholars. All orthodox practices among them have become a matter of the past.

Rājputs and Banias.

Rājputs and Baniās claim to be twice-born and wear the sacred thread like the Brāhmaṇs. Rājputs or Ṭhākūrs are cultivators in the main, though even among them educated young men are now found in the professions and in Government service. The Baniās are enterprising traders and moneylenders, especially Mārwāḍīs. They are respected as socially useful citizens.

Kunbīs.

Amongst the agricultural castes of the district, the Kuṇbīs predominate so greatly in number that the term Kuṇbī in colloquial use means cultivator and even men of other castes engaged in agriculture describe themselves as Kuṇbīs. The sub-castes which are endogamous are Tirole, Khaire, Ḍhanoje, Kheḍulā, Jharia and Wandhekar. The Tirole Kuṇbīs are settlers from Berār who have the reputation of being the most intelligent of the Kuṇbī sub-castes. They eat with Dhanojas but do not intermarry with them. The Dhanoje sub-caste is the wealthiest of

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the Kuṇbī class. They grow any crop suitable to the soil, but chiefly jowar and oilseeds and are noted for the quality of their cattle. The Khaire Kuṇbī whose ancestors probably manufactured *Kāt* or catechu, occupy the northern parts of the Waingaṅgā valley, and grow rice and jowar. They build excellent tanks and are skilful cultivators. The Kheḍulā, whose name is probably derived from Kheḍe, a village, are mainly on the eastern bank of the Waingaṅgā between Wairāgaḍ and Brahmapurī. The Baones are immigrants from Bhaṇḍārā and the Jharias are probably aborigines. Their wild appearance justifies the hypothesis. A branch of the Kuṇbī caste that has migrated from the Telugu country is called Āre, but they still retain these sub-castes and their distinctive names. In social status, these Kuṇbīs rank next to the twice-born castes and employ Brāhmaṇs to perform their religious ceremonies. Widow's remarriage is permitted. They believe that the souls of their deceased ancestors are embodied in crows and are careful to invite them for all marriages. In the month of *Āświn*, an oblation of food is offered to them and if the crows do not eat it, the Kuṇbī is much disturbed and changes the food till they do. The respect in which the caste is held is shown by the proverb *'Kuṇbī matt is Dev Datt' i.e.*, the opinion of the Kuṇbī is God given. He is held to be a simple minded, just, straight forward man whose dealings are free from guile. They are charitable when they see a good cause but do not give very easily. They are the backbone of the Hindu agricultural operations in the district.

Marār.

The Marār or Māḷīs generally irrigate a little patch of garden from an uncased well dug in the bed of a stream. They provide the vegetables and spices so largely consumed by all to give variety to the rather unappetising diet of pulse and rice. The great majority of Maḷīs belong to the Kosri or Kosaria sub-division a name which recalls Kosala, the ancient kingdom of which Candrapūr once formed a large part. The remaining sub-divisions are mainly distinguished by the plants they chiefly cultivate. These are the Phulmāḷīs or flower-growers, Jarya who cultivate *laṣun* or garlic, brinjals, *bhāṅg* and Hardya and Ghase, turmeric. These last sub-divisions are immigrants from Berār. Phulmāḷīs socially rank highest and turmeric growers lowest of the sub-castes. The Pahad sub-caste is almost a separate caste. The women of the caste are reputed to be pretty. The caste is industrious and of good status.

Telī.

Because the hereditary occupation of this caste is oil-pressing, they are known as Telīs, but a large majority of them have abandoned it and taken to cultivation. They are divided into Ekbaila, Dobaila, Erandia, Sao-Telī and Gondhī. Ekbaila Telīs use only one bullock in their oil-mill while Dobailas use two. Sao-Telīs are mainly cultivators and grow sugarcane and rice. Sao, meaning banker is a term of respect. The Gondhīs are land owners, traders and moneylenders and aspire to be classed as Baniās. Some of them have adopted the sacred thread of the twice-born. They appear to have raised their social status by change of occupation and in their case this was perhaps rendered easier by the fact that they are Telugus by race and immigrants to the district. Erandia Telīs are usually in easy circumstances, being an industrious and enterprising caste.

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Dhimār.

Dhimārs or fishermen are sub-divided into three sub-castes—Bhanare, Bendare and Machhinde. Also the Palewars or Bhoīs, though of Telugu race and the Kewats are locally classed as sub-castes. The women of the sub-castes are distinguished by the bangles they wear. Bhanare women wear iron and Bendare women wear brass bangles on both arms and if married one lac bangle. No Dhimār may wear shoes, only open work sandals and caste penalty is exacted for any breach of this rule. The ancestral occupation is fishing and they are the boatmen of the district and in former times were palanquin-bearers also. They cultivate the *siṅgada nut* in tanks, grow water-melons, turmeric, hemp and tobacco on the slopes of river banks and alluvial islets. They also breed the tusser silk-worm. The men are usually of excellent physique, clean-limbed and muscular.

Mahārs.

In most villages there is a Māhar quarter where they have been living apart. There is little doubt that they are descendants of an aboriginal race. They say that their original home was in Pooṇā and their first forefather, a great sage. The sub-divisions of the caste are numerous but none are of much importance except the Somśī who claim a higher rank, through some connection which they trace with the Rājput dynasty of Somavanśī. Their caste rules are complicated and strict. The dog seems to be a totem in the caste. They do not swear by its name nor injure one. The majority of the caste are day labourers, some of the more enterprising being cultivators. A large number are weavers who provide a strong coarse cloth which finds ready sale among labourers because of its durability. The *Kotvāls* or village watchmen are mainly drawn from this caste. They are not unintelligent and a good many of the cultivators and weavers have abandoned caste and joined the *Kabīrpanth*. Of late many have become Nav-buddhists under Dr. Ambedkar's influence. They have started educating their children and look forward to a better life in times to come. Malas are a Telugu caste who have the same status as Mahārs. They probably have been pariahs but in Candrapūr they have been calling themselves Telaṅgī Sadar Bhoīs. They were distinguished till recently by the loose method they have of tying their *dhoti* and the squarish shape of their head-wear.

Kapewār.

Kapewars are a Telugu caste of cultivators like Kuṇbīs. They are also skilled stone masons and Major Lucie Smith's conjecture is that they may have been previously employed in building the Candrapūr walls and took to cultivation later. They have some peculiar marriage customs. On the 4th night of the ceremony, the bridegroom, bearing portions of a plough, followed by the bride, carrying cooked food in a cloth, walks to the edge of the marriage booth and drills five furrows with an ox goad in which

he sows mixed cotton-seed and jowar. The cooked food is then eaten by the pair who share it with all present and the seed is watered by the company washing their hands over it.

Komṭī.

Komṭīs are a Telugu caste corresponding to the Baniās. They claim to be Vaiśya and wear the sacred thread, but their caste customs and marriage regulations, especially the rule to compel a boy to marry his paternal uncle's daughter indicate a Dravidian origin. So the claim is doubtful. They do not permit widows to remarry. Women are scarce in the caste and so the bride-price is high. The caste is wealthy and industrious and has considerable influence in the district.

Dhangar and Kurumwars.

Dhangars (Marāṭhā) and Kurumwars (Kannaḍa) are shepherds. The latter feed their flock in the Waingaṅgā valley. They mix little with local people and do not even learn their language but speak their own tongue. They worship Hindu gods but their special gods are Mallana Deva and Mallani Devī who are the guardians of their herds. The shrines of these gods are generally placed under banyan trees and in form are very like Scythian cromlechs for which they are sometimes mistaken, but a Kurumwar shrine is always open to the east. Both Dhangars and Kurumwars manufacture *kambals* or woollen blankets which are in great demand among labourers and field workers.

Velama.

The Velamās are a cultivator caste of Telugus. They have a fairly high social status and one sub-division secludes their women. They appear to be originally a cultivating caste some of whom took to military service and others became dyers. The former are now of high rank, *zamindārs* and landlords while their less ambitious brethren dyers and weavers.

Artisan Castes.

The artisan castes of Candrapūr have a reputation for considerable skill in their various trades. Their customs do not differ markedly from those of similar castes elsewhere and do not call for special notice. Sonārs (Marāṭhā) and Pāñcāl (Telugu) are goldsmiths. They are skilful but do not differ much from conventional patterns of making jewellery. The Pāñcāls sometimes work in iron as well as in precious metals. Koṣṭīs (Marāṭhā) and Salewars (Telugu) are weavers. They prepare silk-bordered saris and finer fabrics. Their work is artistic but they are not able to compete with mills. Lohārs are blacksmiths; Nais are barbers; Vañjārīs are cattle dealers and traders; Dhobīs are washermen. All these are only counterparts of their fellowmen in other districts. Telugu washermen are called Warthi. Sutārs are carpenters and are famed for their skill in carving. Camārs (Marāṭhā) and Maḍgis (Telugu) are leather workers, who make pretty embroidered slippers which are locally much appreciated. Bestas are a caste of Telugu fishermen akin to Palewars. They were also formerly palanquin-bearers. They are a sturdy and muscular people like the other fishing castes. Gurav, and Satani are castes of temple servants and temple keepers. Many Guravs officiate as village *pujārīs*. Satanis are marked by the fact that they do not wear the sacred thread.

Goṇḍ.

Among the many tribes and races which inhabit Candrapūr district, the most interesting ethnologically and historically are the Goṇḍs who were for centuries the dominant race in the district and far beyond its bounds. The prestige of the race is still kept up by Scions of the ancient royal line whose last descendant was a political pensioner of the British and the Goṇḍ nobility who are now in rather straightened circumstances. The Goṇḍs still constitute 15 per cent of the total population. They are divided into four endogamous tribes, *viz.*, Rāj-Goṇḍs, Madia, Dhurve and Khatulwar Goṇḍs. There are also other minor sub-tribes who would not class themselves with any of the above tribes but they are few. The most notable of these are the Koyas and the Gaitas. These sub-tribes all speak dialects of the Goṇḍī language which differ considerably but the difference is mainly due to the fact that the limited vocabulary of the Goṇḍī language is supplemented by words from the language of their nearest Hindu neighbours. In the south of the district, the language thus drawn upon is Telugu, in the west and the north Marāṭhī and in the eastern and northern parts Hindī. It thus happens that the Dhurve Goṇḍ from Rāipūr border would have some difficulty in understanding the language of a Madia from Ahiri. The Dhurve and Khatulwar Goṇḍs are found in what were the northern *zamindāris* along the Drug district border. The Dhurve Goṇḍs or at least a portion of them call themselves Nāik Goṇḍs and their dialect Nāikī. They hold themselves to be descendants of the soldiers of the Goṇḍ King's army and still prefer service as police or peons to agricultural work.

The Khatulwar Goṇḍs have adopted many Hindu customs. They wear the sacred thread of the twice born castes, use the title Thākūr, and, as Major Lucie Smith says, 'try hard to believe that they have Rājput blood in their veins.' The Koyā dialect of Goṇḍī is nearly Telugu. The name Koyā may be connected with the name by which the Goṇḍs still call themselves 'Koitur' (Man). The Gaita Goṇḍs are remarkable because they are almost alone in retaining the old Goṇḍī custom, once universal, of building their village in two long barracks lying east and west facing each other about 80 feet apart. In these barracks the married people dwell, while the bachelors of the tribe are relegated to a barrack at one end of the village. In some cases, unmarried girls have a barrack at the opposite end of the village, but usually they live in the house of the Gaital or headman. The two main sects of Goṇḍs in Candrapūr are Rāj-Goṇḍs and the Madias who divide the bulk of the Goṇḍ population between them.

Maḍiā Goṇḍ.

The Madias inhabit the wilder tracts of what once were the *zamindāris* and in their unsophisticated state are a very attractive people. The villages are usually situated deep in the jungle near some wide shallow stream, which offers facilities for cultivation and the surrounding jungles supplement the fruits of their agricultural efforts. The Madias are a lithe, active looking,

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well-built set of men. Their good looks are often marred by the ravages of small-pox and skin-diseases and a mild form of leprosy called *Goṇḍi rog* is fairly frequently seen. What struck European officers working among them during the British rule was the open hearty manner and the cheerful smile of good fellowship markedly different from the schooled politeness of the Hindu. Their dress is scanty consisting of a compromise between a *laṅgoṭi* and a *dhoti*, a strip of cloth wound tightly round the waist in rope like folds and passed between the legs with the spare end hanging down in front below the knees. Often this garment diminishes to the scantiest rag. They adorn their necks with handsome strings of beads and their arms occasionally with metal and glass bangles. Their ears are pulled out of shape by the weight of numerous brass rings with which they are usually garnished and occasionally they wear turbans. A curved knife with a brass mounted handle is stuck into the waist-cloth and from the shoulder dangles the ever handy axe without which a Goṇḍ seldom moves. Madia women wear a *lugḍa* of strong cloth usually white with a coloured strip in the border. They wear no *coḷi*, no Goṇḍ woman ever does and their necks, like their husbands' are garnished with beads. They frequently tattoo their faces and limbs in intricate patterns.

Goṇḍ dances.

All Goṇḍs and especially Madias, are very fond of dancing. It is the great amusement of the people. Night after night in the eastern tracts in the cool moon-lit nights of the hot weather, the sojourner in the camp is lulled to sleep by the rhythmic lilt of a Goṇḍī chorus as the villagers dance round a fire in some open space near the hamlet. The favourite dance is a peculiar rippling step forward with the foot dragged, not very graceful when done by a single individual, but looking quite different when done in unison by a great circle of dancers singing a 're-la', 're-la', chorus to which the step keeps time. In some villages, where the headman is an enthusiast for the pastime, a trained band performs weird and wonderful step dances to the sound of the drum. At a big dance, the trained band occupies the inner ring round the fire, while the common folk, men and maids, in separate rings move round in great circles in opposite ways. All are dressed for the occasion in their best, bearing in their hands weird ornaments of wicker work, with garlands of flowers on their necks and in their hair, feather ornaments humorously or coquettishly placed. Seen in the glow of a huge log fire, glinting on the shining beads and barbaric ornaments of the dancers, with the throb of the drums and the beat of many feet moving in unison to the wild music of the voices in chorus, a Madia dance is a spectacle not easily forgotten, but lingers as a characteristic scene when other details have faded out of the memory. Men and women ordinarily dance in separate circles but in the dances where the young men choose their brides, they dance in couples.

Rāj Goṇḍs.

The Rāj Goṇḍs are to be found on both sides of the Waingaṅgā but few of them are found in the wilder tracts where the

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Madias dwell. They are more sophisticated than the Madias and from intercourse with Hindus have adopted a larger number of Hindu customs. Major Lucie Smith suggests that they acquired the term Rāj Goṇḍ as being the sub-tribe connected with the royal house or perhaps because they first rose to power when Candrapūr passed under Goṇḍ rule. They are as a rule shorter and perhaps darker than the Madia but resemble him in features. They are tough fellows and like the Madias "wise all manner of venary". They are mostly tenants and farm labourers but prefer if possible to do jungle work and many of them are found in Government forest villages.

Verrier Elvin who worked for many years among the Central India Hill Tribes says the following about the Goṇḍs in his *The Tribal World* (1964):—

"We have little knowledge of how they lived until in the fourteenth century, we find them established as *Rājās* in different parts of Central India which at that time was known as Goṇḍvana. Their Government seems to have been tolerant and kindly; the country prospered; forts, tanks and wells were built; the palaces were filled with wealth. Akbar found a hundred jars of gold coins, much jewellery and a thousand elephants in the fort Cauragaḍh. The Kings of Candrapūr built royal tombs, lakes and palaces and surrounded their city for seven miles with a great wall. Herds and flocks increased and even the peasants, it is said, paid tributes in elephants and gold *mohurs*".

"But the Goṇḍ Kings had no organisation, no ability for war and faced with the invasion of Maharatta Chieftains in the eighteenth century, their Kingdoms collapsed almost without resistance and they were driven deep into the recesses of the forest. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, they had split up into a number of wild and warlike groups, making a living by plundering caravans and raiding the smaller towns from their mountain strongholds. Under British rule, they grew pacific and settled on the land and took to their present occupation of farming. But now they suffered oppression and exploitation, for there soon came merchants and liquor-vendors, cajoling, tricking, swindling them in their ignorance and simplicity until, bit by bit, their broad acres dwindled and they sank into the poverty in which many of them still live to-day. This poverty was not only material; at the same there came a poverty of culture. For this reason it is not easy to speak of the culture of the Goṇḍs, for it varies greatly from area to area and what there is today is only a shadow of what must have been. The Goṇḍs have few arts or crafts, they do not weave and only rarely carve in wood. Their pots and their baskets are usually made for them by others. They have adopted to a considerable degree the religion of their Hindu neighbours. Their language which is a Dravidian tongue, is now spoken by less than half their people".

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"Their culture survives in their memories of the past, for they have an extensive mythology, in the legendary history of their old kings and heroes and in the dance and song at which they are still expert. There is a story that long ago, at the beginning of all things, there were seven Gond brothers who made a feast in honour of Bura Pen, their great god. They spread sumptuous offerings before him, then they asked their youngest brother to make music for them but he refused and it was only when they heaped gifts upon him, gold and silver, jewellery and all manner of ornaments, that he consented. Then with a gourd and a piece of wood and a strand of wire (some say it was a hair of his own head) he made the first fiddle and played so exquisitely on it that the god came down to bless the feast".

"Gond poetry is simple and symbolic, free of all literary conventions and allusions. It is poetry of earth and sky, of forest, hill and river, of the changing seasons and the varied passions of men, a poetry of love, naked and unashamed, unchecked by any inhibition or restraint. The bulk of the poems are songs of the dance and the most poetic of them are perhaps the songs of the great *Karma* dance which is common to many of the primitive tribes of Central India. This dance symbolises the growth of the green branches of the forest in the spring; sometimes a tree is set up in the village and the people dance around it. The men leap forward to a rapid roll of drums and the women sway back before them. Then bending low to the ground, the women dance, their feet moving in perfect rhythm until the group of singers advances towards them like the steady urge of wind coming and going among the tree tops and the girls swing to and fro in answer. They often dance all night until lost in a rapture of movement, they surprise the secret of Lila, the ecstasy of creation, that ancient zest in the glory of which God made all things".

"This is the one great cultural interest of the people. A girl dancer is compared by the Gonds to a lovely tree moving to the unseen power of nature and one of their riddles asks, "There is a dumb bird that sits on a beautiful tree; shake the tree and the bird awakes and sings". The answer is, "The anklets on the feet of a girl who goes to the dance"".

Internal social structure of Gonds.

Certain institutions are common to all sects of Gonds. Their ceremonies at births, marriages and deaths do not vary greatly and the description that follows applies, perhaps, with very slight modifications to all Gonds of Candrapūr.

All tribes of Gonds are divided into exogamous groups which still bear traces of a half-forgotten totemism. For instance, the Rāj Gonds are divided into four groups each with a totem sacred to it. As given by Major Lucie Smith these are: For the four God Gonds the totems are Tortoise and Crocodile; for the five God Gonds, Iguana; for the six God Gonds, Tiger; for the seven God Gonds, Porcupine. But the only group which has retained any trace of these totems in the six god group is the one which still venerates the tiger and the Gond tiger is used as the crest of the royal house. These groups are again sub-divided into 'Houses' or families distinguished by their family name or *padi*. Among the Rāj Gonds, there are 28 such houses or families, among the Madias 24, and among the Dhurve Gonds 17. The others have not been ascertained. The *padi* of the Gond Kings is *Atram*. The exogamous unit is the group. No Gond may marry within his own group but must mate with a woman belonging to a group with a different member of Gods from his own. Commonly, therefore, in a village, one finds the Gonds divided into two groups, say, seven god Gonds and five god Gonds. The children belong to the father's group. Madias do not intermarry with Rāj-Gonds, but the records of the Aheri family show that once they did so.

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Internal social structure of Gonds.

Gond Religion.

The Gond religion is described as animism, but the attitude of mind, which animism here connotes, is a tendency to attribute personality to every object, animate or inanimate which influences the Gond at any time. It is the theory by which he explains the phenomena of the world around him and is rather a crude form of primitive science than a primitive religion. A current Hindu sarcastic tale against the Gond in this district illustrates this attitude of mind. A Gond was sent to a neighbouring village with a basket of mangoes and a letter. On the way he carefully buried the letter and ate two mangoes. Thoughtfully covering the basket and removing all traces of his delinquency, he unearthed the letter and proceeded on his way. On arrival he was intensely chagrined to find that the letter, in spite of his precautions, still gave him away. This story which is probably true enough, shows that when a Gond personifies a thing, he does not necessarily deify or worship it. He only imagines that it has a personality similar or inferior to his own. His gods are quite different to his personification of natural objects. The chief god is called Pharsa Pen, who is worshipped under the form of a nail and sometimes a piece of iron chain. These nails are prepared only by Madia Gonds and are kept for sale enclosed in bamboo tubes. Such nails are quite costly. Along with the long nail or the spearhead which is the emblem of Pharsa Pen, the Gond would place a number of arrow heads equal in number to the number of gods in his group, less one, that is a six god Gond would put beside the large spearhead five arrow heads to make up the number six. These were put in a bag or pot and hung from the roof tree or from a branch of a tree overhanging the door of the hut.

Besides Pharsa Pen, the Gonds worship a considerable number of other gods some of whom like Marīāī, the goddess of plagues, diseases and death and Bhīmsen, the Hindu demi-god that they have borrowed from their neighbours; others are local like Tādobā, who dwells in the beautiful lake of that name and Wāghobā whose image is so often seen on the outskirts of any village marking the place where a man has been slain by a tiger.

CHAPTER 3. The People. CASTES. Gond. Gond Religion.

One Gond belief is that the soul of the slain will inhibit the image of the tiger thus set up, and being inimical to his slayer will attack tiger at every opportunity and thus act as a village guardian. Once a year, a great pilgrimage of Gonds and other Hindus is made to Sāt Bahini, the great flat-topped hill near Nāgbhir, concerning which there are confused legends. The Gond believes in the immortality of the soul, but his faith is a very vague one. Amongst some transmigration is dimly held and a curious ceremony is performed which tends to define this belief. A Gond like most Indians must not die on a bed but stretched on Mother Earth. On the place where a man's head rested at the moment of death, a small head of grain is made and covered with a basket on which a lighted lamp is extinguished, the basket lifted and the wise among the Gond discern on the heap of grain, the foot-print of the animal which the soul of the departed will inhabit in next life.

Marriage.

The position of women among Gonds is practically that of equality with the other sex. Normally a Gond maid is free to be wooed by the man of her choice and hardly any girl is under sixteen at the time of marriage. The young couple generally first agree to be married but the negotiations are carried on by their elders. When a betrothal has been arranged, the bridegroom's party comes and plants a spear in the courtyard of the bride's house which none may pull up. If the bride's party consent, water is poured over the spear by the father of the girl and the ceremony may then proceed. Should the bride's father fail to do this, the bridegroom's party considers itself insulted and the father of the bride is heavily fined. A platform of cowdung cakes is built on which a blanket is spread; on this the couple takes its stand and exchange vows. The bridegroom puts an iron ring on the finger of the bride and the ceremony is complete. The pair then leaves the wedding party and betakes itself to a temporary but previously prepared rendezvous in the forest.

When a man is unable to pay the bride-price demanded by the parent, it is sometimes arranged that he serves the parent for his bride. A parent may demand five, eight or ten year's service. If during the first three years the bride is not known to have lost her chastity, the full marriage ceremony then takes place, but if the contrary is proved the marriage takes place by *pāṭ* ceremony. In *pāṭ* or widow marriage the pair stands under the eaves of the bridegroom's house with an upright spear between them. A mixture of turmeric and oil is applied to the bridegroom's forehead and to the iron spearhead. A string of beads is then tied round the neck of the bride by the bridegroom and the pair walks into the house man and wife.

In marriage by capture, the bridegroom collects a party of friends and carries off the bride from her village. When they arrive at the bridegroom's house, a pot of water is poured over their heads and they become man and wife but are supposed to live apart until the full marriage ceremony can be performed.

CHAPTER 3. The People. CASTES. Gond. Marriage.

Marriage by capture has fallen into disuse as it was apt to lead to complications with the Indian Penal Code. But irrespective of the Code, it was not free from difficulty. Major Lucie Smith records a case wherein a fascinating Gond maid of 16 was carried off from her village and married to suitor No. I. Next night a disappointed rival's party appeared and carried her off and married her to suitor No. II. Then her own village party arose to ask as to whose wife she was and the young woman solved the difficulty by declaring for suitor No. I. There remained the delicate question as to whether she was to be married with *marmi*, the full wedding ceremony or *pāṭ*, second marriage, rites. It was finally decided by the elders that only *pāṭ* rites could be granted, which was certainly very hard on the young woman.

Birth Rites.

On the 9th day after the birth of a child, a feast is given and the naming ceremony takes place. It may be named after the month or the season as *Wanja* from *Wanji*, rice *i.e.*, one born in the rice harvest or *Irpa* from *irpu*, the *mahua* flower. Should a difficulty occur about a name, a little rice is tied in a piece of cloth and swung in front of the child while a list of names is shouted out. At whatever name the child clutches the cloth that name is chosen. After the birth of the first son, the names of the parents are merged in the name of the son. Thus if the son be called Reka, the father is known as Rekaltapa and the mother as Rekaltanni.

Funeral Rites.

Persons who die of cholera or small-pox and young children are buried but others are usually burnt. The body is borne by the mourners to the burning place and laid on the pile of fire wood which is lighted. The skull of the deceased is broken with a stake which is specially placed for the purpose. The mourners then leave the pile and wash in a stream. An ox is sometimes killed, but more often a goat or fowl and the flesh eaten by the mourners. The animal must be slain by a single blow from a heavy wooden axe. After the feast the mourners return home and refrain for three days from their usual occupations. A small cromlech is built on the spot where the body was burnt and usually a pot with a few small coins is placed within it. Amongst the Madias, in the case of man, a stone or a carved post about five feet high is usually put up to mark the spot. Sometimes one comes across a forest glade strewn with these memorials, the only sign of some deserted village, the very name of which has perished.

Witchcraft.

The intense hatred of the Gond for witchcraft in which he is a firm believer, is mainly due to the fact that he conceives of it as the unlawful propitiation of supernatural powers, who are enemies of the village and of the racial gods to induce them to bring evil on members of the tribe. When a person is suspected of witchcraft — the victim is usually a woman — she is taken to the nearest stream or pool, in which three men stand. The woman is immersed in the pool while the first man throws an arrow on the second who gathers it and throws it on the third who throws

CHAPTER 3. The People. CASTES. Gond. *Witchcraft.*

it to the bank. If the woman remains under water while this is being done, she is innocent, if she comes up she is a witch. Her head is shaved, her front teeth knocked out and she is banished from the village.

A curious ceremony was performed at the funeral of the *zamindār* of Khutgāñv whose widow suspected that he was done to death by witchcraft. Three Madias who knew the ancient rites were sent for. They laid the body on a bier which was borne by the usual bearers. In front of the body, one of the Madias, repeating the necessary spells, crushed a chicken to death. The life then entered into the corpse which impelled the bearers to visit the usual places frequented by the deceased and finally hurried them towards the neighbouring village where he had breathed his last. This last movement, the bearers endeavoured to resist but could not and finally some fifty persons were required to force the bier to the burning ghat. Here three *yen* leaves were placed, one named witchcraft, the other ghost or spirits, the third natural death. The bearers were impelled forward and stopped at the leaf named 'natural death'. The positions of the leaves were changed repeatedly without the knowledge of the bearers but invariably they stopped at the leaf named natural death. Had they stopped at the leaf named 'witchcraft', the spirit of the departed would then have impelled the bearers to search out the delinquent from the assembled villagers and the usual punishment would have followed. Such superstitions are now dying out but not long ago they greatly influenced the Gonds.

Pardhān.

There are a number of forest sub-tribes or castes in small numbers who appear to have been subjugated by the Gonds. They are inferior to them in social rank and used to perform the usual village services exacted from subject races, though during the last many decades they have now taken to agriculture and have greatly raised their status. In features and general physique they bear a strong resemblance to the Gond type. The Pardhāns were formerly the musicians and bards attached to Gond families of distinction. In many Gond villages, the Pardhān also performs priestly functions like blessing the cattle and the fields. Now, as a caste, their occupation is spinning and weaving. In former days, they were able to recite the genealogies of the Gond chiefs and sing ballads in praise of their valour. Some still follow their ancestral profession of village musicians and a few may relate somewhat haltingly legendary tales of ancient days. Locally they are classed with Mahārs as a caste.

About the Manas, there is a legend that previous to the rise of the Gond kingdom, they were the dominant race in Candrapūr and ruled from the fortresses of Māṇigaḍ and Suriyagaḍ. Ṭhākūr Dev on the summit of Suriyagaḍ is still their tutelary deity. They seem, however, to have lost this tradition among themselves and only remember that once they were soldiers and the sword is one of the objects of worship. The true origin of the caste has not been discovered but they are supposed to be

CHAPTER 3. The People. CASTES. Pardhān.

an off-shoot of the Gonds who have greatly raised their status by becoming cultivators and adopting the whole of the Hindu pantheon. They are skilful farmers. They both burn and bury their dead, but the corpse must be laid on the pyre or in the grave with its feet to the north.

Gowāri.

The grazier castes of the district are Gowāris, Gavlīs, Golkars and Ahirs. The Gowāris are believed to be of Gond extraction although a considerable number of them calling themselves Gāi-Gowāris have risen in the social scale and designate their less ambitious brethren Gond-Gowāris. They have a legend that their first ancestor was a foundling and set to tend the cattle, which became the hereditary occupation of his descendants. They revere the green pigeon because its call is similar to the low whistle they use to call their herds and have legends telling how by its call it rescued their cattle from thieves who were carrying them off. The Gowāris observe a marriage ceremonial very similar to that of the Gonds and like them are divided into exogamous sects, but besides this, they recognise certain other sects as *Dudhbhāis*, milk brothers, with whom also marriage is forbidden. This is regarded as a relic of polyandry, the *dudhbhāis* being probably the off-springs of the same mother by different fathers. The Gowāris are distinguished by a caste mark which is a vertical line tattooed on the forehead for males and a vertical line standing on the horizontal one for females. Without this mark denoting caste a Gowari's legitimacy is doubted and he is not admitted to caste privileges. The Golkars are cow-keepers of Telugu origin and mostly tend herds of milch buffaloes. They are divided among Yera and Nana *i.e.*, black and white Golkars. The Ahirs have come from North India and the Gavlīs are immigrants from the Marāṭhā country. All these castes breed and sell cattle and deal in milk and Ghee.

Kohlis

The Kohlis are a small caste but noted for their skill in tank building and irrigation and they take great pride in their work. The status of a Kohli is measured by the size of his tank and the length of his embankment. They cultivate rice and sugarcane and are the chief gur manufacturers of the district. Tradition says that they were brought by a Gond King from Banaras on his return from a visit to that city on pilgrimage. Sherring, following Major Lucie Smith holds that they are Hinduised aborigines and the latter points to their physical resemblance to the Gond as a proof. The Kohlis themselves say they came from Bhaṇḍārā and the Bhaṇḍārā Kohlis say they emigrated from Lāñjī in Bālāghāṭ. Mr. Marten suggests that they might be connected with Ponvars of that district as they have similar characteristics. This rather points to a northern origin as does the similarity of their names to the Kohlis, a gardening caste of Hindustan, but neither in their speech nor in their family names can any trace of Hindustani origin be detected. Their caste discipline is very efficient. All quarrels are settled by the caste pañcāyat and courts of law are seldom resorted to. Brides

CHAPTER 3. The People. CASTES. Kohlis.

are costly and a widow of full age commands double the ordinary price. Divorce is seldom resorted to as it entails heavy penalties on both parties. The erring spouse is taken back by her husband and a trifling fine is imposed by the caste. Marriage ceremonies are rather peculiar. The status of the caste permits them to employ a Brāhman, but for the sake of economy all the marriages in a village are celebrated on the same day once in a year. The officiating Brāhman ascends the roof of a house and beats a brass vessel to attract the attention of the different parties and repeats the marriage *mantras* as the sun goes down. Simultaneously, the various couples garland each other. The bridegroom ties the *mangala-sutra* (a necklace of black beads) round the neck of the bride and the ceremony is complete. Subsidiary ceremonies also take place. The bride's brother ties a thread round the marriage crowns and receives a present for untying it. One unexplained ceremonial is the presentation of wooden models of a shoemaker's knife and *Khurpa* or scraper. A widow is married to a sword which represents her second husband who never attends the ceremony in person. Kohlis eat flesh but abstain from drink. They enjoy a fairly high social status.

Other Aborigines.

The remaining forest tribes are Kavars, Halbis, Thotis, Jharīas, Araks, Pārdhīs and others. They are mostly of the servant class or tenants. The Halbis appear to have been formerly soldiers but are now a cultivating class of good status, though they are only a few in Candrapūr. The Thotis are a small tribe of bamboo workers who formerly were wandering musicians. The Pārdhīs are a tribe of wandering hunters and trappers. They are a black, diminutive race who live in tiny tents. Their traps and snares are very ingenious and are often manufactured from the sinews of birds' wings but brass wire has come into vogue during the last many decades. Major Lucie Smith says of the aboriginal races that "they are not a whit below the Hindus in intellectual capacity, while in simplicity and manliness of character they are really superior." The progress of education and cultivation among them is much slower than among Hindus. But there has been considerable improvement in this respect also during the last few decades.

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS. Hindus.

Hindus distributed in the various castes and sub-castes belong to two main classes (1) Brahmanic Hindus including Brāhmans and others who worship Brahmanic gods and employ Brāhmans as their priests for religious and social functions and (2) low caste and tribal Hindus who mainly worship non-Brahmanic gods and animistic deities. These include the large body of Gonds and others whose way of life has been separately dealt with previously. The great mass of the people thus belong to some form of Hinduism in spite of the fact that Candrapūr once was one of the great Buddhist centres. Bhāndak has been identified as one of the cities visited by the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsiang (629—45 A.D.). This ancient faith has utterly disappeared from the district. The caves and the sculptured Buddha images at Bhāndak are almost the only memorials of its existence. It

CHAPTER 3. The People. RELIGIOUS BELIEFS. Hindus.

appears to have been superseded by Śiva worship about the 10th or 11th century A.D. and to this day, the majority of the people are Śaivites. Nevertheless Buddhist influence may be traced in the more advanced theories of local religious thought.

Hinduism is a comprehensive term and comprises religious opinions that range from the most transcendental theories of Hindu philosophy to the debased cults of primitive peoples and startling contrasts of advanced speculation side by side with savage magic are specially characteristic of Cāndā Hinduism. A number of the more learned have studied the *Geetā* and the *Upaniṣada* but very few know anything about the systems and the majority prefer to leave the higher walks of the path that leads to *Mukti* or absolution to a future birth. The learned *Śāstrīs* teach that all who would attain *Mukti* must be enlightened and practise *yoga*. For such, there are four states of sublime happiness as reward *viz.*, *Salokatā i.e.*, abiding in the heaven of the god one has worshipped: *samipatā i.e.*, to be ever in the presence of his throne: *Sarūpatā*, *i.e.*, to bear likeness to the god served and *Sayujyatā i.e.*, absorption into the essence of Brahma. From each of the first three states, the soul, after enjoying the reward of its virtue will return to the earth and be reborn, but *sayujyatā* is perfect salvation, freedom from rebirth, from where there is no return. But this teaching is esoteric, meant for the already initiated in the pursuit of God-hunt. Much nearer the hearts of even the educated is the worship of the gods according to the forms hallowed by immemorial custom. In every Brāhman household there is a *pañcāyatana* of gods, whose emblems placed in due order in a shrine, are worshipped daily. They are bathed and some of the water so used is applied to the forehead of the worshipper and a little of it is drunk. Food and flowers are offered to them. The shrine is a square or oblong platform in the centre of which is placed Mahādev and round him are grouped four others whose emblems are placed one at each corner of the platform. These emblems are as follows: Mahādev in the centre is represented by a *linga* or by a white oval stone with a groove in it brought from the Narmadā river. Behind him at the back corners of the platform are Viṣṇu and Surya, Viṣṇu represented by the Śāligrām, a black stone brought from the Gandakī, a tributary of the Gangā and Surya by the *sphatika*, a clear transparent stone. In the front of the platform are Devī, represented by a brass image and Gaṇapati whose emblem is a red stone. These stones are brought and sold by wandering Brāhmans. Besides the *pañcāyatana*, each household reveres a family god who may be included in the shrine. Rāma and Kṛṣṇa are often so worshipped.

Śiva Worship.

The *Pañcāyatana* of gods supplies a clue to the maze of polytheism in the district. The majority of the Hindus seems to worship one supreme god who is called Mahādev and is identified with Śiva. The cult of the multitude of minor gods appears to have relation only to the wants of this present life and corresponds to the *douleia* or secondary veneration paid to saints and

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Śiva Worship.

angels in other lands. It could scarcely be said that they arrive at monotheism, but amongst the educated, the worship of the Supreme God stands out more distinctly and that of lesser gods fades in importance, while among the ignorant, the worship of the lesser gods is more prominent and the idea of Mahādev becomes dimmer and vague. More people may be seen in Candrapūr wearing the silver casket containing the *liṅgam* or phallic sign of Śiva than in any other district of this State. A child is invested with it seven days after birth and it never parts with it, for it is buried with the body after death. Śiva may be regarded as the representative of the *Vedic* Rudra, but in this district he is revered as the Supreme God. Megasthenes (300 B.C.) identified him with Dionysous. The coarser elements in his worship represent a compromise between *Vedic* religion and the Dravidian rites of which local Hinduism is compounded.

Village Gods.

In nearly every Hindu village will be found, besides a temple of Śiva, usually fashioned after the *Hemāḍpanti* style, a shrine of Marīāī, another of Māruti, then probably outside the village, an earthfast stone smeared with red paint (*śendūr*) representing Bhimsen and especially in the eastern and southern tracts, the highly ornamented earthenware horse who is Balkideva. Many other gods are there, the numerous incarnations of Viṣnu, *Nāga*, the holy snake, the various trees like the *tulsi* plant, the *peepal* and the banyan. In fact several gods of the Hindu pantheon are commemorated in an occasional shrine within the district. By far the most important of the minor deities is the Marīāī *Devī*. She is sometimes identified with Kālī and protects against small-pox, cholera, ophthalmia, *madhura*, *govar*, cattle-diseases and other ills but if her worship is neglected, will bring these troubles on the people. She seems to have combined in her single person the virtues and vices of the seven *Devīs* of the Telugu country. The seven, according to one legend, are the deities on *Sāt Bahini* Hill near Nāgbhir, called (1) Pocammā, goddess of small-pox, (2) Marīammā, goddess of cholera, (3) Muttiyalammā (pearl), goddess that protects against *madhura*, (4) Duggalammā, goddess of cough, (5) Baṅgarammā, goddess of gold, (6) Mahiṣammā, goddess of buffaloes, and (7) Illammā, the protectress. In propitiating the goddess to induce her to avert or to cure disease, an offering which typifies the symptoms of the illness, such as a necklace of pearls for *Madhura*, painted eyes for ophthalmia, etc., are usually presented. *Marīāī* is worshipped before all marriages. Miniatures of the wedding garments are left at her shrine and the bride fills the lap or skirt of her garment with rice in order that the goddess may grant fertility to her. On the full moon day of *Āṣāḍha* each family propitiates her to secure protection for themselves from all calamities and immunity for their cattle from the diseases to which they are liable in the rainy season. A joint *pujā* is engaged in by the whole village to avert cholera or to bring rain. In a dry year, work is stopped on Sunday, Tuesday and Thursday and each family pours a potful of water over her image to induce her to send the wished-for showers. Goats, sheep and fowls are sacrificed to her, the blood of the victims is sprinkled on the fields and rice soaked in it is sown in order that the crop may be abundant and free from blight. Wooden images of herself in *nim* or *Mahuā* and sometimes teak-wood are offered to the goddess and crowd her platforms. Curds or *nim* leaves are indispensable in her worship as they are cooling substances in the Indian pharmacopoeia and diseases sent by Marīaī *Devī* are generally hot. Rice, kumkum, turmeric, water and cloth which must always be sewn, are also commonly offered. Marīāī *Devī* has numerous shrines all over the district but the most distinguished is the Mahākālī temple at the east gate of Candrapūr where formerly human sacrifices were offered and the Mahākālī *yātrā* is still held in her honour.

CHAPTER 3. The People. RELIGIOUS BELIEFS. Hindus.

Village Gods.

Māruti or Hanumān, the warden of the village boundaries, is represented by the carved figure of a monkey with a very long tail and usually armed with a very serviceable club. His shrine is a prominent feature of every village save amongst the Gonds. In former times, Māruti was enshrined in the four quarters of the village. In Bhatala, the ruins of which show that it was once a large city, there are still four Makaradhvaja shrines. Makaradhvaja was the son of Māruti begotten of a crocodile, who swallowed the phlegm that Māruti spat on the water. His image is exactly like that of Māruti. The shrine of Māruti is usually seen under a banyan tree in the middle of the village facing south or east. In the month of *Śrāvan* a subscription is raised and the villagers join in a feast at Māruti's shrine and beseech him to ward off danger from their cattle. The name Hanumān connects the god with the deity of wind whose adventures are told in the *Rāmāyaṇa*.

Bhīmsen is an agricultural God. His emblem is some stone of a peculiar shape on the outskirts of the village. It is smeared with *śendūr* and offerings of fruit and incense are made to him. In a year of drought a goat is sacrificed to him and his image is immersed in water to induce him to send rain. He is worshipped in Āṣāḍha at the beginning of agricultural operations and again when grain is thrashed in the autumn.

Bhīmsen is an agricultural God. His emblem is some stone of ern and eastern parts of the district. His image is a highly ornamented horse of baked clay set on a platform at some little distance from the village. It is worthy of note that in the worship of these lesser gods, the Bhūmak officiates. He is usually a Pardhān or a Goṇd as representing the people of the soil, but sometimes he is a Gowāri or a Dhimār. The Bhūmak is a village servant and receives contributions of grain from the tenants. The flesh of animals offered to Marīāī Devī is usually given to the Dhobī, but he receives no other public contributions.

Saints.

The numerous tombs at which offerings and prayers are made bear witness to the prevalence of the worship of the sainted dead in the city and the district. If the legends of the saints are to

CHAPTER 3. The People. RELIGIOUS BELIEFS. Hindus. *Saints.*

be believed, they may claim reverence for their possession of miraculous powers but scarcely for any innocence of a pre-eminent character in life. Of the prominent Hindu saints whose tombs are in Candrapūr, Govind Svāmī is worshipped for seven days in the *saptāha* of *Āṣāḍha* when *Gurus* are commemorated. He died over 200 years ago. He granted a boon to a barber that he should excel as a physician and the descendants of that barber are still reputed to be skilled in medicine. On one occasion the saint drank water from the *loṭā* of a low caste woman. When his disciples objected, he turned the pot of water into a perennial spring to show that his sanctity had not suffered at all. He has the reputation of granting the desires of his devotees. A cupful of *prasād* (offering of food) prepared at the tomb of Dāsobā, an Udāsī mendicant will suffice to feed hundreds of people. Someśvar *Mahārāj* of Sindevāhī was similarly very famous who died over hundred years ago. It is related of him that he restored a Mahār to life in the village of Bhivapūr and cured a concubine of leprosy in Umrath. A temple of Śiva has been raised over his grave at Sindevāhī and on Sundays, hundreds of offerings are made at the shrine in the name of Someśvara. Dharmarāv has *maṭhs* connected with his name at Wardhā and Amar Pimpaḷgāṅv where childless husbands and wives go through a twenty days penance to remove their reproach of childlessness.

Animism.

To describe the religious beliefs of the Hindus of the lower castes, the term animism is often used. It denotes technically, the collection of beliefs possessed by the Dravidian tribes who have not even nominally been admitted to the caste system or become Hindus. The general nature of animism may perhaps be explained as the belief that everything which has life or motion has also a spirit or a soul and all natural phenomena are caused by direct personal agency. Instances of animistic beliefs may even be found in the daily practices of the Hindus. Before climbing a tree it is frequently the custom to pray for its pardon for the rough usage to which it is to be subjected. Stones and rocks of any peculiar shape and certain trees suggesting the intervention of personal agency in their construction are considered the abodes of spirits and are revered. When women go out to the field, they take a little sugar and place it on an ant-hill to feed the ants. It is considered a virtuous act to satisfy the *ātmā* or spirit which resides in all animals. Offerings of food to cows, dogs and crows is a daily religious observance among even the Brāhmans and may be construed as an exhibition of faith in animism. The habit of worshipping the implements of one's trade or caste should probably be classified as animism. Such practices belong as much to the Indo-Āryan Hindus as to the Dravidian tribes.

Muslims.

The Musalmans number about 25,000 and a considerable population resides in Candrapūr, Waroḍā and Ballālpūr. The increase from 11,000 to 25,000 in about fifty years may be considered as not unnatural. They have their masjids in Candrapūr

CHAPTER 3. The People. RELIGIOUS BELIEFS. Muslims.

and elsewhere and Urdū schools also. Representatives of both *Śiās* and *Sunnīs* are to be found and very few are very orthodox and strict. The majority are illiterate and ignorant and have assimilated many Hindu ideas. In rural areas, they subscribe to joint *pujās* and some even worship Hindu gods. Hindus are equally tolerant and accommodating. There is a sect even, which openly permits intercourse between Hindus and Musalmans, though for a time. It is said to have been founded by a *Faqir* and a *Mehrā* from North India from whose conjoined names it is called the "Shadwal or Dawalmalak" sect. Mahārs, Telīs, Kuṇbīs join the ceremony and pay reverence to Bābā Śeikh Farid a well-known Musalman saint. Every third or fourth year, the priest of the sect who is always a Musalman, ties a *nada* or thread to the wrist of the saint devotees. Those who are Hindus are then freed of all caste obligations until Farid Bābā appears before them in a dream and reveals to them the name of a shepherd from whom they must purchase a goat. The shepherd is also warned in a vision. When the devotees visit the shepherd the fated goat comes forth from the herd of its own accord and the price fixed in the dream is paid. The goat is ceremonially killed and cooked by the Musalman priest and the flesh partaken by all. From the tying of the *nada* till the closing meal, the devotees wander about shouting 'Dum Dum' and eating whatever is offered to them, regardless of caste. But after the last meal, they return home and are readmitted to caste by going through a purification ceremony and giving a feast to their caste fellows.

Saints.

A tomb near the Dak bungalow at Candrapūr is raised to the memory of Bhabrat-Ullāh Śāh. This saint had no teeth but could crush large bones in his mouth. His tomb is always attended and many devotees resort to it during the *Muharram*. A few miles to the west of Cāndā are the tombs of Ināyat Śāh Miān and his tiger. The saint used to ride to Candrapūr on a tiger. One night a stranger visited the shrine and Ināyat Śāh Miān set him upon his seat. The tiger came and licked the stranger's feet, but seeing another man present, leaped on him and slew him. When he found that he had slain the saint, he dashed his head against the stones and killed himself. Near the Mahākālī temple is the tomb of Juman Śāh Miān who stopped human sacrifices at the shrine of the goddess by offering himself as a substitute for the intended victim. When the goddess came to slay him, he attacked her and drove her off. This legend is also told of an Ahir. A few miles to the east of Candrapūr, in the jungle is the abode of Pāpā Miān, the hermit. He had renounced the world and had a great reputation for holiness and was once a Deputy Commissioner's *chaprasi*.

Christians.

Christians numbered 266 in 1901 of whom 48 were Europeans, 14 Eurasians and 204 native Christians. During the last fifty years they have swelled to about 3,000 due to the proselytising activities of the various Christian missions and natural growth

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Religious Beliefs.

Christians.

in population. The various missions carry on philanthropic activities like running schools and orphanages and thus attract poor and needy from among the Hindus for conversion. Among these is the Episcopal Church of Scotland. The American Methodist Church works particularly in Sironcha. There are, however, no forcible conversion and emphasis is more on altruistic work and service to the needy and the indigent in a true Christian spirit.

Rituals and Ceremonies.

Hindus.

Religion plays an important part in the context of the family life of a Hindu and almost at every stage of an individual's span from birth to death. Life for a Hindu is a round of rituals and ceremonies. Most of the Hindu customs and traditions consist of ritualistic practices related to various religious observances known as *sanskāras* or sacraments. According to the Hindu *Dharmaśāstra,* the individual has to pass through, many *sanskāras* which are really *śarira-samskāras* for these are intended to sanctify the body, *śarira,* beginning from the moment the foetus is laid (*garbhādhāna*) to the death (*antyeṣṭī*) of a person. The number of these *sanskāras* differs according to different authorities and some say there are sixteen which are of an obligatory character (*Nitya*) and twenty-four which are optional (*Naimityika*). These are usually conducted under direction of Brāhmaṇ priests who on their part say that they use *Vedic* texts for Brāhmaṇs and *Puraṇic* texts for others. Of late even the 16 of these *sanskāras* are reduced to half a dozen in most of the Hindu communities and are chiefly observed in respect of birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. A *sanskāra is* usually preceded by a symbolic sacrifice.

Pregnancy and Child Birth.

The *garbhādhāna* or the foetus-laying ceremony to be performed at the consummation of marriage derived social significance when child-marriage was in vogue. At present the ritual is symbolically included in the marriage ceremony without any bustle. The *gṛhyasutras* prescribed for the benefit of the pregnant woman a number of observances of magico-religious nature and believers in the efficacy of *Vedic* rites follow them to varying extent. The *pumsavana sanskāra* or the male making rite may be performed during the third month of the wife's pregnancy, so that the deities governing sex of the foetus would be propitiated and a male issue assured.

The *jātakarma* ceremony may be performed at the birth of the child. Here the father has to touch and smell the child, utter benedictory *mantras* into its ears, expressing his wish that it may be endowed with long life and intelligence. However, the first popular ritual in an infant's life is the *Pāñcavī* and *Sasthi, i.e.,* the ritual performed on the fifth and sixth day after birth. On the fifth day, a configuration of a betel-nut, rice, flowers, sandal-paste and sickle or a sword arranged on a *pāṭ* in the lying-in room in the name of *Pāñcavī* or mother fifth is bowed to by the mother with a prayer to save the child from the attacks of evil spirits. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper and red pen

and an ink-stand are set on a stool and worshipped as *Satvi* or mother sixth and a few friends are feasted. Though these worships have to *Vedic* basis as a *samskāra* they are observed among many Hindu castes.

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Rituals and Ceremonies.

Hindus.

Naming Ceremony.

The *Nāmakaraṇa* rite is performed on the 10th or 12th day after the birth of the child when it is given a name. Popularly the ceremony is called *bārse* and its observance varies according to caste. In higher castes, a Brāhmaṇ is usually called in and he proposes certain names considered auspicious in view of the astrological circumstances of child birth. The family selects one of these names, but usually two names and sometimes more are given, one of which is kept for common use and the other for ceremonial use. The horoscope is usually cast and read, the name proclaimed, *Pānsupārī* and sweets distributed and drums beaten. In some castes, a ceremonial cradling is held in the evening by women of the house and the naming celebrated. On this day, the child receives gifts from friends and relatives in the form of clothes, gold ornaments and cash. The *Karṇavedha* (piercing of the ear-lobes) may take place the same morning or may be postponed to the sixth or twelfth month. If the boy is subject to a vow his right nostril is bored and a gold wire ring put into it. The twelfth is also important in that on this day, the mother, who since giving birth to the baby was considered unclean, is proclaimed to be clean. On this day, the confinement room is thoroughly cleansed and this is the first day on which the male folk could go to see the mother and the child. The naming ceremony among the lower castes is much simpler. Five old women stand in a circle, swing the child in their *saris* and repeat the name given.

Annaprāśana.

Among higher caste Hindus a ceremony called *Annaprāśana* celebrates the first feeding of the child. It may take place in the fifth or sixth month after birth, but some castes perform it in the seventh month in the case of a male child and in the sixth month in the case of a female child. An auspicious day is chosen and relatives are invited who come with gifts for the child. In some castes, the maternal uncle is made to officiate at this function.

Jāval.

Then comes the hair-cutting ceremony known as *javāḷ.* As a *sanskāra* it is known as *cūḍākarma,* or the first tonsuring of the hair for the sake of *dharma* and is performed in the first or third year or at any age according to the tradition of the family. At present, the rite is gone through prior to *upanayana* among higher castes. Lower castes are much more keen to observe it as a ceremony thinking that the hair, the child is born with, is impure and must be removed with social celebration.

Thread-girding.

The thread-girding ceremony or *muñja* as it is popularly known is prescribed for all Hindus claiming a place in the first three *Varṇas.* The ceremony is also called *upanayana* or introduction to knowledge since by it the boy acquires the right to read the sacred books. Until this ceremony is performed he is not really

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a Brāhman and is not bound to observe the caste rules and restrictions. A boy undergoes the *upanayana* which means taking him near his master, at the age of eight in the case of Brāhmaṇs, eleven in the case of Kṣatriyas and twelve in the case of Vaiśyas. There are also rules regarding the *muhurtas*, auspicious times, to be determined according to the birth stars of the boy. The ceremony always takes place between morning and noon, never after midday.

Preparations may begin well in advance of the thread-girding day. A formal invitation (*Akṣat*) ceremony is held a day or two before the thread-girding when the local temple of Gaṇapati is visited first and the god is prayed to be present at the thread ceremony. Presonal invitations are given to friends and relatives.

Early in the morning of the lucky day, the musicians start playing on the drum and pipe. The *ghāṇā* ceremony is gone through with the help of not less than five *suvāsinis*. Prior to the *upanayana* ceremony proper, the usual propitiatory rites are gone through with the same procedural details as before the performance of an auspicious *samskāra*. These are worship of Gaṇapati and the *Mātṛkas*, *Puṇyāhavācan* (the holy day blessing) and *Devaka-Pratiṣṭhā* (installation of *Devaka*). The ceremony of *Caula* (shaving of the boy's head), if it is not performed in childhood is gone through and the boy is then bathed and taken to the dining hall. Boys called *Baṭūs*, girt with the sacred thread but not married, are seated in a row and are fed. While they eat, the boy's mother sitting in front of the *Baṭūs* seats her son on her lap, feeds him and herself eats from the same plate. The ceremony is known as *māṭrbhojana* (the mother's meal) when it is the last time that the boy and his mother eat from the same plate. The boy is then taken to the barber who shaves all the locks that were left on his head except the top-knot. The boy is then bathed and made ready for *upanayana* ceremony.

The boy and the parents enter the booth and take their seats on the three *pāṭs* (wooden low stools) arranged on the bahule. The priests recite *maṅgalāṣṭakas* (lucky verses) and the guests throw *akṣatās* (rice unbroken and mixed with *Kumkum*) at the boy and his father. At the proper *muhurta*, lucky moment, the priests stop chanting, the musicians redouble their notes, the curtain is pulled to the north and the boy lays his head at the feet of his father. The father blesses him and seats him on his right. The guests are regaled with pan, perfume and rose-water and sweet drinks. It is now getting customary for the guests to make some present to the *baṭū* (boy) on this occasion.

The *upanayana* ritual now begins. A *vedī*, earthen altar is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a *homa*, a sacrificial fire is kindled on it. Offerings of *ajya* (ghee), sesame and seven kinds of *samidhās* (sacred fuel sticks) are made on the sacrificial fire. With folded hands, the boy then approaches the *ācārya*, the head priest, with

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a request to make him a *brahmacārī* (*Vedic* student); the *ācārya* grants his request. He hands over to him a consecrated *yajñopavita* (sacred thread) and a *daṇḍa* (stick) of *palaśa* tree. The boy is made to pass between the sacrificial fire and his father, sip three *ācamanas* and repeat texts. He then goes back between the fire and his father and takes his seat. The preceptor then gives the boy a coconut and taking him by the hand goes out of the booth and both bow to the Sun. On their return to the seats, the preceptor takes the boy's right hand and asks him to state his name and to say whose brahmacari he has become. When the boy mentions his name and has become the *brahmacārī* of the preceptor, he lets go the boy's hand, takes him round the sacrificial fire and seating him by his side, drops nine offerings into the fire. He then gives advice to the boy. The boy then sits on the north of the sacrificial fire, bows to the preceptor and begs to be initiated into the mysteries of the sacred verse. The boy and the preceptor or his father are covered with a shawl and the preceptor thrice whispers the sacred *gāyatri* mantra into the boy's right ear. The shawl is taken away, and all return to their seats and give blessings to the *brahmacārī* and the father.

The preceptor then makes four offerings of *samidhās* to the fire and then the boy makes an offering of one *samidhā* and wipes off his face thrice with words purporting to be "I anoint myself with lustre and may Agni, Surya and Indra bestow on me insight, lustre and vigour". The preceptor concludes the sacrifice with final oblations and sprinkles sacred water over the head of the boy and in all directions. Money presents are then made to the priests who bless the *Vedic* student and the father.

At noon, the priest teaches the boy to recite the *Mādhyānha Sandhyā* (midday prayer) and in the evening the *Sāyam Sandhyā* (evening prayer). The ceremony of *bhikṣāvaḷa* (begging alms) is then held.

The whole of the *upanayana* ceremony is usually wound up within a day. Formerly when it used to last for four days, each day, the boy was taught to offer his morning, midday and evening prayers and made to worship the sacred fire kindled on the first day. The last rite of the *upanayana* ceremony is *Medhājanana*. A small square earthen mound is raised and a *palaśa* branch is planted in it. The boy pours water round the plant and prays *Medhā*, the goddess of mind to give him knowledge and wealth. The boy is now a *brahmacārī*, and from now on for some years should learn the *Vedas* at the feet of his *guru* and on completion of the studies should undergo the *samavartana* (return) ceremony. But according to the present custom the *samavartana* or *Soḍmuñj* as it is called follows immediately after the *upanayana*. The boy makes over to the priest his loin cloth, the staff, the deer skin etc. and puts on new clothes, a *jari* cap, a pair of shoes, takes an umbrella and sets off, as if on a journey to Banaras. Usually the boy's maternal uncle, as may be the custom, persuades

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him away from the journey by promising to give him his daughter in marriage so that the boy may end *brahmacaryāśrama* and become a *gṛhastha* (householder).

When a man or a widow dies, he or she is placed on the bier in a white shroud, but for a married woman with her husband living, a red shroud is used. Hindus who follow *Vedic* or *Purāṇic* rites usually cremate their dead. Backward communities practise burial. Whether it is to be burnt or buried, the Hindus lay the dead body on its face with feet to the south. The bones and ashes of the dead are generally thrown into the sea or a river and sometimes a part of the bones is kept preserved to be consigned to the waters of a sacred river like the Gaṅgā. Higher castes perform *śrāddha*. The period of mourning varies from three to ten days in different castes but Telis mourn only till the ensuing Monday, no matter on what day the death has taken place. The corpse has to be handled by men of the same caste. A man without any friends or relatives is buried by Māṅgs.

Kuṇbīs, Telīs, Dhimārs, Mahārs and Khatis have a strange rite called *utarna* or recalling the souls of the dead. A *bhagat,* who has communion with the dead, usually of the Dhimār or Kuṇbī caste is called. Before him the son of the deceased sits, holding in his hands a bowl of milk. Drums are beaten and prayers and invocations are sung till the soul of the dead man called descends upon the head of the *Bhagat* and drives him to and fro in the house. His movements are closely followed by the son with a bowl of milk. At the shout "He has come" they look in the bowl and find something like grain of rice in the milk. This is taken out, touched with vermilion put inside a ball of flour and placed among the family gods. It is worshipped annually at the *Holī* festival. After this, the souls of other ancestors are called and an extraordinary scene follows. The *Bhagat,* no longer himself, but possessed by the soul of the dead inspects the store-house and cattle-sheds and surveys the present state of the family. He visits the women of the house. They weep and he weeps and they greet each other as if after a long parting. The weird scene continues till the soul of the ancestor invoked departs from the *Bhagat* and he becomes himself again. The special rites of the aborigines have already been described in the section concerning Gonds and others.

The practices followed among the other Hindus are as under: When a person is on the point of death the nearest kin sits close to the dying man and comforts him assuring him that his family will be well cared for. A small piece of gold is laid in his mouth and a few drops of Gaṅgā water and a *tulasī* leaf are poured into it. When life is extinct, the body is removed from the bed or cot and laid with the head to the north and feet to the south on the ground and washed with cow-dung water, holy water is sprinkled on it and a wreath of *tulasī* leaves placed round the neck. The chief mourner undergoes a purificatory bath while the priest chants some *mantras.* If the deceased is an ascendant,

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the chief mourner and other mourners of the same degree shave their heads and moustaches. Having done this he offers oblations of rice (*piṇḍa*) to the dead. The corpse is bathed and wrapped up in a new *dhotar* or *lugḍe* according as the dead person is a man or woman. All the relations present men and women bow to the dead. Finally the corpse is laid on a bier and borne by four persons on their shoulders to the cremation ground, the priest and the chief mourner who holds the sacred fire for burning the dead body, walking in front of the bier. Women do not accompany a funeral procession. All persons attending the procession are bareheaded. Half way to the cremation ground, the oblation of rice is repeated and they are offered for the third time on reaching the cremation ground. With the help of live charcoal brought along a fire called *mantrāgni* is prepared, the corpse is laid on the pyre and the chief mourner then ignites it with the fire. Immediately after the body is burnt, the chief mourner goes round the pyre thrice with the trickling water-pot in which the fire was brought and finally throws the pot backwards over the shoulder spilling the water over the ashes to cool the spirit of the dead which has been heated by the fire. He then pours water mixed with sesame and the rest of the mourners follow suit. When the body is completely consumed the party returns. During the first ten days all persons belonging to the family of the deceased observe mourning.

Obsequies.

The *śrāddha* and funeral obsequies are the only ceremonies performed for the salvation of the ancestors. A special ceremony called *Nārāyaṇa Balī* may be performed for those that have died of accident, but in case of one dying childless, no departure from the ordinary rite takes place. The funeral obsequies are performed during the first 13 days after death. Oblations of rice are offered every day in consequence of which the soul of the dead is supposed to attain a spiritual body limb by limb till on the 13th day it is enabled to start on its further journey. Oblations are also offered on the 27th day and sometimes thereafter on the day of the death, once every month for one year of which the six-monthly and the *bharṇī* oblations, *i.e.,* the *śrāddha* performed on the fifth of the dark half of the month of *Bhādrapad,* are essential. After a year has elapsed, the oblations of the first anniversary day are celebrated with great solemnity. The annual *śrāddha* is performed on the day corresponding to the day of death in the latter half of the month of *Bhādrapad.* Where the deceased's family can afford it, a *śrāddha* is also performed on the anniversary day which is known as *Kṣayatithi.* While performing the *śrāddha* of one's deceased father, offerings are also made to other ancestors and deceased collaterals. Women dying in the lifetime of their husbands have special oblations offered to them during their husband's lifetime. This takes place on the ninth day of *pitṛpakṣa* and is called *avidhavā navamī* day.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS. Hindus.

Hindu *Dharmaśāstra* considers that it is obligatory for every person to marry as according to it *vivāha* is one of the *śarira samskāras* (sacraments sanctifying the body) through each of

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Hindus.

which every man and woman must pass at the proper age and time. But, though marriage is thus universally prescribed for all Hindus, the institution as such is hedged in with several rules and restrictions which fall under two main heads, endogamy and exogamy.

Endogamy.

A Hindu may not marry outside his caste or his particular sub-caste which according to social custom is considered endogamous. He is confined for the choice of a wife within this group. Thus, the internal structure of the Kuṇbīs, the great agricultural caste of the district, shows several endogamous sub-castes, recruited from different classes of the population. The Jhare or forest Kuṇbīs are the oldest immigrants and have no doubt an admixture of Goṇḍ blood. Then there are the Manas, a primitive tribe. Among the other sub-castes are Khaire, Dhanoje, Kheḍule, Tirole and Vandhekars. The Vañjāras are also included among the Kuṇbīs who were once a wandering Tribe.

Exogamy.

These castes and sub-castes form the outer circle within which a man must marry. Outside it are a set of further sub-divisions which prohibit the marriage of persons related through males. These are called exogamous groups or class and their name among the higher castes is *gotra*. The theory is that all persons belonging to the same *gotra* are descended from the same male ancestor and so related. The system of exogamous *gotra* based as it is on descent from males suffices to prevent unions of persons nearly related on the father's side, but not those on the mother's side, within three or sometimes five degrees. The marriage of the children of two sisters is prohibited among all Hindus. The marriage of the children of a brother and a sister, called cross-cousin marriage which is common in southern castes is prohibited among Northerners. Among Marāṭhī communities, Marāṭhās, Māḷīs, Kuṇbīs, Mahārs, the marriage of a brother's daughter with a sister's son is common. The other form of cross-cousin marriage, *viz.*, the marriage of a brother's son with sister's daughter is practised by some Goṇḍs and similar tribes among whom it is spoken of as *dudh lautna* (give back the milk). Among some castes of Telugu origin and among the *Deśastha* Brāhmans, a brother has the first claim to his sister's daughter even as his own wife an idea which would be looked upon with horror by the Northern and Marāṭhā communities of Hindus. The marriage of two sisters at the same time was once permitted in most of the lower castes and in all tribes and was common among those castes which were particularly polygamous.

Hypergamy.

Hypergamy relates to the social rule by which a woman should be married to a man who is either his equal or her superior in rank. Such practice is still widely prevalent in Northern India by which men of the higher sub-caste of a caste will take a daughter in marriage from lower ones but will not give their daughters in return. More commonly, families of lower sub-castes or class in the same caste consider the marriage of their daughters into a higher group a great honour and will give large sums of money for a bridegroom.

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Polygyny.

Hinduism permits polygyny, *i.e.*, a state of having more than one wife at a time and this word describes it more aptly than polygamy. The *smṛtis* not only prescribe that a man who has entered *gṛhasthāśrama* must not remain single and should take another wife without delay to keep up religious rites but also ask to take another wife during the lifetime of one who had no son. But even then polygyny has been practised by only a few people over the ages. A Kuṇbī would take a second wife only if the first was childless or a bad character or destitute of attractions. In many cases, the first wives themselves, prevail upon their husbands to take second wives for the sake of progeny or convenience. However, in recent years, the spread of English education and assimilation of modern liberal ideas have made almost all communities among Hindus monogamous and the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 has now completely reformed the law relating to Hindu marriage all over India and has made monogamy compulsory among all classes of Hindus.

Widow Marriage and Divorce.

The remarriage of widows was once strictly prohibited among the Brāhmaṇs and similar castes who followed the Brāhmaṇ way of life, the reasoning being that marriage was the only sacrament (*saṃskāra*) for a woman and she could go through it but once. Even now though legally permissible widow marriages are not much in vogue in Hindu communities. Only a minority of the most advanced Brāhmaṇs would recognise widow marriage and these were once generally held to be excluded from the caste, though defaults in caste practices, such as breaches of rules against the consumption of prohibited kinds of meat, liquor, etc., were winked at and not visited with proper penalty. Similarly, divorce was not once recognised among Brāhmaṇs. Among Baṇiās the marriage of widows was nominally prohibited, but frequently occurred and remarried widows were relegated to the inferior social groups in each sub-caste. Divorce was also said to have been prohibited, but it was probable that women put away for adultery were allowed to take refuge in such groups instead of being finally expelled. Lower castes in the district allow both widows to marry and spouses to take divorce. The ceremony of widow marriage is largely governed by the idea of escaping the wrath of the first husband. A bachelor who wished to marry a widow had first to go through a mock ceremony of marrying an *arka* or swallow-wort plant. Divorce was permitted on sufficient grounds at the instance of either party, it being effected before the caste *pañcāyat*.

Dowry.

In Hindu religious books are mentioned eight forms of marriage, *i.e.*, methods of consecrating a marriage union of which in modern times only two are in vogue, *viz.*, the *Brahma* and the *Asura*. Conforming with the *Brahma* form of marriage,

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generally among higher castes, a *huṇḍā* (dowry-property which a woman brings to her husband) is paid by the bride's father to the bridegroom. Among lower castes, the bride's parents usually, take *dej* (bride-price) thereby conforming with the *Asura* form. The monetary aspect in the settlement of a marriage may take various forms, *e.g.*, among the Marāṭhās, in a *sālaṅkṛta Kanyādan*, the bride's father, besides the ornaments he gives to his daughter, spends much on many items of expenses on both sides. In *Kanyādāna*, the expenses of the bride's father are much restricted. In the *huṇḍā* form, the girl's father pays bridegroom price to the boy's father while in the *dej* form, as the proposal of the marriage comes from the boy's father, he has to pay a *dej* (bride-price) to the girl's father.

It should be mentioned here that the dowry demanded from the bride's father is under the guise of *Vara-dakṣiṇā*, *i.e.*, the money the donee receives from a donor to fulfil the purpose of a *dāna*. As such it is formally permitted by the *Dharmaśāstra*. But in practice it amounts to extortion. In communities, where for some reason or other the supply of marriageable boys falls much short of the demand, dowry forms an important part of a marriage settlement. Education only lends appreciation to the boy's value in the marriage market and scarcity of suitable grooms enforces spinsterhood on a large number of eligible girls whose parents are unable to pay the demanded dowry. Examples to the contrary are also found. Dowry by law is prohibited but the law is usually circumvented.

Enactments.

Social usage in relation to Hindu marriage has been considerably affected by various legal enactments passed, perhaps right from 1833 when the regulation prohibiting *Sati* was declared. A common form of civil marriage for all communities in India was provided by the Special Marriage Act of 1872 which made it possible for an Indian of whatever caste or creed to enter a valid marriage with person belonging to any caste or creed, provided the parties, registered the contract of marriage declaring *inter alia* that they did not belong to any religion. This Act was amended by Act XXX of 1923 making it possible for Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains (but not for Christians, Jews, Mahomedans and Parsees) to declare their religion and yet get their marriage registered. The Child Marriage Restraint Act XIX 1929 as amended by Act of 1946 prohibited marriages of boys under 18 and girls under 14. The Hindu Marriage Disabilities Act XXVIII of 1946 validated marriages between parties (a) belonging to the same *gotra* or (b) belonging to different subdivisions of the same caste. The Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 abrogated and modifies all past laws. It has made now Hindu marriage adult and strictly monogamous. It has done away with the caste and *gotra* restrictions which limited the field of marriage and has laid down definite conditions under which a decree of nullity and further of dissolution of marriage could be obtained.

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As marriage from the Hindu point of view created an indissoluble tie between husband and wife, divorce was not known to the general Hindu law. Neither party to a marriage could, therefore, divorce the other unless it was allowed by custom as it was among some castes. The Indian Divorce Act, 1869, provided *inter alia* for dissolution of marriage, but it applied only to cases where the petitioner or respondent professed the Christian religion (Section 2 of the Act). However according to the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955, reliefs by way of judicial separation, declaration of nullity of marriage and divorce are recognised. (Sections 10 to 13).

Marriage Ceremonies.

Priests from both sides fix in common consultation the day and hour for the auspicious event. The essential marriage rituals which obtain among high-caste Hindus are: *Vāgniścaya*, *Simāntapujana*, *Madhuparka*, *Antarpāṭ*, *Sutraveṣṭaṇa*, *Pāṇigrahana*, *Lājāhoma*, *Saptapadi* and occasionally *Airaṇi pradāna*. In interpretation of these *śāstric* injunctions from the *gṛhya-sutras*, the following ceremonies are gone through in a popular way.

Akṣada.—When the wedding day is fixed, invitations by way of printed letters are sent round beginning with the house gods. On an auspicious day, the relatives of the bride and the bridegroom go together in procession to the temples of Gaṇapati and Devī to invite the god and goddess and offer them coconuts, betel-leves, *kumkum*, etc. The priest accompanying the procession invokes the god to be present at the wedding and ward off all evil. Next a married pair from each party go round inviting friends and relations.

Simāntapujana.—In the evening previous to the marriage day, the ceremony of *simāntapujan* or worship of the boundary takes place. The parents of the girl with their relatives go to the bridegroom's house with gifts. There they first worship Gaṇapati, (represented by a betel-nut), Varuṇa (represented by a water-pot), a lamp and the earth. Then they wash the feet of the bridegroom and offer him a dress. Next, the mother of the bride washes the feet of the mother of the bridegroom and fills her lap and the laps of her female relations with rice or wheat and pieces of dry coconut kernel. The assembled guests are given betel-leaves and betel-nuts and Brāhmaṇs are given money gifts.

Vāgniścaya.—The ceremony of Vāgniścaya or oral promise takes place at night. The bridegroom's parents and relatives go to the house of the bride with a dress and ornaments for the bride. The fathers of the bride and bridegroom exchange a coconut and embrace each other. The bridegroom's father presents the bride with ornaments and dress brought for her. After the distribution of betel-leaves and betel-nuts all disperse.

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Haḷad.—The ceremony of anointing the bride and the bridegroom with turmeric paste takes place in the morning of the wedding day. First the girl is rubbed with turmeric paste at her house by some married ladies on both sides, the remaining portion of which is taken to the bridegroom's house where he is rubbed with it alike.

Deva Pratiṣṭhā.—*Deva Pratiṣṭhā* or installing of deities: Before the ceremony begins, the bride and her parents are given a hot water bath. After changing clothes and bowing to the house gods and elders, the bride's parents begin the ceremony which consists of worship of planets (represented by betel-nuts), Gaṇapati, Varuṇa and *Avighna Kaḷaśa.* The *Avighna Kaḷaśa* is an earthen jar daubed with white and red colours. It contains turmeric roots, betel-nuts, a copper coin and sweet-meats. Its mouth is covered with an earthen lid tied to it with a piece of cotton thread passed round several times. It is prayed to ward off all evil. The same ceremony takes place at the house of the bridegroom also.

Gaurī-pujana.—*Gaurī-pujana* is performed only by the bride. She worships in the house the goddess Pārvatī or Gaurī and sits there till the wedding time, praying the goddess with the words: "Oh Gaurī, grant me a happy wifehood and long life to him who is coming to my door".

Rukhvat.—When the time for wedding draws near, a party from the bride's side takes several dishes of sweetmeat to the groom's house and serve them to the bridegroom and his relations. Of late this is developing into an artistic show of several articles besides sweets. The bridegroom is worshipped and presented with articles of dress by the bride's father. The priest then asks the bridegroom to bow to the house-gods and elders. Garlanded and decorated with new clothes, with a finger mark of lamp-black on his cheeks, the bridegroom rides a horse or is seated in a car and taken in a procession to the bride's house, the females walking just behind him and the males behind them.

Maṅgalāṣṭaka.—When the procession reaches the bride's house, cooked rice mixed with curds is waved on the bride-groom's face. Next the bride's mother washes the feet of the bridegroom's mother and she returns to her place because she must not hear the marriage verses. The bridegroom is then led to the marriage booth where the priests have laid two low stools and the bride and the bridegroom are asked to stand on them facing each other. An *antarpāṭ* curtain, is held between them so that they may not see each other. They are each given a garland of flowers to hold and are told to look at the *svastika* on the curtain between them and pray to their family deities. *Maṅgalākṣatās* (reddened rice) are distributed among the guests present. The priests standing on either sides of the curtain chant *maṅgalāṣṭākas* (auspicious poetical compositions) and they and the guests throw rice at the bride and the bridegroom at the end of each verse. When the verses end and the auspicious moment is reached, the pair garland each other amidst a noise of clapping and drum beating. The eyes of the boy and the girl meet: the girl garlands the boy and he follows. Guests, friends and relations are entertained with flowers, rose-water, scent and *pānsupārī.* It is customary to serve spiced milk or other sweet drinks. Money is distributed among Brāhmaṇs.

Kanyādāna.—An elaborate rite follows by which the bride's parents hand her over to the groom's care and request him to treat her well during her lifetime.

Lājāhoma.—Marriage sacrifice or *Lājāhoma*: The pair is led to the altar where fire is kindled. The priest asks them to worship the fire and throw parched rice and ghee in it. Next he asks them to take oaths that they will be life's partners during their lifetime for weal or woe. These oaths are taken in the presence of the fire, the earth, the priest and gods.

Saptapadī.—Seven small heaps of rice are made on the altar and a betel-nut is placed on each of them. The priest recites *mantras* and the bridegroom lifts the bride's right foot and places it on the heaps in succession. When the seventh heap is crossed the marriage is complete.

Sutraveṣṭana.—The priest passes a cotton thread round the pair twelve times which is then taken off and divided in two parts. The pair is made to fasten these on each other's wrists. The bride is presented with a *sāḍī* and *coḷī* and her lap filled with wheat or rice, a coconut and some fruits by the priest and some married women with their husbands alive. The bridegroom's mother puts on the bride's person all the ornaments made for her and looks her in the face, gives her new clothes and puts sugar in her mouth to indicate her satisfaction with her. This ceremony is known as *Sunmukh* and only women officiate at it.

Zāl or Airaṇipradān.—An airni or Zāl which is a wickerwork basket containing several gifts such as coconuts, betel-nuts, fruits, cooked food, etc., is presented by the bride's father to the bridegroom's mother and relatives. The basket is held on the head of the person to be honoured and while some water is poured on it, the priest on behalf of the bride's father says, "we have given you this good-natured daughter, well nourished and healthy and request you to treat her kindly."

Varāt.—The concluding item in the marriage ceremony is the *Varāt* or procession of a carriage in which both the bride and bridegroom are seated and is followed by male and female relatives and friends of both, to the accompaniment of music and fireworks leading to the bridegroom's house, where both worship the goddess of wealth and plenty on reaching there. This is called *Lakṣmī pujana.* The maiden name of the bride is changed and she is given a new name by which she is known thereafter in her husband's family. Betel packets and sugar are distributed to the party assembled and money to Brahmans. A ritualistic closure

CHAPTER 3. The People. MARRIAGE AND MORALS. Other Communities.

to the ceremony is put whereby the deities that had been invited before the ceremony began are taken leave off and given a formal send-off. Socially, exchange of feasts ends the ceremony.

The special customs of Goṇds and Kuṇbīs have already been separately described. The Muslims and Christians follow the practices of their fellowmen in other district like Nāgpūr and their small number do not warrant any detailed treatment. A few of the more striking practices of some of them in connection with the marriage ceremony deserve notice.

Kurumvars, a shepherd caste who weave blankets, seat the bride and the bridegroom on a loom and then in a basket and throw coloured rice over them. Telugu Brāhmaṇs also seat the pair in a bamboo basket and the explanation usually given is a mixture of sympathetic magic and wishful thinking. The association with *Vansha i.e.,* bamboo is supposed to ensure numerous off-springs. Among all Telugu castes, great importance is attached to the tying of *maṅgalasutra* (wedding necklace) and among Komṭīs the beads are strung together by a concubine, who can never become a widow. A necklace prepared by her is supposed to confer *akhaṇḍa saubhāgya* or unbroken married life. Among Telugus, the bridegroom, at one stage of the ceremony seizes a pot full of cakes and sweetmeats and flees to another house. He is pursued by all the children of the party who shriek, "the dog is steal ng off." When the children come back, the father of the bride meets the bridegroom and beseeches him to return. He refuses to do so until a present is given to him.

Among Telugu Brāhmaṇs of the *Vaiṣṇava* sect, performance called *raibhar* which is supposed to preserve the prestige of the bride is gone through. When the *Varāt* arrives at the bride's village, it stops some distance away. The bride's party comes out to meet it and sits down about a field or so away and each party awaits the advance of the other. Embassies pass between the parties beseeching each other to advance which they do about a yard or so at intervals, whiling away time meanwhile with singing songs and watching dancing of *nauch* girls. This goes on for hours neither party wishing to show any eagerness, until every one is heartily sick of the songs and dances. They then adjourn to the bride's house for the ceremony.

Among Kaṇva Brāhmaṇs and Sonārs, the bridegroom's father touches the *kachchota* of the bride's mother's robe, gives her a sari and a money gift. She then serves him food. The ceremony appears to symbolise the primitive custom of wife-lending to a guest. The *nanhora* ceremony in which all the women of the party bathe naked under a *mandwa* was performed among Kohlis. Among some castes of Sonārs and Kuṇbīs, the foot of the bride dipped in kumkum is stamped on the bridegroom's back. Badwaiks, a sub-caste of Manas, give the couple an arrow and make them shoot at a clay idol. These instances open out a vast field for ethnological studies.

CHAPTER 3. The People. COMMUNAL LIFE. Feasts and Festivals.

One of the best aids to getting a comprehensive grasp of the prominent observances of Hinduism is a review of the feasts and festivals that recur throughout. Hindu life is replete with celebrations of all kinds. There are holidays and religious festivals and birthday anniversaries of gods and mythological heroes that are observed during the course of the year. There are other occasional ceremonies to obtain or to avert rain, hailstorms or floods, and to prevent epidemics or cattle diseases, etc. So also many ceremonies and good deeds by which *puṇya* (spiritual merit) may be acquired such as performance of pilgrimages to sacred places like *Kāśī, Gayā and Prayag, homas,* construction and consecration of temples, digging of wells and tanks for public use, plantation of mango-groves and so on. There are also propitiatory ceremonies in which the aid of spirits is solicited for the successful performance of rites of marriage, birth and death. A short survey of the cycle of feasts and festivals through which a pious Hindu goes through during the course of a year is given here.

Gudhi Paḍvā.

The first day of *Caitra* is called *Guḍhī Pāḍvā,* the new year day of the Hindus who observe the Śālivāhana *Śaka* (era). This is observed by all except the aborigines and some other castes. With this day begins the spring. It is ushered in by householders by setting up in front of the house a *gudhi, i.e.,* a bamboo pole capped with a small silver or copper pot and a new piece of cloth hanging to it as a flag. On this day, mango, tamarind and other fruits of the season are first eaten. Eating a mixture of nim leaves, *gul* and cumin seeds is a special observance of this day. The day is considered auspicious for building or entering a new house, putting a child to school or starting a new business. This is one of the three and a half most auspicious days of the year.

Rām Navami.

On the 9th day of the bright half of *Caitra* is celebrated the birthday of Rāma, the hero of the *Rāmāyaṇa* and the 7th incarnation of Viṣṇu. People chiefly of the high castes gather together in the temple of Rāma in holiday dress where a silk doll is made to represent Rāma and all the ceremonials connected with childbirth are gone through. Exactly at 12 noon, the *Haridās* announces the birth of Rāma by tossing *gulāl* (red powder) and the silk doll is put in a cradle. *Ārati,* distribution of *sunṭhavaḍā* (a mixture of ginger and sugar), *kirtha prasād, kirtan* and *bhajan* in praise of Rāma are the usual functions held at the festival. Many Brāhmaṇs observe it as a fasting day.

Hanumān Jayanti.

On the full moon day of *Caitra,* exactly at sunrise, a festival is arranged in the temple of Māruti to celebrate his birth, much the same way as Rāma's birth is.

Akṣaya Tṛtiyā.

Akṣaya Tṛtiyā or *Tij* falls on the third day of the first half of the month of *Vaiśākh.* On this day, every household must give food to a person of their own caste in memory of its deceased

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ancestors. All cultivators go to their fields and ceremonially plough a little to indicate that the work of the year has commenced. This is one of the three and half most auspicious days of the year on which many weddings are arranged to take place.

Moṭhi Bhavai.

On the last day of the month is *Moṭhi Bhavai*. In the villages seven stones are set on nim leaves and nim leaf shades are put over them. In front of these stones boys dance and the by-standers throw water on them. The ceremony is said to induce the Devī to send good rains and is a peculiarity of Candrapūr district.

Mahā Ekādaśī.

The *Ekādaśī* (eleventh day) occurring in the bright halves of *Āṣaḍha* and *Kārtika* are considered very sacred. They mark the beginning and the end of *Cāturmāsa* (four holy months) and are observed as fast and prayer days by very large sections of Hindus. Followers of the *Varkarī* sect make it a point to visit the temple of Viṭhobā at Paṇḍharpūr on those days.

Gokuḷaṣṭami.

On the dark eighth of *Śrāvaṇa* falls the *Gokuḷaṣṭamī*, festival in honour of *Śrī Kṛṣṇa's* birthday. Exact midnight of this day was the time of birth of Lord Kṛṣṇa and the next day the babe was taken to Gokuḷ. The way the occasion is celebrated varies from place to place. Usually, people fast on this day. A boisterous play-ritual of breaking the *Haṇḍī* by young people is a characteristic of this festival.

Nāga pañcami.

Nāgapañcami falls on the 5th day of the bright half of *Śrāvaṇa* when snakes are propitiated. Bowls of milk are placed near their holes and pictures of snakes are drawn on walls. About this time snakes are driven from their retreats by the rising water and the festival is supposed to induce them not to harm those into whose premises they may come. The evening of *Nāga-pañcamī* is devoted to wrestling contests.

Rakṣābandhan.

Rakṣābandhan falls on the 14th of the bright half of *Śrāvaṇa* when twice-born castes change their sacred threads and *rākhīs i.e.*, little charms of silk or cotton thread are tied on the wrists as a protection against evil spirits. They are also put on furniture and trade implements. In most places they are tied by Brāhmaṇs who receive small gratuities for their services, but in Candrapūr they are tied by prostitutes.

Poḷā.

Poḷā is a cattle festival which falls on the last day of *Śrāvaṇa* when the plough-bullocks are taken in a procession to the shrine of Māruti. An old bullock goes first and on his horns is tied a *makhar*, a wooden frame with pegs to which torches are affixed. They make a rope of mango-leaves stretched between two posts and *makhar* bullock is made to break this and stampede back to the village followed by all the other bullocks. On the following day children mimic the ceremony with toy bullocks. The explanatory legend, prevalent in Candrapūr to account for this festival is that the bullocks complained to Mahādev that men were oppressing them beyond endurance. Mahādev appointed a day to enquire into the matter. Men got to know

of this and on that day treated the bullocks so well that when Mahādev came he found their complaint utterly groundless. The bullocks were outwitted but they still claim their day. On the evening of *Poḷā* day, the houses are thoroughly searched for mosquitoes, bugs, flies etc. and at dawn the *Badge* ceremony is performed. The head of the house or a servant representing him, dressed in the meanest rags, goes forth carrying a pot in which bugs, mosquitoes etc. with a little rice, fruit, spices, a small bit of iron, two cowries and a little fire have been put. As he goes he shouts "*Masha Murkute Gheun Ja re Marbot*" and "*Rai Rog Gheun Ja re Badgia.*" The first shout means, 'Take away all flies and bugs, oh! Marbot" and the second shout means, "Take away all diseases and calamity, oh! Badgia." When he reaches a place where three roads meet, he casts down the pot, breaks it with his stick and returns home without looking behind him. He enters the house quietly, taking no notice of any one until some one pours water over him. He is then given oil to anoint himself, sandalwood paste, some sweetmeats after which he may again speak to his household.

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Poḷa.

Gaṇeś Caturthi.

Hartālikā-pujā is a special worship for women who do this for happy married life in which Pārvatī and her companion are paid homage to. Even girls go through this worship. They fast on this day and eat only fruit and roots. If any woman eats rice or sweets on this day they will be rats or ants in next birth. This day is known as *Kajaḷtij* in this district. The following day is *Gaṇeś Caturthī* when fresh clay images of Gaṇapati are installed and worshipped. A special feature of this festival, particularly in urban areas is that the worship is celebrated on a community scale by public subscriptions with the added attraction of religious and semi-social programmes held each day during the festival which lasts for ten days. Out of a superstition still current, a person avoids looking at the moon on this day lest he might get involved in a baseless theft charge. In Candrapūr it is believed that any calamity may befall one who consciously or unconsciously sees the moon. Should one do so accidentally, the remedy is to throw stones at the houses of his neighbours till some justly incensed house-holder comes out and abuses him. The calamity will then fall on the irate neighbour.

Conjoined to the Gaṇeś festival women hold a celebration in honour of Pārvatī or Gaurī, mother of Gaṇapati. On the first day she is installed, on the second worshipped and on the third immersed.

Dasarā.

In the month of *Āśvina* falls the great festival of *Navarātra* (nine nights) culminating in *Dasarā*, so called from *Daś*, ten and *Āhāra*, day, it being a ten day festival in honour of Durgā. It is also called by Hindus *Vijayā-Daśamī*, the day of victory won by Rāma over Rāvaṇa. It is also the day on which Goddess Kālī vanquished Mahiśāsura and at some places a buffalo is slain in memory of it on this day. Sacrifice of goats is usual and those

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who will not or cannot afford an animal sacrifice adopt a substitute in the shape of a white pumpkin supported on four sticks resembling the feet of a goat. The first nine days are known as *Navarātra,* on the first day being performed *Ghaṭasthāpanā* or the invocation to the goddess to be present in *ghaṭa* (jar). On the tenth day, every householder worships his caste insignia represented by tools and implements. A Telī will worship his oil machine, a Kāyastha his inkstand and pen, a blacksmith his anvil and hammer, a Brāhman his holy books and so on. They have sumptuous meals at noon and towards evening they don holiday attire and gather together *Samī (Prosopis spicigera)* or in its absence *Āpṭā (Bauhinia racemosa)* tree. On this day, the *Āpṭā* leaves are supposed to symbolise gold, and exchanged while greeting one another. The day is one of the three and a half most auspicious days of the year and children are put to school on this day and fresh adventures begun. Every one desires to see the blue jay (Nilkaṇṭha) as it is regarded as a fortunate omen.

Divāli.

Twenty days after *Dasarā* comes *Divāḷī,* when Lakṣmī, the goddess of wealth is worshipped. She is supposed to pass over the land distributing gifts of riches. All, therefore, illuminate their houses and shops in order that they may not be overlooked. The lights are often tastefully and beautifully arranged and the festival is one of the prettiest of the whole year. The day is also the birth day of Buddha. In villages of this district a peculiar ceremony is performed. A Gowardhan or a heap of cowdung cakes is built in which an egg is placed. Cattle and buffaloes are worshipped and driven over the heap. Should the egg remain unbroken, it betokens immunity from all calamities during the year. Two days after *Divāḷī* comes *Bhāubeej* or *Yamadvitiyā* when Yama the god of death was entertained by his sister Yamunā at the river Yamunā in Uttar Pradesh. On this day brothers visit their sisters and are entertained by them. In the evening the sisters return the visit, perform the *Āratī* ceremony and receive a gift.

Tulasī Vivāha.

Ten days later is the festival of *Tulasī Vivāha,* the marriage of the Tulasī plant to Viṣṇu. From this day, the season of weddings commences.

Campā Saṣṭhi.

On the 6th of *Mārgaśirṣa* comes *Campā Ṣaṣṭhī* which is celebrated in honour of Khaṇḍobā, chiefly by Marāṭhās by whom he is regarded as an incarnation of Śiva and his *vāhana,* (vehicle), the dog, are worshipped. Alms are given to Vāghyās and Muraḷīs who are devotees of Khaṇḍobā.

Makara Saṅkrānta.

On January 14 comes the *Makara Saṅkrānta* otherwise known as *Tiḷ-Saṅkrānta.* On this day all rise and bathe early and *tiḷ* cakes and sweets are eaten. On the following day bullock-cart races are held in many villages. On the last day of *Pauṣ* is *Māhi* when people from some castes worship their deceased ancestors. They offer fowl, coconuts and *uḍid* cakes fried in oil. All

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Makara Saṅkrānta.

offerings must be cut with a knife since they symbolise flesh. If the last day of *Pauṣ* falls on Sunday and the *nakṣatra* be *Śrāvaṇa* and the *Yoga Vyatipāta,* it is the festival of *Ardhodaya.* This astronomical conjunction happens once in 45 years. The last occasion in living memory was on February 2, 1908. It is considered a most auspicious day and many pilgrims resort to Mārkaṇḍa to bathe. The belief is that if one gives away a rupee as charity on this day, he will receive a crore in next birth.

Vasanta Pañcami and Śivarātri.

The 5th of *Māgh* in the bright half is called *Vasanta Pañcamī* on which day Kāmadeva, god of love, is worshipped. Many weddings and sacred thread ceremonies are reserved for this day. *Śivarātrī* falls on the 14th day of the dark half of this month when Śiva is worshipped and his devotees fast for 24 hours.

Holī.

The *Holī* festival falls about the middle of *Phālguna,* when Madana, the Hindu god of lust, is worshipped mainly by people belonging to some castes. Two fires, the fuel for which, it is customary to steal, are kindled, usually outside the village, for Madana and Rati. A coconut is hung from the pole in the centre of the fire and when it falls people secure the burnt core and eat it. They smear themselves with ashes of the fire. They also throw a red fluid over each other and grossly obscene songs in praise of love are sung. The explanatory legend is that Kāmadeva, the beautiful god of love, endeavouring to influence Śiva with a passion for Pārvatī discharged an arrow at him. But Śiva enraged at his insolence, reduced him to ashes with a beam of fire darted from his central eye. Afterwards, the great god relented and caused him to be born again as the son of Krsṇa. The fires are said to symbolise the death of love and the rejoicing at his rebirth. Another explanation is that the object of the festival is to avert the troubles that may be brought on the community by the demoness Dhundha or Holikā, which 'Lady Evil', the *Jyotirnibandha* assures us, is satisfied with the unclean language of the hymns and leaves the revellers free from love troubles throughout the year.

Agricultural Festivals.

Some peculiar agricultural festivals must be noted. *Saṇoni* is the cultivators' observance of *Tij.* The carpenter is called in and ceremonially welcomed, *kunku* and rice being applied to his forehead. He prepares a *makhar* which is taken to the field next day by gaily caparisoned bullocks. The earth, the bullocks and the plough are worshipped and a little ceremonial ploughing is done. A feast is cooked in the field and eaten. On that day no one should give grain to his neighbour lest his own granary should become empty all the year. *Bijora,* the festival of the seed-god is performed in the wilder tracts. It is a joint *pujā* to which the whole village subscribes. The god is enshrined outside the village. Seed sprinkled with the blood of the victims sacrificed is distributed to the tenants and the handful of seed thus received must be that first sown in every field. The *Dudhara* (milk-god) ceremony is performed on any Saturday or

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Sunday in *Āṣāḍha* before commencing rice transplantation. The god is enshrined on the bank of a tank and goats and fowls sacrificed to him. Miniature winnowing fans and grain baskets with grain, fruit etc. are presented and milk is poured over the god to induce him to grant good rains and a fertile year. The flesh of the animals sacrificed is distributed among the cultivators. *Palkapoli* is celebrated in *Bhādrapad* on any Saturday or Sunday. *Devī* is worshipped in her form of Mahiṣammā (buffalo-mother). The usual offerings are made and grain dipped in the blood of the victims sacrificed is cast into the fields with the invocation that they may be free from weeds. The ceremony is performed at each tank from which cultivators obtain water for their fields. *Sanjori* is the harvest festival to propitiate the *Sanjora* god before commencing threshing operations. The blood of the victims is sprinkled on the winnowing fans, baskets and the sheaf of *dhan* which each cultivator brings with him to the place of worship. The sheafs thus sanctified are replaced on the stacks and threshing commences. During threshing a handful of grain is laid aside each day and taken home separately. It is called *deodhan* and food prepared from it is eaten by members of the family alone. It may not be shared with others. At the beginning of the harvest each cultivator offers a chicken to his crop and sets it free which is caught by the Bhūmak for his own use. Should blight attack the crop, it is believed that it may be averted by sending a woman in her courses round the field so that her garments touch the crop and the blight goes.

Vratas.

In the month of *Caitra* starting from the bright third and on a convenient day, *suvāsinis* hold in their homes the ceremony of *haḷdikuṅku*. The full-moon day of *Jyeṣṭha* known as *Vaṭapurnimā* is observed by married women as a day of prayer so that their husbands' lives may be prolonged: a banyan tree or its boughs are worshipped and *vāyans* (special offerings) are distributed to Brāhmaṇs and *suvāsinis*. Some observe a *vrata* (vow) for three days during which they live on fruits, tubers and milk only. During *Cāturmās* (four months of rainy season) some women observe *Soḷā Somvār vrata* (vow observed on sixteen successive Mondays) at the end of which they hold a grand worship of Śiva and Pārvatī and feast seventeen *dampatis* (couples). Similarly, married girls vow to offer *śivāmuṭh* (handful of corn) to God Śiva on every Monday of *Śrāvaṇa* for the first five years of their married life followed by worship of *Maṅgaḷāgauri* on Tuesday following. The Fridays of the same month are observed by women with a worship of goddess Lakṣmī drawn on a small earthen pot. These are designated *Sampad Śukravārs*. On the third and fifth of the bright half of *Bhādrapada* come *Haratāḷikā* and *Ṛṣipañcamī* which are observed as days of fast by women. The first is kept by married women and young girls in honour of *Haratāḷikā* (goddess Pārvatī) who is said to have successfully resisted, her father's wish to marry her to Viṣṇu and married Śiva whom she loved. The second is observed by elderly women in honour of *Ṛṣis* (seers) to make

amends for sins committed unconsciously. That day, they do not eat anything that is grown with the labour of cattle or any other animal, but eat only hand-grown fruits and vegetables. *Vasubāras* which falls on the 12th of the dark half of *Āśvina* is observed by some women who have children; they fast for the day and at night after worshipping a cow, give a calf in charity. The day previous to *Saṅkrānta* in the month of *Pauṣ* is called *Bhogī* on which a special dish known as *Khicaḍī* is offered to gods and eaten. On the *Saṅkrānt* day *sugaḍs* (auspicious jars) are presented to Brāhmaṇs, and the following day known as *Kiṅkrānta* is celebrated by newly married girls with *luṭṇe*, a free distribution to *Suvāsinis* of auspicious articles.

CHAPTER 3. The People. COMMUNAL LIFE. Feasts and Festivals. *Vratas.*

Pilgrimages.

Candrapūr has many sacred places to which pilgrimages are made. Tāḍobā Lake and *Sāt Bahiṇi* are resorted to, once a year, by large number of Gonḍs and other forest tribes and the Manas still journey to the shrine of Ṭhākūr Dev on the summit of Surajgaḍh to be purified. In addition to these, four *yātrās* or religious fairs are held annually to which Hindus gather from long distances.

Mārkaṇḍa *Yātrā* is a purely religious gathering. The people assemble to worship in the beautiful ruined temple there and seek purification from sin in the cleansing water of the Waingaṅgā. The fair begins from *Śivarātrī*, the last day of *Māgh* and lasts for fifteen days. The popularity of this place of pilgrimage remains even to this day. The other fairs are partly religious and partly commercial. The Mahākālī *yātrās* at Candrapūr lasts for a month commencing from the full moon day in *Caitra*. The devotees worship at the temple of Mahākālī and at the Acaleśvara *tirth* by the eastern gate. All shops in the town are closed and the traders of the bazar move out to the large open space in front of the temple where a little town of booths springs up.

The Bālājī *yātrā* is held at Cimūr near the Bālājī temple there. It occurs some time in *Phālgun* and lasts for 15 days. The Bhadranāga *yātrā* at Bhāndak lasts for a month from 5th of *Phālgun* to the 5th of *Caitra*. It draws very large crowds, even from Berār and Nāgpūr. In the early centuries of the Christian era, when under Hindu domination, it was called the temple of Bhadranāth, a name of Śiva. A period of Buddhist domination supervened during which the cave temples of Bhāndak were built. When the Buddhist power was overthrown probably by the rise of the Nāgavanśī Kings of Bastar, the old temple was renovated and became Bhadranāg, the Blessed Snake, which name it still bears. In the semi-commercial *yātrās*, the religious element is slight. It occupies only a short portion of the daily leisure of the visitors for three or five days. The *yātrā* is a practically huge temporary bazar and agricultural show. The large open spaces near the temple are filled with the booths of

traders, gay with wares and implements from distant marts displayed for sale. Every one is in holiday attire and happy. People buy provisions and sundry household articles for the rainy season at these *jatrās*.

Cāndā is predominantly a rural and a forest district, and that character determines the nature of its villages and the pattern of residential accommodation of its population. The villages of the district are of two distinct types, the Gond villages of the former *Zamindārs*, known as *malguzārs* and the *Khālsā* cultivators. The latter type of village usually stands on a knoll, shaded by groves of mango or tamarind trees and contains about 100 houses with a population of about 500 to 600. In the Wardha valley at the end of the rains, its little cluster of brown thatched roofs is seen across the undulating fields of jowar, cotton and sesame. In every field a little *māḷā* (platform), roofed with a bamboo mat rises above the greenness, from the interior of which a *rakhvālā* (watchman) hurls abuse and occasionally stones at marauding birds. Along the village boundaries run strips of low scrub-jungle which serve as grazing grounds for the village cattle. In the Waingaṅgā valley, the jowar is replaced by green-gold stretches of rice, the fields are not very extensive and the strips of jungle heavier, almost suggesting a resemblance of forest clearing. The village is built along a straggling, ill-kept street. For the sake of shade and coolness, the houses are built to face north or east and so lie at all angles to the street, presenting an end or a back-wall to it, as often as a front verandah. The Mahār quarter is usually a little apart.

The houses of the *malguzārs* and better class of their tenants are built of unbaked bricks and mud-plastered. Sometimes the walls are whitewashed and the roof tiled. In the northern tahsils, many *malguzārs* have adopted what is called the *sondi* style of building. It consists of a strong square-room, having thick clay walls without windows, roofed over with planks which receive a thick clay coating on the top. Over this a light second storey is built. Verandahs enclose the sides. The doorway of the central room called the *sondi* projects from the wall and being small and low, can be readily closed with brick slabs shaped to fit it. In case of fire, all valuables are hastily thrown into this room as, when the doorway is closed, it is practically fire-proof. By the sides of the *sondi* are *kothrīs* or receptacles of grain which open in the central room. Grain can be poured into them from the top and when full they are closed with earth. The house usually has a courtyard surrounded by a high mud wall, against the sides of which are *goṭhās* (cattle-sheds), rooms for implements and grain stocks. On either side of the gateway are rooms which serve as the malguzar's sitting-room where informal village councils were held or as guest-rooms for such travellers as could claim his hospitality. Houses of poorer tenants and cultivators are mud walled and occasionally of wattle and daub. They usually contain one large central room and the roof of thatch or bamboo matting

is extended to cover verandahs, which when enclosed, form additional rooms for cooking and sleeping. The front verandah is usually kept open.

Furniture in such housts is scanty, consisting of a few *palaṅgs* (cots) strung with rope made of *palaṣa*-root fibre, hemp or *sunn* grass. Stones for grinding and an *ukhal* for husking rice are provided. Earthenware jars of various sizes are used to keep pulses, tamarind, chillis, and grain for immediate use. The roof is garnished with all sorts of farming tools and from it hang *dāṇḍīs* or bamboo poles suspended with a string from which is festooned the family bedding in the daytime. Along the mud walls are niches in which lamps and various oddments for household use are placed and in one arranged as a shrine are the family gods. Cooking, drinking and water-storing utensils in poor families are all earthenware. In well-to-do families they are of brass, copper or bell-metal. But practically every one has a *loṭā* and one cooking pot and cover of brass. In better class houses modern furniture like chairs, tables, harmoniums, and radio sets are found. By way of public buildings in villages, there are the temples of Śiva, and Māruti. These are the meeting-places of the village-folk.

Old houses were built with the idea of providing shelter and safety while modern designs and constructions are particular about principles of convenience, economy, health and sanitation with the necessary safety. The richer classes now go in for independent cottages and bungalows with accommodation generally consisting of a verandah, a drawing or sitting-room, two or three extra rooms to be used as bedrooms, guest room, study room, a kitchen, a parlour, pantry or store-room and an independent bath and w. c. There is a small garden around and a garage. But in Candrapūr such houses are very few and in urban areas only.

The following Table gives the number of houses put to different uses as per the 1961 Census.

TABLE No. 17

HOUSES AND THE USES TO WHICH THEY ARE PUT, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1961

— (1)	District Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)
Total No. of Census Houses	463,844	436,849	26,995
Census Houses vacant at the time of houselisting	40,923	38,716	2,207
(1) Dwellings	247,115	228,744	18,371
(2) Shop-*cum*-Dwellings	1,257	1,137	120

CHAPTER 3. The People. HOME LIFE. Houses and Housing.

TABLE No. 17—*contd.*

(1)	District Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)
(3) Workshop-*cum*-Dwellings	7,557	6,488	1,069
(4) Hotels, Sarais, Dharmashalas, tourist homes, and Inspection houses.	366	303	63
(6) Business Houses and Offices	780	536	244
(7) Factories, Workshops and Worksheds ..	6,844	6,141	703
(8) Schools and other educational institutions including training classes, coaching and shop classes.	1,283	7,155	128
(9) Restaurants, sweetmeat shops and eating places.	592	453	139
(10) Places of entertainment and community gathering (Panchayatghar).	11,885	11,205	680
(11) Public Health and Medical institutions, Hospitals, Health centres, etc.	279	183	96
(12) Others	142,159	139,903	2,256

PECULIAR VILLAGE NOMENCLATURE.

Village names in Candrapūr make a complicated, if rather amusing, study. They are usually derived from Telugu, Marāṭhī and Goṇḍī. But a Kannaḍa termination *ur* or *uru* is common. Telugu terminations meaning village are *palli*, *gudiam* or *gudam* *peta* and *puram*. These are generally found in Siroñcā tahsil but they have penetrated in the northern tract also. Typical examples are Etapalli, a hamlet of Sindi trees; Mamidigudiam, a mango-tree village; Muyyaboinpeta, a village of wood-cutting and Kondapuram, a hill town. Glasfurdpeta commemorates a former popular Deputy Commissioner of Siroñcā and Ciñchpallī is a mixture of Marāṭhī and Telugu, meaning a village of tamarind trees, Ciṇṭapallī being the pure Telugu equivalent. Marāṭhī terminations meaning village which are prevalent in the northern part of the district are *pur*, *gaon*, *peth*, *kheḍā* and *kheḍī*, while other favourite endings are *vāḍā*, (palace), *gaḍh* (fort) and *jharī* (a spring). Common instances are Ballalpūr, Ballāl's city from the name of the founder Ballāl Śāh; Sonegāṅv, a golden village, Ghoḍpeṭh, the horse ward; Rānkheḍā, a jungle village; Rājgaḍh, a royal fort; Gaṅgavāḍā, a water palace; Ghorājhārī, the horse spring. Other terminations are tukum, possibly derived from Goṇḍī, meaning a small village settled out of a larger one as Sattaratukum, a suburb of Sattara. Buzurg, meaning large and khurd meaning small as Vihār buzurg, big Vihār and Mehā khurd, little Mehā. Common Goṇḍī terminations are tolā equivalent to tukum as in Manpurtolā in Kukurmeta and Raiknar, *meta* and *nar* are Goṇḍī endings.

CHAPTER 3. The People. PECULIAR VILLAGE NOMENCLATURE.

The polyglot character of the district is illustrated by many different names equivalent meaning, such as, Dhanoli and Viyampalli, both meaning rice village; Pulligudium and Wagnoli, meaning tiger village and Sathara and Usegāṅv meaning sugarcane village. Name of founders and of gods are often preserved in the names of the villages, *e.g.*, Śaṅkarpūr and Pocammapallī which commemorate gods; Bambani, Brāhmaṇ's village, Korambi, shepherd's village, etc., commemorating founders. Examples of miscellaneous names are: Mukkudigutta, noseless hill; Corli, Corala and Corgāṅv thieves' village; Maldongri, hill for depositing stolen property; Kothari, granary; loni, butter; kolsa, coal; and Ghaṇṭācoukī, guard house with the bell. *Menda* meaning bank of a tank is a frequent termination in well-irrigated tracts like Brahmapurī, as Aswalmenda, bearbank.

FOOD.

Cultivating and labouring classes take three meals a day. In the morning *ambil* (jowar or rice gruel) is drunk and some food left over from the previous evening is taken. The midday meal which is freshly cooked consists of *ghata* a sort of porridge of wheat or jowar flour and vegetables. In the evening *khanya*, a thick porridge and *bhākar* or *chapatis*, cakes of wheat or jowar flour are taken. A great variety of vegetables and oil of *tils* are used to form appetising curries and sauces. Among the lower castes a good deal of flesh and large quantities of fish are used and are esteemed as delicacies. Evening meal is taken about 8 or 9 and cultivators usually bathe before taking it. *Mālguzārs* and better class people eat rice and usually take only two meals a day, one at midday after bathing and the evening meal. Many people bathe a second time before taking meal, but by some it is considered sufficient to wash the hands particularly in the cold season. Rice is prepared in a variety of ways, with ghee, milk, sugar, vegetable sauces and *chatnis*. It is the mark of a good housewife to know a large number of recipes for such sauces. No Hindu of high caste eats flesh, but some of the vegetable *pulāos* and curries they prepare are excellent. On festivals, all classes prepare special dishes and dainties, which are generally some delicacy or other made from the crop or fruit which happens to ripen at the time. For example, *puranpoli* a variety of gram cake made with sugar is eaten on all festivals but especially at *Poḷā*, *modaks* balls of wheat *chapatis* rolled round a kernel of coconut are a speciality for *Gaṇeś Caturthī* and *til* and sugar must be taken on the *Saṅkrāti* day. Tobacco is used by all classes and nearly all lower castes and forest tribes do not abstain from liquor, whenever possible. Tea, coffee and other beverages have penetrated the villages as also drinks like soda-water, etc.

DRESS.

The ordinary dress of a man consists of a *dhoti*, a *kurtā* and *pheṭā* or *pagri*. The *dhoti* is a strip of cloth about 5 yards long arranged round the loins and passed between the legs. The *kurtā* is the upper garment, shaped somewhat like a short shirt. A good many of the poorer people do not wear it but substitute a strip of cloth worn round the shoulders. Better class people

CHAPTER 3. The People. DRESS.

ordinarily wear a *bandi* or waistcoat over the *kurtā*. The *pheṭā* is a long strip of cloth wound round the head to form a turban; it is often of Kosa silk. The small Marāṭhā turban worn by native gentlemen is a very smart and costly headdress. The *barakasi* is an elaborate double-breasted coat tied with twelve strings arranged in pairs; three pairs fasten the inner flap and three the outer. The *uparṇā* is a strip of fine cloth worn over the shoulder. But all these have fallen into disuse among younger men. Coats that button and small embroidered caps that were used two or three decades ago have also gone out of fashion. Their place has been taken by shirts, *pairaṇs*, *pyjamas* and shorts and going bare-headed is getting quite popular. Heel-less native slippers with turned up toes are seen sometimes but English pattern shoes and boots are quite common. Brahmans used to wear a special garment of silk, linen or woollen cloth at meals and women also wore special clothes while preparing meals. But all that is now becoming history. In the southern part of the district all classes take great care to avoid pollution and people of lower castes also sit apart and turn their backs on their companions while taking meals.

A woman's dress consists of the *lugaḍe* and *coḷī*. The *lugaḍe* is a strip of cloth about nine yards in length put on so as to form a sort of petticoat with the *padar* or free end covering the breasts and head and falling like a veil over the right shoulder. Kohli and Dhimār women have the *padar* on the left shoulder. The *coḷi* is a very small short sleeved bodice, covering the breast but leaving the waist bare. Women belonging to the forest tribes may not wear it at all. Bright colours are greatly favoured, red, blue, green and yellow being commonly worn. Borders and *padars* are often beautifully embroidered. White, as the colour of widowhood may not be worn unless, the *lugaḍe* has a coloured border. Of late five or six-yard saris worn cylindrically have come into vogue. A widow's dress is white without any borders.

ORNAMENTS.

Ornaments are widely regarded, particularly in the rural parts, more as a means of safe-keeping of money than for decoration or aids to beauty. People do not like to spend much on the goldsmith's labour or skill which fetches no value on the reconversion of ornaments into cash. As a result, it is found, that except for the patronage of a few princes of old or rich persons ornaments are but specimens of clumsy form and workmanship. Gold ornaments are simply hammered or punched into shape or rudely engraved and are practically never cast or moulded. They are often made hollow from thin plate or leaf, the interior being filled with lac. Similar is the case with silver which is also rarely cast.

Ornaments differ in type as used by men and women and by boys and girls. They are worn on the head, in the ears, in the nose, across the shoulders, on the arms, wrists and fingers, round

the waist, on the legs and on the toes. They differ according to caste and community.

CHAPTER 3. The People. ORNAMENTS.

With Hindus gold is a very sacred metal. Gold ornaments, on this account, must never be worn below the waist as to do so would be an indignity to the holy metal. Brāhman and Marāṭhā women will not have ornaments for the head and arms of any baser metal than gold. Other castes should, if they can afford wear only gold on the head. Gold and silver in ornaments is also considered to have a protective magical effect, like that attributed to charms and amulets. In the making of ornaments, the recent tendency is to substitute gold, silver and precious stones by alloys, cultured pearls and synthetic stones.

Men rarely wear, now-a-days, any ornaments. However, a *sāwkār* may display a Bhikbālī, a gold ring set with pearls and a pendant-emerald hanging by the upper lobe of his ear. He may also use gold *salkaḍīs* or a poci on the wrist and a *goph* or chain-work with a locket round the neck. If fairly off, a *baniā*'s everyday ornaments may be a silver girdle and a gold armlet worn above the elbow, a pearl ear-ring, a gold or pearl necklace and finger rings. Well-to-do cultivators have gold rings in the ear, *kaḍas* of silver on the wrists or a *daṇḍa-kaḍe* of silver worn above the elbow. A silver chain work, known as *kargoṭā* is used round the waist by many. Women in Candrapūr wear a great variety of ornaments many of which are heirlooms. Nose-rings, studs for the nostrils, ear-rings, finger-rings, toe-rings of a great variety of conventional patterns are commonly worn. Silver and white metal anklets and bangles of gold, silver and white metal, lac or glass are practically universal and many castes have special rules about the kind of bangles that must be worn. The *garsoli or maṅgalsutra*, a necklace of black beads and gold pendant attached, is put round the neck of the bride at marriage and it is removed only if she becomes a widow. Women belonging to some castes adorn their hair with pretty gold ornaments but Kuṇbīs and other cultivating castes forbid this to their women. Marāṭhā ladies do their hair in a bun at the back of the head but Telugus arrange theirs differently. Telugu women also have ornaments in both nostrils while Marāṭhā adorn only one. Women of the lower castes and most forest tribes frequently tattoo their faces and bodies in very elaborate patterns and even men are not always guiltless of this vanity.

AMUSEMENTS.

Village life in this district would appear to be extraordinarily monotonous to an outsider. The people know little of the world beyond the little circle of local bazars where their avocations take them and they are extremely reluctant to leave home. Before taking a journey when absolutely necessary, omens are watched, astrologer consulted and an auspicious day is selected. The cultivator would rise very early in the morning and turn cattle to feed. From dawn to mid-day he ploughs or does some other field work. He rests for about three hours in the heat of the

CHAPTER 3. The People. AMUSEMENTS.

day and from 3 o'clock takes up some light task, returning home at sunset. After supper, he goes straight to bed, but in seasons when work is light he may go to the Chabutra of Maruti's temple to gossip and get bazar news. Here *bhajans* are sung, old stories retold and anonymous complaints concocted against the Patwari, the head constable and some other unpopular officers. Sometimes, some fairly literate man may read the *purāṇa* or a newspaper. This scene is changing fast with the introduction of the radio sets given to villages by the Government and this amusement-*cum*-instruction is much appreciated. The work of the social welfare and block development departments for the moral and material development of the people is taking strong roots.

The visit of a troupe of acrobats or of dancing boys occasionally is much liked. Enterprising teachers in the primary schools that are multiplying start dramatic clubs and their plays in which boys and girls participate, provide much innocent and healthy amusement to old and young. This spirit is penetrating even among the Gonds and Madias and the work during the three five year plans for agricultural development, irrigation, animal husbandry, forests, housing, co-operation, small industries, education, sanitation and medical help is fast changing the face of Candrapūr which was once extremely backward.

Children's games in Candrapūr as elsewhere have times and season. *Topal-dandu* (tip-cat) and *dhandhar*, a sort of single stick play with farcical interludes are favourites all the year round, except during the rainy season. From the beginning of the rains till *Poḷā*, stilt-walking holds the field, but the stilts are discarded on the evening of the Badge ceremony. *Phugaḍī* is a romping dancing game, played at *Dasarā*, *Lonpata*, a complicated 'touch' game played in squares, begins at the end of the rains and in *Phālgun*, *Ghan-Makad* a sort of sea-saw has its turn. A log is placed on an upright pivot, two boys seat themselves on the ends and set it whirling with a push of their feet. When sufficient velocity is attained, they lift their feet and keep whirling. This log is usually burnt in the *Holī* fire. Marbles or *goṭyā* is a favourite game in the hot weather. In many old temples stones are found showing deep cuts caused by village boys rubbing their marbles to make them round. In Candrapūr cricket, hockey and football became popular decades ago and have now spread to every town and big village where their is a secondary school. Carrom and chess at home is noticed in some places.

Cattle-racing in light carts, goading animals to speed by all possible means is a popular amusement among the cultivating classes in the district. Cattle-races are held on the day of *Til-Saṅkrānta* at which two pairs of bullocks, yoked to a light *chakḍā* or cart, race against each other for a distance of half a mile or so, while the owners bet on the result. Such contests are held also at the various fairs and a number of frantic cartmen

long for the day when they could take part in the cart-racing. With the same spirit of contest, they enjoy fights between rams, cocks and buffaloes specially trained for the purpose.

CHAPTER 3. The People. AMUSEMENTS.

But the entertainment to the taste of the urban inhabitant of Candrapūr has to be of a more cultural type. Theatrical and circus companies and the cinema houses cater for his amusement. Acrobats, dancers and snake-charmers provide occasional amusement. Organised efforts are made by dramatic clubs, libraries and newspapers from centres like Nāgpūr provide the intellectual amusement necessary to the literate and the educated.

Recreational activities and games popular among children of the district have parallels perhaps with such activities all the world over. Dolls made of clay and cloth and occasionally their marriages are celebrated with feasts and fire-works. Tag and chase games such as *āndhḷi kośimbir*, *lapaṇḍāv* are popular among boys of all ages. Games such as *gup-cup-toba*, *surpārambi*, *vagh bakri* are played in a team spirit. Games of *goṭyā* and *bhovrā* (top) are played with a keen sense of contest by boys. *Bhātukli* (house-keeping), *gajge* or *sāgargoṭe* and *phugḍyā* are essentially games played by girls. Games played in the primary and secondary schools in the district are much the same as in any other district in the State. Of these the well known major Indian games are: *āṭyāpāṭyā*, *kabaḍḍī*, *kho-kho*, *laṅgaḍī*, *lagoryā*, and *viṭi-dāṇḍū*.

Swimming and walking on stilts are the pastimes of the month of *Śrāvaṇa*. Kite flying is a favourite amusement with the old and young in the open season about the time of *Saṅkrānta* and the game of *pataṅg laḍhaṇe* which consists in trying to cut the strings of each other's kites is played. When the string of a kite is cut and it falls to the ground, it becomes the property of the first person who can pick it. For this purpose, a special thread rubbed with paste and ground glass-dust is made in order to make it sharp and hard.

STIMULANTS AND NARCOTICS.

Tea drinking has become very common in not only middle-class but even cultivating and peasant families and especially the artisan classes like mechanics, drivers, and manual labourers. Tea with milk and sugar is taken early in the morning and even in the afternoon. The elite in Candrapūr and Waroḍā drink it as a hot brew or infusion poured into a cup from a teapot adding milk and sugar to taste. The commoner usually has it as a composite drink, while some have it as a decoction of tea powder, mixing pepper or dry ginger or cinnamon in it to cure indigestion and to make the tea still more stimulating. Coffee has not made much headway except in the towns and in Siroñcā where the Telugu influence is dominant. Cold drinks and *śerbats* are used casually but a drink called coca cola, an importation from America has reached Candrapūr. Aerated waters are mainly confined to urban areas where tea, *lassi* (cold drink of curds) and other usual drinks are served in restaurants and tea shops.

The habit of chewing and smoking tobacco is traditional and *bidis* are largely consumed. Cigarettes are becoming fashionable among younger folk. While chewing tobacco, addicts mix it with lime to make it more stringent and stimulating. The custom of taking snuff prevails both among upper and middle classes and is considered fairly respectable. Chewing *pān* (betel-leaves) with *supārī* (areca-nut), catechu and lime is quite common among all, notably among the Musalmans, both men and women. Among the connoisseurs, this *pān* chewing has become a fine art with the addition of spices like cloves, cardamoms, saffron, meg-nut powder and several other spices which are traditionally known to be sixteen.

Tobacco is consumed in more ways also. Tobacco is smoked in pipes also. Two kinds of pipes are in general use, the long-stemmed *hukkā* or hubble-bubble in which smoke is cooled as it is inhaled through water and the short almost stemless bowl or *cilim* where the smoke is sucked through a wet cloth wrapped at the bottom. Tobacco to be smoked in the *hukkā* is known as *gudākhu* which is specially processed with molasses and water and is principally used in the parlours of rich people. Except some Brāhmaṇs, men of all classes of Hindus smoke tobacco.

In the pre-prohibition days, fermented and distilled drinks were common enough. Fermented liquors, prepared as they were from the date-palm, *khajuri* or *tāḍ* were in use as these trees abound in Candrapūr's forests. But the chief alcoholic drink that was popular, and perhaps is still popular, among the tribals and scheduled castes of Candrapūr is the liquor made from *mahua* flowers (*Bassia latifolio*). To improve its flavour or colour, different varieties of fruits, flowers or herbs were some-times added to the simple liquor. There may not be considerable consumption of European wines and liquors though in urban areas brandy, whisky, beer, etc., were by no means unconspicuous. Liquor was usually taken in taverns and licensed booths.

Preparation from hemp, *bhāṅg* or *ambāḍī* (*Gannabis indica*) *i.e.*, *bhāṅg*, *yākuti* and *gāñjā* were in use. *Bhāṅg* was made from the leaves, flowers and seeds of the plant, first baked over fire and then ground very fine, the intoxicating power depending to a considerable extent on the fineness of the powder. According to the taste and means of the consumer, dry rose leaves, almonds, cardamoms, pepper and spices were pounded and mixed with the powder. The whole was again ground with water or milk, sweetened with sugar and strained through a cloth. After this the preparation was ready to be served. In the hot season it was a frequently taken drink. In small moderate quantities, it was a cooling and slightly intoxicating beverage causing at the same time a keen sense of hunger.

The dried hemp plant which has flowered and from which the resin has not been removed is called *gāṅjā*. As a rule smokers of *gāñjā* were to be found in shrines and temples, reli-

gious mendicants, *bairāgis* and *faqirs* and a lower order of Brāhmaṇs being the chief addicts. The plant washed four or five times, dried and mixed with tobacco was smoked in whiffs about every half hour by the addict. Opium used either as a drug or as a narcotic was administered in several ways. It was rolled into a pill and swallowed or dissolved in water and drunk or smoked in a special preparation. It was once held in high esteem among Rājputs as the seal of hospitality and a great healer of dispute. It was offered dissolved in water in cups as a token of goodwill to guests who drank it in a small quantity.

The general impression that the Candrapūr rural scene now gives is that of a people tied to the land and forests and hills who are coming under the influence of modern civilization and speedily coming abreast of their fellowmen in other districts of Mahārāṣṭra State.

CHAPTER 4—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

AGRICULTURE IS STILL THE MAINSTAY OF LIVELIHOOD FOR THE PEOPLE IN THE DISTRICT. About 82.08 per cent of the total working population in the district is dependent on land as against the average of 69.91 per cent in Maharashtra and 69.62 per cent in India. In 1901 the total population of the district was 574,323 while in 1961 it increased to 1,238,070. This increase in population has its effect on the economy of the district which is mainly agriculture oriented. Consequently there is a heavy pressure on land. Now, it can be said that the agricultural economy of the district in the absence of mechanized cultivation, has more or less reached its last lap of the period of abundance. And if it is to become a profitable affair, in addition to the usual requirement of food from it, the only possibility of achieving this objective is the maximum utilization of ample natural resources found in the country-side to support the agricultural industry and the mechanised way of cultivation.

By 1901, the people in the district had not to face any shortage in food. But since then there was a considerable growth in the population. During the last six decades ending 1961 the net percentage increase in the population in the district was 115.57 as against 103.97 for Maharashtra. The rates of variation in the tahsils however vary between 13.42 per cent (for Warora tahsil) and 20.14 per cent (for Chandrapur tahsil). If the population is divided between rural and the urban, the percentage of rural population to total population as it stood in the decade ending 1961 was 92.27 as against 7.73 percentage for urban population in the district. This again shows how Chandrapur district is least urbanised. Thus the major portion of the population is stationed in the rural area only where agriculture alone is the mainstay of livelihood.

A comparative study of the table given below also shows how the number of persons who are dependent on agriculture and on subsidiary occupations related to it has increased considerably during the last decade of 1961. In 1951, the total number of persons who derived their secondary means of livelihood from land was 233,646 (males 60,037, females 173,609) while the same increased to 587,073 (males 282,621, females 304,452) in 1961. It is also interesting to note that the number of female workers dependent on land in 1951 as well as in 1961, is more than that of male workers.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

TABLE No. 1

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT IN 1951 AND 1961.

	1951				1961			
	Cultivators of unowned land	Owner cultivators	Agricultural rent receivers	Cultivating labourers	Cultivators	Agricultural labourers		
(1)	(3)	(2)	(5)	(4)	(6)	(7)		
Males:								
Rural	4,271	8,117	3,100	43,539	206,669	73,698		
Urban	55	112	118	725	1,659	595		
Females:								
Rural	1,453	28,889	5,568	135,190	198,214	103,894		
Urban	2	130	26	2,351	1,287	1,057		

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RAINFALL.

Prior to 1909, rainfall was registered for general purposes at ten stations in the district, *viz.*, the five tahsil headquarters (Chanda, Warora, Brahmapuri, Sironcha and Gadhchiroli) and also at Mul, Armori, Chimur, Muramgaon and Allapalli. Besides these, seven more stations were also maintained by the then Public Works Department in connection with the more important State tanks. The stations at Chanda, Warora, Brahmapuri, Sironcha and Mul date from the sixties of 18th century. The average annual rainfall of the district, according to these stations, for 39 years ending 1905-06 was 1244.6 mm. (49 inches). The heaviest falls were recorded at Brahmapuri which had an annual rainfall of 1384.30 mm. (54½ inches) and the lightest at Warora with an average of 1149.35 mm. (45¼ inches). During the same period the district rainfall had in 18 years exceeded 50, and in nine years fallen short of 1016 mm. (40 inches). The highest recorded annual fall was 1776.48 mm. (69.94 inches) in 1887-88 and the lowest 489.78 mm. (19.28 inches) in the famine year 1899-1900. The actual average monthly figures for the 33 years ending in 1899-1900 were 184.15 mm. (7¼ inches) in June, 400.05 mm. (15¾") in July, 298.45 mm. (11¾") in August, 215.90 mm. (8½") in September and 50.8 mm. (2 inches) in October. In the remaining portion of the year the average rainfall was only 95.25 mm. (3¾ inches).

At present there are 16 rainfall stations in the district. The average rainfall returns of each of these stations for the period between 1914-15 and 1961-62 is given in the table No. 2. The district can be divided into three broad rainfall regions. The eastern region comprising the tahsils of Sironcha, Gadhchiroli and Brahmapuri has heavy and a dependable rainfall. The central region which comprises Chandrapur and Rajura tahsils gets sufficient rainfall, while the western part of the district comprising Warora tahsil gets a moderate rainfall.

The annual rainfall increases from 1143 mm. (45") in the west to over 1524 mm. (60") in the east. The monsoon usually breaks out in the second or in the third week in June and if it follows a normal course, should increase in intensity through July, somewhat abating in August and continuing to slacken through September and disappearing about the middle of October. The rainfall is heaviest in the hilly and jungle rice tracts of Brahmapuri and also in the thickly wooded area of Aheri. It is lightest in the cotton country of the Warora tahsil.

"The mean rainfall at Brahmapuri, Chandrapur and Sironcha is 1447 mm. (56.96"), 1270 mm. (49.99") and 1226 mm (48.26") respectively. Standard deviation at these stations is 358 mm. (14.10"), 278 mm. (10.94") and 275 mm. (10.84") and coefficient of variability is 24.75 per cent, 21.88 per cent and 22.47 per cent, respectively. The rainfall reliability is measured by coefficient of variability. The degree of reliability in the regions represented by the three stations is thus high.[1]"

[1] District Census Handbook, Chanda, 1961, p., 2.

TABLE No. 2

AVERAGE RAINFALL IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1914-15 TO 1961-62.

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		January (3)	February (4)	March (5)	April (6)	May (7)	June (8)
Aheri (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	8·84	17·62	18·35	4·81	19·08	197·58
		b	0·65	1·00	1·27	1·65	1·25	8·88
Armori (1914-15 to 1960-61)	47	a	13·45	19·02	24·39	12·35	13·94	203·35
		b	0·73	1·38	1·14	1·20	1·49	8·73
Brahmapuri (1914-15 to 1961-62) ..	48	a	15·59	20·99	17·90	24·73	16·37	204·93
		b	0·98	1·46	1·60	1·67	1·40	9·38
Chandrapur (1914-15 to 1961-62) ..	48	a	8·75	20·38	18·25	20·66	13·71	193·23
		b	0·60	1·40	1·40	1·67	1·23	9·44
Chimur (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	29·64	16·84	16·86	18·69	21·86	204·09
		b	0·83	1·13	1·48	1·38	1·56	9·77
Dhanora (1921-22 to 1961-62)	37	a	9·01	18·12	13·92	8·96	9·91	223·09
		b	0·54	1·05	1·30	0·84	0·84	9·08
Gadhchiroli (1914-15 to 1961-62) ..	48	a	22·32	17·42	18·10	14·37	17·87	226·88
		b	0·85	1·21	1·50	1·52	1·13	9·09
Garmusi (1927-28 to 1960-61)	32	a	8·31	19·33	12·66	12·55	8·13	208·9
		b	0·66	1·16	1·06	1·06	0·75	9·25
Ghorajheri (1914-15 to 1959-60)	46	a	9·54	19·77	11·88	9·90	7·39	191·18
		b	0·48	1·15	1·22	1·02	0·59	6·35

a — Average rainfall in millimetres. b — Average number of rainy days.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		July (9)	August (10)	September (11)	October (12)	November (13)	December (14)
Aheri (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	488·46	418·43	228·50	71·22	14·17	1·74
		b	18·17	17·10	11·42	4·00	0·92	0·25
Armori (1914-15 to 1960-61)	47	a	502·15	405·62	203·52	69·15	11·57	1·32
		b	18·13	15·40	11·49	3·31	0·82	0·18
Brahmapuri (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	516·13	399·40	227·27	67·59	13·50	3·40
		b	18·44	16·08	10·73	3·21	0·98	0·29
Chandrapur (1914-15 to 1961-62) ..	48	a	384·79	338·67	245·10	78·00	24·71	3·45
		b	17·63	14·98	10·92	3·73	1·23	0·33
Chimur (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	423·69	313·99	218·49	61·86	11·63	15·20
		b	17·96	14·31	10·71	3·44	0·98	0·25
Dhanora (1921-22 to 1961-62)	37	a	605·74	549·20	268·43	595·88	10·69	3·25
		b	19·76	18·19	12·27	3·16	0·57	0·11
Gadhchiroli (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	521·72	445·43	276·77	79·96	13·75	2·87
		b	19·25	16·71	11·77	3·58	0·92	0·34
Garmusi (1927-28 to 1960-61)	32	a	493·77	819·86	251·20	65·01	9·14	2·63
		b	18·81	15·84	10·56	3·16	0·66	0·16
Ghorajheri (1914-15 to 1959-60)	46	a	440·83	365·09	223·68	55·48	14·29	1·91
		b	17·44	15·00	10·63	2·65	0·76	0·13

a — Average rainfall in millimetres. b — Average number of rainy days.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		January (3)	February (4)	March (5)	April (6)	May (7)	June (8)
Ghot (1914-15 to 1932-33)	19	a	11·04	26·92	11·11	9·40	16·00	243·71
		b	0·84	1·47	0·90	0·79	1·37	9·42
Khairee (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	14·67	19·93	15·16	12·37	9·02	190·28
		b	0·84	1·23	1·31	1·17	0·83	8·81
Kunghari (1914-15 to 1960-61)	46	a	9·24	15·54	13·03	9·18	6·90	204·64
		b	0·67	0·87	0·98	0·80	0·83	9·89
Mul (1914-15 to 1959-60)	46	a	10·79	22·62	16·84	14·48	14·70	210·29
		b	0·65	1·50	1·39	1·46	1·37	9·07
Nalesar (1927-28 to 1960-61)	32	a	7·62	19·48	11·86	12·51	15·00	192·99
		b	0·69	1·16	0·75	0·94	1·28	9·13
Sironcha (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	8·31	13·64	16·47	19·62	31·07	202·99
		b	0·56	1·10	1·10	1·38	1·96	9·13
Warora (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	4·10	18·83	18·81	14·29	13·04	193·43
		b	0·67	1·27	1·35	1·38	1·25	10·02

a — Average rainfall in millimetres. b — Average number of rainy days.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		July (9)	August (10)	September (11)	October (12)	November (13)	December (14)
Ghot (1914-15 to 1932-33)	19	a	467·36	392·36	246·42	57·48	19·56	1·56
		b	16·84	15·00	12·42	3·90	1·16	0·11
Khairee (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	453·51	386·20	227·27	74·38	14·17	1·88
		b	17·75	15·10	10·42	3·10	0·73	0·15
Kunghari (1914-15 to 1960-61)	46	a	512·07	407·70	217·88	67·59	11·87	1·51
		b	18·20	15·91	10·59	3·09	0·80	0·11
Mul (1914-15 to 1959-60)	46	a	398·45	50·12	194·19	64·75	13·20	2·26
		b	18·07	14·50	10·52	3·28	1·00	0·22
Nalesar (1927-28 to 1960-61)	32	a	412·88	356·02	217·13	67·12	7·25	2·07
		b	17·69	14·66	9·69	2·78	0·56	0·25
Sironcha (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	487·06	337·68	188·84	77·20	17·58	2·68
		b	17·69	15·29	11·17	4·13	11·88	0·25
Warora (1914-15 to 1961-62)	48	a	376·79	287·04	193·88	59·34	14·53	4·94
		b	16·56	13·46	9·65	3·08	1·06	0·23

a — Average rainfall in millimetres. b — Average number of rainy days.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

As in other districts of the State, there are two main harvests for field crops in the district, the *kharif* or autumn crop, which is gathered mostly at the beginning of the cold weather and the other, *viz.*, *rabi* or spring crop in January and February. In the district, Sironcha, Gadhchiroli and Brahmapuri tahsils have more than 70 per cent of the gross cropped areas under *kharif* while in the remaining three tahsils, *viz.*, Warora, Chandrapur and Rajura, *rabi* crops are grown on a large scale. The chief autumn crops grown in the district are rice, *kharif* jowar, tur and cotton. Kodon-kutki and maize crops formed the principal crops grown in *kharif* season in 1909 in addition to the above. Wheat, jowar, gram, linseed, and some pulses are grown in *rabi* season. Jowar is thus produced in both the *kharif* and the *rabi* seasons. The areas under crops in the two seasons, however, vary from year to year. This is due entirely to the variations in the monsoon.

The crop table of seasonal agricultural operations or the farmer's calendar is more or less of a permanent nature. Since 1909 there has been no remarkable shift in the farmer's calendar. His year still starts with the manuring of his fields. This is generally done in the hot weather. The manure is simply carted to the fields and dumped down in heaps. After the first showers the farmer starts ploughing the field as it is softened by the shower. This ploughing helps in exposing as much soil to the air as possible and the consequent rooting out of weeds. The manure is then spread, mixed with the soil. One or two harrowings are also given. By the time these operations are over, there is sufficient moisture in the soil due to the monsoon. The seed of the autumn crops is then sown. These crops receive two weedings, one while the crop is only a few inches above the ground, and the other a few weeks later. After the weedings are over the land is prepared for the spring crop. It is done in the same manner as in the case of autumn crops. By this time the autumn crop which is fast ripening needs to be guarded against birds and animals. Such measures include erecting of *machans*, fencing, and watching at night. In the month of September and October the *rabi* crops are sown. After the sowing of the *rabi* crop, the *kharif* harvest is close at hand and by the time all the operations such as cutting and gathering, drying, threshing and winnowing are over, the spring harvest is almost due and has to be treated likewise. The farmer thus gets some rest sometime between April and May.

SOILS.

Soil is the most important factor in the process of production. Its structure which, to a very great extent, controls the cropping pattern is formed by such constituents as thickness, texture, consistency, Ca Co_3, Mg., $P_2 O_5$, etc., which vary from place to place. A general description of the soil of the district as regards its topographical distribution is given in the old gazetteer[1] of the

1. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, Vol. A., 1909, p. 142.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

SOILS.

district. It shows how the soils of western, central and eastern parts of the district differ from each other. The old account reads thus:

"The soil of the district falls into clearly defined longitudinal bands, and each of these bands displays cropping of a wholly different kind from that of its immediate neighbour. On the extreme west, on the left banks of the Wardha and the Godavari, there is found a deep and rich black loam overlying trap and itself probably largely composed of disintegrated trap. The impervious nature of the underlying trap makes the soil extremely retentive of moisture, and it is found to be peculiarly suited to the growth of open field crops, such as cotton, juari and staples of the *rabi* type. Further east occurs a belt of shallower brown or yellow loam overlying sandstone. This soil drains rapidly and would be of little value without irrigation, but when watered is ideal for rice and cane. As the country is interspersed with numerous hills affording excellent sites for tanks, we find this tract studded with villages devoted to the cultivation of rice, and for the most part possessing excellent tanks. Further eastward again, on either bank of the Wainganga, the black loam reappears and is accompanied by a prevalence of open field spring crops, with occasional rice villages intervening wherever a good site can be found for a tank. Eastward of the Wainganga valley the soil becomes poor and hills are abundant, the consequence being that rice is the staple crop of the zamindaris which occupy this tract."

There were nine types of soil which were distinguished at settlement and recorded in the old gazetteer of the district. Their local designation varied according to the language prevailing in different tracts. These local names were *kali, bersi kanhar, morand, khardi, wardi, retari, bardi, pandhri* and *kachhar*. These types of soil are still found in the district. A brief description of each is given below:—

Kali.—This type of soil is mainly confined to the riverain tracts and is found in the valley of Wardha and Wainganga. It is formed from trap and is deep retentive and fertile. "In the hot weather it is chequered by deep and wide fissures, but with the advent of the rains it is rapidly transformed into a quagmire." It is suitable only for *rabi* crop.

Kanhar.—This type of soil differs from *kali* in depth and moisture holding capacity and is less fertile than *kali*. It is observed in river valleys as well as in tank bed. It contains small amount of grit in the form of lime. Inferior type of kanhar is known as *bersi kanhar* and is coarser in texture. It is mainly noticed in the Wainganga valley.

Morand.—This is the most common soil of the district. It is a light coloured loam containing more sand than is found in *bersi* and larger particles of stone. It responds well to irrigation due to its loamy texture. Both, the *kharif* and *rabi* crops

can be grown on this soil. In the open fields, the principal crops on this soil, are *til* and jowar, but when embanked for both rice and *rabi*, the favourite second crop is gram.

Khardi.—It is a very poor soil, of light colour and full of stones, but when embanked sometimes improves itself into *morand*. In the open it grows only *til* and jowar. But its outturn is very low. Even so, it requires plenty of manure or frequent resting.

Wardi.—It is the principal rice soil of the heavy rice tracts. It is a light coloured soil, as good as sand with just sufficient clay to keep it from crumbling in the dry season. If unirrigated it would be a very poor soil indeed, but, with the irrigation in this district *wardi* can be the most popular soil. It never gets water-logged, and with full irrigation and some manure it gives a very full crop of rice and fair crop of cane. When dry *wardi* is almost as hard as stone, and cannot, as a rule, be ploughed before the rains have well set in.

Retari and bardi.—These soils are quite useless without irrigation. The first type of soil is mostly sand and the second is nothing but pebbles. Neither soil is brought under the plough.

Pandhri.—This is really an artificial soil. It is the grey soil that is found on and around a village site obtaining its colour and its fertility from the ashes and refuse that accumulate upon it from the neighbouring houses. It grows maize, tobacco and similar crops well, without irrigation.

In the Sironcha tahsil an alluvial soil known as *Kachhar* occurs freely along the banks of the Godavari, and has been recognised as a distinct class for purposes of assessment. This soil is also known and recognised in other parts of the district that border on a large river, but the capriciousness of the floods that control the deposit has prevented *Kachhar* land from being ranked as a distinct soil class except along the Godavari, where floods are of annual occurrence and reach certain limits with regularity almost every year.

Of the total cultivated area of the district in 1906, *kali* covered one per cent; *kanhar*, 9; *bersi kanhar*, 32; *morand*, 40; *khardi*, 5; and *wardi*, 13; other soils being of no importance.

During the period prior to 1909, on the basis of position and the lie of the ground as well as on the actual soil, position classes were given at the settlement to the soils growing wheat, rice and garden crops. For *mutafarikat* or miscellaneous crop land, no separate position classes were deemed necessary. For wheat land, there were three favoured positions: *bandhan*, land with a high embankment, *bandhia*, land with a low embankment, and *lawan*, low lying land receiving drainage but not embanked. Another position class of land was *sadharan*, that of an ordinary

flat field, neither receiving moisture from elsewhere nor transmitting its own. The other two disadvantageous positions were, *wahuri*, land cut up by small nullahs, which was drained somewhat rapidly, and *pathar*, land lying at the top of a slope and apt to be scoured away in years of heavy rain. The rice land was also classified as irrigated and unirrigated. The position classes of unirrigated rice land were *tekra*, *sawan*, and *jhilan*, corresponding, respectively, to the *pathar*, *sadharan*, and *lawan* positions of the wheat land with the exception that rice land is always embanked. The position classes of irrigated land were *warsalang* and *murkhand*.

The values of some physical and chemical constants of the above described soils are given below:—

(1)	Kali (2)	Morand (3)	Khardi (4)	Wardi (5)
PH	7·9	7·8	7·1	6·8
Silt percentage	28	20	40	11
Clay percentage	61	56	36	23
Ex. Ca. m. c. percentage	52	44	15	10
Ex. Mg. m. c. percentage	11	9·0	3·09	3·17
Ex. Na + K. m. c. percentage	2·13	0·87	0·85	0·92
Total 'N' percentage	0·083	0·055	0·044	0·011

Description of typical profiles with their analysis is given in the following tables:—

TABLE No. 3

ANALYTICAL DESCRIPTION OF TYPICAL SOIL PROFILES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Soil type and location (1)	Depth in Cms. (2)	Description (3)
Kali—		
Village: Warora S. No. 19/3. Tahsil: Warora. Profile II.	0—22·5	Very dark grey brown, clayey, loose blocky, full of lime nodules.
	22·5—40·0	Grey-brown, clayey, moist and friable, blocky.
	40·0—75·0	Brown, clay loam, slightly sticky, indefinite structure.
	75·0—102·5	Same as above.
Kanhar—		
Village: Warora S. No. 15. Tahsil: Warora. Profile III.	0—22·5	Dark grey brown sandy loam, hard blocky, full of lime nodules.
	22·5—45·0	Dark brown, sandy loam, moist and friable, blocky.
	45·0—87·5	Dark brown, sandy loam, indefinite structure.
	87·5—140·0	Yellowish brown, clay loam, slightly sticky.

TABLE No. 3—*contd.*

Soil type and location (1)	Depth in Cms. (2)	Description (3)
Morand—		
Village : Aheri ..	0·25	Very dark grey clay loam, hard and compact, angular blocky, few lime nodules present.
S. No. 467.		
Tahsil : Sironcha.		
Profile II.	25 — 47	Very dark brown clayey, blocky, moist, mixed with few sand particles and lime streaks.
	47— 82	Very dark grey brown, clayey, plastic, few lime streaks.
	82—110	Do. do.
	110—134·5	Very dark grey, clayey, indefinite structure, profuse lime present.
Khardi—		
Village : Lonewahi (Sindewahi).	0— 22·5	Very pale brown, sandy loam, hard blocky, full of sand and gravel.
S. No. 388/5.		
Tahsil : Brahmapuri.	22·5— 45	Very dark grey, sandy loam, hard indefinite structure.
	45— 77·5	Very dark grey brown, sandy loam, indefinite structure.
	77·5—105	Do. do.
Wardi—		
Village Lonewahi (Sindewahi).	0— 22·5	Yellowish brown sandy loam, structureless, hard, full of gravel.
S. Nos. 341, 342 and 343.	22·5— 37·5	Brownish yellow, sandy loam, hard and structureless.
Tahsil : Brahmapuri.	Below 37·5	Reddish coloured gravel.

TABLE No. 4

ANALYTICAL DATA OF TYPICAL PROFILES OF SOILS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Layer in cms. (1)	$CaCO_3$ (2)	Org. matter (3)	Mechanical analysis: Moisture (4)	Coarse sand (5)	Fine sand (6)	Silt (7)	Clay (8)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
Kali, Sy. No. 19/3—							
0—22·5	3·1	1·63	5·05	8·22	16·50	20·25	45·24
22·5—40	2·0	0·64	6·00	10·58	18·78	13·75	48·25
40·0—75	2·5	0·32	5·25	9·49	17·69	25·50	39·25
75·0—102·5	2·8	0·32	4·25	11·23	21·15	14·00	46·25
102·5—135	2·9	0·32	5·60	8·87	14·81	20·25	47·25
Kankar, Sy. No. 15—							
0—22·5	2·3	0·96	3·40	31·37	14·97	12·00	35·00
22·5—45	2·4	0·47	4·15	25·33	16·40	13·75	37·50
45·0—87·5	2·5	0·79	4·15	29·52	14·28	13·75	38·00
87·5—140	2·7	0·64	4·55	22·93	14·68	14·00	40·50

Layer in cms. (1)	Mechanical analysis: $CaCO_3$ (2)	Org. matter (3)	Moisture (4)	Coarse sand (5)	Fine sand (6)	Silt (7)	Clay (8)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
Morand, Sy. No. 467—							
0—25	2·5	0·64	6·65	3·91	10·55	29·75	46·00
25—47	2·5	0·32	6·50	4·00	14·18	30·00	42·50
47—82	2·3	0·17	5·35	3·71	18·47	27·50	42·50
82—110	2·5	0·64	6·80	1·85	26·96	19·75	41·50
110—134·5	2·8	0·64	6·95	2·31	19·55	22·75	45·00
Khardi, Sy. No. 388/5—							
0—22·5	4·3	0·96	5·75	8·85	19·64	39·25	21·25
22·5—45	3·7	0·44	5·40	11·79	17·42	41·75	19·50
45·0—77·5	2·0	0·44	4·95	1·07	29·64	40·00	21·00
77·5—105	3·1	0·44	3·60	9·71	18·15	36·00	29·00
Wardi, Sy. Nos. 341, 342, 343—							
0—22·5	1·6	1·26	1·40	31·48	34·51	9·25	20·50
22·5—37·5	1·8	0·82	2·15	33·44	18·29	20·50	23·40

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Layer in cms. (1)	PH (9)	T.S.S. (10)	Ex. bases: Ca m.e. (11)	Mg (12)	Na + K (13)	Available: P_2O_5 mgm (14)	K_2O mgm (15)	Total 'N' (16)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
Kali, Sy. No. 19/3—								
0—22·5	8·3	0·29	35·0	7·0	1·0	3·25	5·90	0·059
22·5—40	8·3	0·28	33·0	5·5	1·0	..	..	..
40·0—75	8·3	0·29	32·0	7·5	1·5	..	..	..
75·0—102·5	8·2	0·37	29·5	5·5	1·0	..	..	..
102·5—135	8·2	0·31	27·5	8·0	1·0	..	..	..
Kanhar, Sy. No. 15—								
0—22·5	8·3	0·22	28·5	3·5	1·0	4·44	4·70	0·042
22·5—45	8·3	0·25	27·0	3·5	0·5	..	..	..
45·0—87·5	8·3	0·24	27·5	3·0	0·5	..	..	..
87·5—140	8·3	0·26	25·5	6·5	2·0	..	..	..

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

Layer in cms.	PH	T.S.S.	Ex. bases			Available		Total 'N'
			Ca m.e.	Mg	Na+K	P_2O_5 mgm	K_2O mgm	
(1)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
		Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
Morand, Sy. No. 467—								
0—25	7·6	0·25	25·5	7·0	0·5	3·51	6·00	0·038
25—47	8·3	0·29	25·5	9·0	0·5	..	..	..
47—82	8·[illegible]	0·25	24·0	10·0	0·5	..	..	..
82—110	8·2	0·26	23·5	7·0	0·5	..	..	..
110—134·5	8·2	0·25	24·5	11·5	1·5	..	..	..
Khardi, Sy. No. 388 5—								
0—22·5	7·5	0·22	12·5	8·0	1·0	1·60	6·80	0·025
22·5—45	8·5	0·23	22·5	7·0	2·0	..	..	..
45·0—77·5	8·8	0·22	19·5	9·5	2·0	..	..	..
77·5—105	8·9	0·25	14·5	11·5	..	..	..	..
Wardi, Sy. Nos. 341, 342, 343—								
0—22·5	7·0	0·10	4·0	7·5	0·5	3·60	3·1	0·038
22·5—37·5	8·8	0·10	6·0	8·0	1·0	..	..	..

Prior to the transfer in October 1907 of four *zamindaris* to the Drug district the total area of the district as ascertained by professional survey was 27839.91 km² (10749 sq. miles). Of this an area of 8256.92 km² (3188 sq. miles) comprised unsurveyed areas of *zamindaris* and waste lands. The remaining area of 19582.99 km² (7561 sq. miles) ascertained by professional survey was less by 569.80 km² (220 sq. miles) than that shown in the village papers *viz.*, 20152.79 km² (7781 sq. miles). Out of the area of 2170.42 km² (838 sq. miles) transferred to Drug, all except 916.86 km² (354 sq. miles) consisted of unsurveyed lands. The district as then constituted thus comprised, according to the professional survey, 25669.49 km² (9911 sq. miles). Of this 7003.36 km² (2704 sq. miles) was an area for which no returns existed. The remaining area according to the professional survey was 18666.13 km² (7207 sq. miles). But actually according to the village papers it was 19235.93 km² (7427 sq. miles). This area of 19235.93 km² (7427 sq. miles) was then composed as follows: 7819.21 km² (3019 sq. miles) or 30.5 per cent of the total area of the district was under Government forest, 1061.90 km² (410 sq. miles) or 4.1 per cent was classified as not available for cultivation, 6702.92 km² (2588 sq. miles) or 26.1 per cent as culturable waste other than fallow, 562.03 km² (217 sq. miles) or 2.2 per cent as current fallow, and 3089.87 km² (1193 sq. miles) or 12 per cent as the net cropped area. The most extensively cropped tahsil then was Warora in which 55 per cent of the total land or 73.4 per cent of the total village area was occupied for cultivation. In Sironcha only 31 per cent of the total village area was occupied, while in the *zamindaris* the percentage was as low as 15, and only about 4 per cent of the total *zamindari* area was occupied.

After the transfer of the *zamindaris* to Drug the total cropped area of the district in 1909 was 308775.418 hectares (763,000 acres). The period of about twenty years ending 1909 showed great fluctuations in the areas under *kharif* and *rabi* crops as the choice of crop was then dictated by the vagaries of Nature. The following statement[1] shows the great fluctuations in the *kharif* and *rabi* areas of the district. The proportion between the two crops was fairly constant afterwards the *kharif* area having regularly been from one-fifth to about one-fourteenth greater than the *rabi* area.

Year	Total area under kharif crops		Total area under rabi crops	
		Hectares		Hectares
1891-92	(306,000)*	123,833·916	(366,000)*	148,115·076
1892-93	(381,000)	154,185·366	(310,000)	125,452·660
1893-94	(296,000)	119,787·056	(378,000)	152,971·308
1894-95	(456,000)	184,536·816	(233,000)	94,291·838
1895-96	(517,000)	209,222·662	(187,000)	75,676·282
1896-1900 (average) ..	(485,000)	196,272·710	(315,000)	127,476·090
1900-1906 (average) ..	(451,000)	182,513·386	(390,000)	157,827·540

[1] Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District, Vol. A, 1909, p. 148.

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Among the important crops, the area under rice and jowar crops fluctuated to a great extent. During the period 1891—1899 rice invariably occupied the largest area. The following statement shows the fluctuations in the areas occupied by these two crops from 1891 to 1907:—

Year	Area under Rice		Area under Jowar	
		Hectares		Hectares
At the time of first settlement.	(235,000)*	95,101·210	(199,000)*	80,532·514
1891—1896 (average).	(206,000)	83,365·316	(137,000)	55,441·982
1896—1899 (average).	(304,000)	123,024·544	(151,000)	61,107·586
1899-1900	(189,000)	76,485·654	(240,000)	97,124·640
1900-1901	(144,000)	58,274·784	(average for 1899—1903) (136,000)	55,037·296
1901—1907 (average).	(220,000)	89,030·920	(average for 1903—1907)	

Of other crops, cotton, during the first decade of this century, occupied an area of about 17806.184 hectares (44,000 acres). Linseed was a popular crop and covered an area from 20234.300 to 32374.880 hectares (50,000 to 80,000 acres). In 1906-07, the record area of 42492.030 hectares (105,000 acres) was under this crop. Wheat occupied 28328.020 hectares (70,000 acres) in 1906-07. The area under *til* had fluctuated very greatly from year to year for instance, in 1894-95 it was only 3642.174 hectares (9,000 acres), while two years later it rose to 25495.218 hectares (63,000 acres), in the years 1899-1900 and 1900-1901 it covered 36421.740 hectares and 35207.682 hectares. (90,000 and 87,000 acres) respectively while from 1903 to 1906 the average area under *til* amounted to little over 4856.232 hectares (12,000 acres) in 1906-07, however, it recovered to nearly 18615.556 hectares (46,000 acres). Gram usually covered from 6070.290 to 8093.720 hectares (15,000 to 20,000 acres). Sugarcane on the other hand fell off greatly since the first settlement, when it covered 3237.488 hectares (8,000 acres). In the quinquennium 1891—1896 it averaged 1355.698 hectares (3,350 acres) while in the following quinquennium the average area dropped to 809.372 hectares (2,000 acres), and from 1901 to 1906 to 404.686 hectares (1,000 acres).

The area under old fallow varied since 1891 between 64749.760 and 99957.442 hectares (160,000 and 247,000 acres) and that under new fallow between 33184.252 hectares (82,000 acres) and 82555.944 hectares (204,000 acres).

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

As compared with the large area under irrigation, double cropping was practised on a very small area. The average double cropped area during the period between 1891—1896 was 12140.580 hectares (30,000 acres). In the *gata* cultivation tract of the north of Brahmapuri and in the Sironcha tahsils double cropping was extensively practised. In the Sironcha tahsil rice was then grown as a second crop.

For the period between 1909 and 1961, it is very difficult to determine whether there was any shift in the pattern of the land utilisation as various changes in administrative boundaries and in the classification of land utilisation took place. However, some features of the land utilisation remained the same. Of these forest is the most important. The forest which then occupied the highest proportion of the total area of the district still holds the same position accounting for 56.48 per cent of the total area of the district. Regarding respective tahsils, Sironcha has the highest percentage of forest area, *viz.*, 84.25, Gadhchiroli 60.91, Brahmapuri 47.82, Chandrapur 41.45, and Warora 29.73 while Rajura tahsil has the lowest of all *viz.*, 5.03. The proportion of area under forests in the district is thus more than three times the average for the State, *viz.*, 17.54 per cent.

Because of this high proportion of area under forests, the proportion of net area sown to the total geographical area in the district (22.35 per cent) is the lowest in the State. It is even less than half of the State average which is 57.69 per cent. (This net cropped area excluding that of Rajura in 1907 was only 12 per cent.) The district proportions of areas under culturable waste and permanent pastures are also higher than those of the State. The proportion of net area sown, however, increased from 18.36 per cent to 23.08 per cent during the period between 1950-51 and 1959-60. This increase could be partly attributed to the corresponding reduction in the area under culturable waste from 5.71 per cent to 3.70 per cent during the same period.

The proportion of the net area sown to the total geographical area varies between 5.66 per cent for Sironcha tahsil and 50.77 per cent for Warora tahsil.

The following table gives the pattern of land utilisation in the district and each of its tahsils for the period between 1956-57 and 1963-64:

TABLE No. 5

TAHSIL-WISE LAND UTILISATION IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Total Geographical area	Forests	Barren and Un-culturable land	Land put to Non-agricultural uses	Culturable waste	Permanent Pastures and other grazing lands
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Warora	1956-57 ..	255,368·602 (631,029)	81,544·634 (201,501)	5,837·595 (14,425)	..	14,523·371 (35,888)	23,139·945 (57,180)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	250,650·772 (619,371)	17,382·073 (42,952)	5,385·966 (13,309)	14,709·527 (36,348)	13,263·584 (32,775)	23,001·947 (56,839)
	1959-60 ..	332,033·532 (820,472)	98,324·129 (242,964)	5,485·519 (13,555)	14,467·120 (35,749)	12,401·602 (30,645)	23,668·061 (58,485)
	1960-61 ..	332,033·532 (820,472)	97,957·484 (242,058)	6,631·994 (16,388)	14,525·394 (35,893)	12,163·647 (30,057)	23,504·567 (58,081)
	1961-62 ..	332,033·532 (820,472)	96,550·795 (238,582)	5,876·850 (14,522)	14,856·023 (36,710)	12,314·100 (30,431)	23,260·542 (57,478)
	1962-63 ..	332,033·532 (820,472)	96,677·867 (238,896)	5,861·472 (14,484)	14,596·215 (36,068)	11,720·921 (28,963)	22,795·558 (56,329)
	1963-64 ..	332,033·532 (820,472)	97,678·655 (241,369)	5,397·702 (13,338)	14,401·965 (35,588)	9,756·979 (24,110)	23,411·490 (57,851)
Chandrapur	1956-57 ..	*330,885·033 (817,634)*	*135,205·593 (334,100)*	*3,789·884 (9,365)*	..	*18,901·264 (46,706)*	*24,945·654 (61,642)*
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	210,337·572 (519,755)	13,383·371 (33,071)	4,038·361 (9,979)	20,342·351 (50,267)	17,938·516 (44,327)	25,944·824 (64,111)
	1959-60 ..	336,737·197 (832,095)	138,445·509 (342,106)	4,224·517 (10,439)	20,316·646 (50,202)	17,510·358 (43,269)	25,285·591 (62,482)
	1960-61 ..	336·737·197 (832,095)	136,787·915 (338,010)	4,041·599 (9,987)	21,316·026 (52,673)	17,486·482 (43,210)	25,003·120 (61,784)
	1961-62 ..	336,737·197 (832,095)	137,906·467 (340,774)	4,233·420 (10,461)	21,409·103 (52,903)	17,020·284 (42,058)	23,380·734 (57,775)
	1962-63 ..	336,737·197 (832,095)	136,072·430 (336,242)	4,382·749 (10,830)	21,185·312 (52,350)	16,618·026 (41,064)	23,220 883 (57,380)
	1963-64 ..	336,737·197 (832,095)	138,015·327 (341,043)	4,324·474 (10,686)	20,579·497 (50,853)	16,572·701 (40,952)	23,266·207 (57,492)
Brahmapuri	1956-57 ..	240,669·597 (594,707)	98,663·256 (243,802)	2,197·850 (5,431)	52·609 (130)	11,652·124 (28,793)	26,998·626 (66,715)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	162,324·006 (401,111)	20,617·942 (50,948)	2,080·086 (5,140)	21,312·383 (52,664)	10,988·034 (27,152)	26,578·158 (65,676)
	1959-60 ..	260,987·262 (644,913)	119,235·874 (294,638)	2,054·591 (5,077)	21,375·919 (52,821)	10,511·314 (25,974)	26,063·397 (64,404)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Total Geographical area	Forests	Barren and Un-culturable land	Land put to Non-agricultural uses	Culturable waste	Permanent Pastures and other grazing lands
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Brahmapuri—*cont.*							
	1960-61 ..	260,987·262 (644,913)	118,128·248 (291,901)	2,182·067 (5,392)	21,171·957 (52,317)	11,571·996 (28,595)	25,527·997 (63,081)
	1961-62 ..	260,987·262 (644,913)	117,320·090 (289,904)	1,858·318 (4,592)	21,377·133 (52,824)	11,581·304 (28,618)	25,793·067 (63,736)
	1962-63 ..	260,987·262 (644,913)	117,423·690 (290,160)	1,662·045 (4,170)	21,659·199 (53,521)	11,391·506 (28,149)	24,862·289 (61,436)
	1963-64 ..	260,987·262 (644,913)	13,029·609 (279,302)	1,456·870 (3,600)	21,670·935 (53,550)	7,086·456 (17,511)	14,635·064 (36,164)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57 ..	653,741·905 (1,615,430)	358,376·567 (885,567)	9,205·797 (22,748)	346·006 (855)	36,764·509 (90,847)	99,487·601 (245,839)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	379,941·070 (938,854)	99,890·669 (246,835)	8,531·185 (21,081)	29,786·104 (73,603)	36,011·793 (88,987)	84,137·861 (207,909)
	1959-60 ..	722,927·023 (1,786,390)	449,815·369 (1,111,517)	8,846·031 (21,859)	29,313·835 (72,436)	34,964·466 (86,399)	74,671·042 (184,516)
	1960-61 ..	722,927·023 (1,786,390)	451,025·784 (1,114,50.)	8,463·603 (20,914)	29,115·134 (71,945)	33,476·031 (82,721)	73,529·018 (181,694)
	1961-62 ..	722,927·023 (1,786,390)	451,822·206 (1,116,476)	83,853·367 (207,206)	30,313·005 (74,905)	32,168·895 (79,491)	72,779·135 (179,841)
	1962-63 ..	722,927·023 (1,786,390)	451,669·640 (1,116,099)	8,542·112 (21,108)	30,172·983 (74,559)	30,903·442 (76,364)	71,994·044 (177,901)
	1963-64 ..	722,927·023 (1,786,390)	438,378·942 (1,083,257)	8,419·087 (20,804)	30,179·863 (74,576)	29,761·418 (73,542)	72,364·736 (178,817)
Sironcha	1956-57 ..	940,631·904 (2,324,350)	824,992·475 (2,038,599)	3,838·042 (9,484)	345·197 (853)	10,082·347 (24,914)	39,076·480 (96,560)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	252,125·448 (623,015)	131,473·578 (324,878)	3,610·608 (8,922)	14,660·155 (36,226)	9,901·048 (24,466)	42,755·480 (105,651)
	1959-60 ..	768,612·026 (1,899,280)	642,845·734 (1,588,505)	3,832·781 (9,471)	14,103·307 (34,850)	10,630·696 (26,269)	44,097·015 (109,966)
	1960-61 ..	768,612·026 (1,899,280)	643,218·045 (1,589,425)	4,099·064 (10,129)	14,192·338 (35,070)	10,107·033 (24,975)	42,976·439 (106,197)
	1961-62 ..	768,612·026 (1,899,280)	643,068·716 (1,589,056)	4,717·829 (11,658)	14,636·683 (36,168)	9,974·700 (24,648)	42,290·092 (104,501)
	1962-63 ..	768,612·026 (1,899·280)	643,560·410 (1,590,271)	4,664·411 (11,526)	14,458·217 (35,727)	10,332·443 (25,532)	40,824·724 (100,880)
	1963-64 ..	768,612·026 (1,899,280)	641,517·150 (1,585,222)	4,374·656 (10,810)	14,381·326 (35,537)	9,915·616 (24,502)	41,100·315 (101,561)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Total Geographical area	Forests	Barren and Un-culturable land	Land put to Non-agricultural uses	Culturable waste	Permanent pastures and other grazing lands
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Rajura	1956-57 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	162,058·532 (400,455)	8,056·489 (19,908)	40,378·355 (99,777)	5,322·835 (13,153)	9,433·231 (23,310)	5,778·107 (14,278)
	1960-61 ..	162,058·532 (400,455)	12,427·907 (30,710)	22,593·619 (55,830)	14,461·049 (35,734)	8,785·328 (21,709)	5,904·369 (14,590)
	1961-62 ..	162,058·532 (400,455)	16,962·414 (41,915)	20,472·255 (50,588)	14,461·049 (35,734)	10,634·743 (26,279)	5,611·376 (13,866)
	1962-63 ..	162,088·883 (400,530)	17,367·100 (42,915)	20,067·569 (49,588)	8,767·927 (21,666)	11,039·429 (27,279)	5,464·880 (13,504)
	1963-64 ..	162,088·883 (400,530)	17,367·100 (42,915)	19,916·217 (49,214)	8,767·927 (21,666)	10,623·007 (26,250)	5,363·303 (13,253)
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	*2,421,297·041* **(5,983,150)**	*1,498,782·524* **(3,703,569)**	*24,869·169* **(61,453)**	*743·813* **(1,838)**	*91,923·615* (227,148)	*213,648·308* (527,936)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	**1,255,378·869 (3,102,106)**	282,747·633 (698,684)	23,646·207 (58,431)	**100,810·520 (249,108)**	88,102·975 (217,707)	202,418·271 (500,186)
	1959-60 ..	**2,583,355·573 (6,383,605)**	**1,456,723·103** (3,599,638)	64,821·794 (160,178)	**104,899·063 (259,211)**	95,451·668 (235,866)	199,563·212 (493,131)
	1960-61 ..	**2,583,355·573 (6,383,605)**	**1,459,545·384** (3,696,612)	48,011·947 (118,640)	**114,781·899 (283,632)**	93,590·517 (231,267)	196,445·511 (485,427)
	1961-62 ..	**2,583,355·573 (6,383,605)**	**1,463,630·689** (3,616,707)	121,012·040 (299,027)	**117,052·997 (289,244)**	93,694·926 (231,525)	193,114·945 (477,197)
	1962-63 ..	2,583,385·924 **(6,383,680)**	**1,462,771·136** (3,614,583)	45,180·359 (111,643)	**110,839·853 (273,891)**	92,005·767 (227,351)	189,162·377 (467,430)
	1963-64 ..	2,583,385·924 **(6,383,680)**	**1,445,986·784** (3,573,108)	43,889·006 (108,452)	**109,981·514 (271,770)**	83,716·179 (206,867)	180,141·116 (445,138)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Total cropped area	Total un-cultivated area
(1)	(2)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
Warora	1956-57 ..	3,161·812 (7,813)	1,842·535 (4,553)	1,271·119 (3,141)	166,304·498 (410,947)	3,806·476 (9,406)	170,110·974 (420,353)	131,321·012 (324,501)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	3,252·057 (8,036)	1,612·674 (3,985)	2,831·588 (6,997)	169,211·357 (418,130)	3,519·554 (8,697)	172,730·911 (426,827)	81,439·415 (201,241)
	1959-60 ..	3,011·268 (7,441)	2,434·186 (6,015)	2,703·707 (6,681)	169,537·939 (418,937)	3,868·393 (9,559)	173,406·332 (428,496)	162,495·593 (401,535)
	1960-61 ..	2,392·908 (5,913)	1,388·073 (3,430)	2,711·801 (6,701)	171,567·034 (423,951)	3,729·586 (9,216)	175,296·620 (433,167)	161,275·869 (398,521)
	1961-62 ..	2,900·384 (7,167)	2,832·397 (6,999)	2,467·775 (6,098)	170,973·765 (422,485)	4,496·871 (11,112)	175,470·635 (433,597)	161,059·767 (397,987)
	1962-63 ..	3,685·071 (9,106)	1,237·530 (3,058)	2,643·409 (6,532)	172,815·491 (427,035)	4,831·951 (11,940)	177,647·441 (438,976)	159,218·041 (393,436)
	1963-64 ..	2,770·076 (6,845)	1,076·060 (2,659)	1,526·071 (3,771)	176,014·533 (434,941)	4,786·221 (11,827)	180,800·755 (446,768)	156,018·998 (385,531)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57 ..	7,611·334 (18,808)	2,370·650 (5,858)	3,944·655 (9,871)	113,592·932 (280,694)	8,363·645 (20,667)	121,956·578 (301,361)	196,819·036 (486,350)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	7,227·287 (17,859)	3,451·162 (8,528)	4,908 841 (12,130)	113,102·857 (279,483)	8,398·044 (20,752)	121,500·901 (300,235)	97,234·714 (240,272)
	1959-60 ..	6,445·029 (15,926)	4,101·493 (10,135)	4,844·496 (11,971)	115,564·157 (285,565)	8,481·004 (20,957)	124,061·349 (306,562)	221,173·039 (546,530)
	1960-61 ..	6,164·177 (15,232)	2,326·944 (5,750)	4,667·244 (11,533)	118,903·222 (293,816)	7,533·230 (18,615)	126,436·452 (312,431)	217,793·507 (538,179)
	1961-62 ..	6,319·576 (15,616)	2,725·965 (6,736)	3,978·063 (9,830)	119,763·584 (295,942)	8,932·634 (22,073)	128,696·218 (318,015)	216,973·613 (536,153)
	1962-63 ..	5,647·798 (13,956)	2,406·263 (5,946)	3,622·749 (8,952)	123,580·987 (305,375)	9,147·927 (22,605)	132,728·914 (327,980)	213,156·210 (526,720)
	1963-64 ..	5,216·807 (12,891)	2,238·723 (5,532)	2,393·718 (5,915)	125,127·741 (306,731)	9,633·145 (23,804)	133,762·887 (330,535)	212,607·456 (525,364)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57 ..	2,019·788 (4,991)	1,016·976 (2,513)	1,660·022 (4,102)	75,530·100 (186,641)	19,280·455 (47,643)	94,811·455 (234,284)	144,261·251 (356,477)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	1,619·958 (4,003)	1,046·113 (2,585)	1,719·915 (4,250)	76,361·415 (188,693)	19,959·518 (49,321)	96,320·934 (238,014)	85,962·591 (212,418)
	1959-60 ..	1,846·987 (4,564)	1,016·976 (2,513)	1,550·757 (3,832)	77,331·448 (191,090)	21,631·681 (53,453)	98,963·128 (244,543)	183,655·814 (453,823)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Total cropped area	Total un-cultivated area
(1)	(2)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
Brahmapuri—*cont.*	1960-61 ..	1,930·352 (4,770)	686·347 (1,696)	1,397·785 (3,454)	78,390·511 (193,707)	21,066·739 (52,057)	99,578·656 (246,064)	182,596·751 (451,206)
	1961-62 ..	1,898·787 (4,692)	1,154·974 (2,854)	1,064·324 (2,630)	78,939·265 (195,063)	22,731·213 (56,170)	101,670·478 (251,233)	182,047·997 (449,850)
	1962-63 ..	1,914·569 (4,731)	918·232 (2,269)	1,171·566 (2,895)	79,984·164 (197,645)	23,567·294 (58,236)	103,551·458 (255,881)	181,003·098 (447,268)
	1963-64 ..	1,842·940 (4,554)	1,005·240 (2,484)	1,459·702 (3,607)	98,800·445 (244,141)	13,041·411 (32,226)	111,841·856 (276,367)	162,186·817 (400,772)
Gadhchiroli.. ..	1956-57 ..	6,932·271	4,131·439	6,805·604	102,145·174	15,331·124	117,476·299	522,049·796
		(17,130)	(10,209)	(16,817)	(252,406)	(37,884)	(290,290)	(1,290,012)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	5,342·664 (13,202)	4,523·580 (11,178)	7,338·981 (18,135)	104,378·232 (257,924)	13,725·330 (33,916)	118,103·562 (291,840)	275,562·838 (680,930)
	1959-60 ..	4,872·419 (12,040)	4,452·355 (11,002)	6,535·679 (16,150)	109,455·827 (270,471)	15,169·655 (37,485)	124,625·482 (307, 956)	613,471·196 (1,515,919)
	1960-61 ..	*4,935·146* (12,195)	*3,788·670* (9,362)	*5,863·900* (14,490)	*109,611·631* (270,856)	*14,440·410* (35,683)	*127,170·147* (314,244)	*610,197·287* (1,507,829)
	1961-62 ..	*4,160·981* (10,282)	*4,954·166* (12,242)	*5,879·683* (14,529)	*112,461·430* (277,898)	*16,726·482* (41,332)	*129,187·912* (319,230)	*685,931·439* (1,694,972)
	1962-63 ..	3,503·367 (8,657)	3,888·628 (9,609)	5,896·680 (14,571)	116,356·128 (287,522)	17,278·878 (42,697)	133,635·006 (330,219)	606,570·895 (1,498,868)
	1963-64 ..	3,496·082 (8,639)	4,005·582 (9,898)	6,954·933 (17,186)	129,366·378 (319,671)	5,694·337 (14,071)	135,060·715 (333,742)	593,560·645 (1,466,719)
Sironcha	1956-57 ..	2,668·904 (6,595)	1,337·487 (3,305)	28,889·724 (71,388)	41,305·086 (102,067)	596·912 (1,475)	41,901·998 (103,542)	911,230·657 (2,251,698)
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	2,322·088 (5,738)	1,870·459 (4,622)	2,524·026 (6,237)	43,008·005 (106,275)	999·170 (2,469)	44,007·174 (108,744)	209,117·444 (516,740)
	1959-60 ..	2,013·717 (4,976)	1,904·857 (4,707)	2,472·631 (6,110)	46,711·286 (115,426)	815·847 (2,016)	47,527·133 (117,442)	721,900·740 (1,783,854)
	1960-61 ..	1,742·982 (4,307)	1,426·923 (3,526)	2,313·590 (5,717)	48,536·015 (119,935)	647·093 (1,599)	49,183·108 (121,534)	720,076·415 (1,779,346)
	1961-62 ..	1,188·158 (2,936)	1,786·284 (4,414)	2,082·514 (5,146)	48,867·048 (120,753)	1,026·284 (2,536)	49,893·332 (123,289)	719,744·977 (1,778,527)
	1962-63 ..	1,220·128 (3,015)	2,323·707 (5,742)	2,289·713 (5,658)	48,938·273 (120,929)	782·663 (1,934)	49,720·936 (122,863)	719,673·753 (1,778,351)
	1963-64 ..	1,304·708 (3,224)	2,356·486 (5,823)	4,445·880 (10,986)	49,215·888 (121,615)	719·532 (1,778)	49,935·419 (123,393)	719,396·138 (1,777,665)

**Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.*

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

*Figures in hectares**

Tahsil	Year	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Total cropped area	Total un-cultivated area
(1)	(2)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
Rajura	1956-57 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	1,755·528 (4,338)	3,223·324 (7,965)	10,373·316 (25,633)	77,737·348 (192,093)	..	77,737·348 (192,093)	84,321·184 (208,362)
	1960-61 ..	1,785·475 (4,412)	8,123·262 (20,073)	5,518·703 (13,637)	82,458·819 (203,760)	.. ..	82,458·819 (203,760)	79,599·713 (196,695)
	1961-62 ..	1,785·475 (4,412)	8,190·440 (20,239)	5,003·942 (12,365)	78,936·837 (195,057)	..	78,936·837 (195,057)	83,121·695 (205,398)
	1962-63 ..	2,086·156 (5,155)	7,810·440 (19,300)	5,408·628 (13,365)	84,076·754 (207,758)	..	84,076·754 (207,758)	78,012·129 (192,772)
	1963-64 ..	2,086·156 (5,155)	7,744·476 (19,137)	5,114·017 (12,637)	85,106·680 (210,303)	..	696,508·312 (1,721,108)	76,982·204 (190,227)
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	*22,394·109 (55,337)*	*10,699·088 (26,438)*	*42,621·125 (105,319)*	*498,878·690 (1,232,755)*	*47,378·613 (117,075)*	*546,257·303 (1,349,830)*	*1,905,681·752 (4,709,038)*
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	19,764·055 (48,838)	12,503·988 (30,898)	19,323·352 (47,749)	506,061·866 (1,250,505)	46,601·616 (115,155)	552,663·483 (1,365,660)	749,317·002 (1,851,601)
	1959-60 ..	19,944·949 (49,285)	17,133·191 (42,337)	28,480·586 (70,377)	596,338·005 (1,473,582)	49,966·580 (123,470)	646,320·773 (1,597,092)	1,987,017·568 (4,910,023)
	1960-61 ..	18,951·040 (46,829)	17,740·220 (43,837)	22,473·023 (55,532)	568,998·633 (1,406,025)	47,417·058 (117,170)	660,123·803 (1,631,200)	1,971,539·542 (4,871,776)
	1961-62 ..	18,253·362 (45,105)	21,644·226 (53,484)	20,476·302 (50,598)	609,941·930 (1,507,193)	53,913·483 (133,223)	663,855·413 (1,640,421)	2,048,879·488 (5,062,887)
	1962-63 ..	18,057·089 (44,620)	18,584·800 (45,924)	21,032·745 (51,973)	625,751·798 (1,546,265)	55,608·712 (137,412)	681,360·510 (1,683,677)	1,957,634·126 (4,837,415)
	1963-64 ..	16,716·769 (41,308)	18,426·567 (45,533)	21,894·322 (54,102)	662,633·665 (1,637,402)	33,874·646 (83,706)	1,307,909·944 (3,231,913)	1,920,752·259 (4,746,278)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. LAND UTILIZATION.

It is also equally difficult to study changes in the crop pattern since 1909. However, in respect of some tahsils and particular crops a remarkable shift in the cropping pattern could be easily observed. In 1909 for instance Warora was the most extensively cropped tahsil while in Sironcha only 31 per cent of the total village area was occupied. The corresponding figures for the same tahsils in 1961 were 69.77 per cent and 96.11 per cent respectively. By 1961, Sironcha tahsil with 96.11 per cent of its total cropped area stood first in the district followed by Brahmapuri with 96.02, Gadhchiroli with 95.98, Chandrapur with 86.16, Warora with 69.77 and Rajura with 64.83 per cent, respectively.

Rice and jowar are still the major crops produced in the district. Each of them occupied more than 30 per cent of the gross cropped area. Wheat and pulses occupied about 5.62 per cent and 14.67 per cent, respectively, while bajri and sugarcane occupied a very negligible area, *viz.*, bajri 0.01 per cent and sugarcane 0.06 per cent of the gross cropped area of the district.

The proportions of areas under important food and non-food crops for the district and each of its talukas are shown in table[1] No. 6 compared with the corresponding figures for Maharashtra. All the figures are averages for three years 1957-58 to 1959-60.

1. *District Census Handbook, Chanda, 1961, P. 32.*

TABLE No. 6

THE PROPORTIONS OF AREAS UNDER FOOD AND NON-FOOD CROPS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Details of cropped area	Percentage of gross cropped area in							
	Maharashtra	Chandrapur District	Brahmapuri Taluka	Warora Taluka	Gadhchiroli Taluka	Chandrapur Taluka	Rajura Taluka	Sironcha Taluka
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Gross cropped area	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00
Total area under food crops	60·88	83·13	96·02	69·77	95·95	86·16	64·83	96·11
Area under cereals	52·97	66·67	69·68	57·52	77·89	71·29	46·03	88·65
Rice	6·67	30·18	49·53	8·57	60·19	23·38	2·37	58·35
Wheat	4·68	5·62	3·41	13·99	1·73	2·54	3·72	0·18
Jowar	30·95	30·02	16·64	34·96	13·21	45·14	39 73	26·56
Bajri	9·42	0·01	0·07	..	..	..	..	0·03
Other cereals	1·25	0·84	0·03	..	2·76	0·23	0·21	3·53
Area under pulses	10·69	14·67	24·64	9·59	16·73	13·42	16·96	6·76
Sugarcane	0·63	0·06	0·27	0·01	0·07	0·02	0·02	..

TABLE No. 6—*contd.*

Details of cropped area	Percentage of gross cropped area in							
	Maharashtra	Chandrapur District	Brahmapuri Taluka	Warora Taluka	Gadhchiroli Taluka	Chandrapur Taluka	Rajura Taluka	Sironcha Taluka
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Other food crops	5·59	1·73	1·43	2·65	1·26	1·43	1·82	0·70
Area under non-food crops	30·12	16·87	3·98	30·23	4·05	13·84	35·17	3·89
Area under oil-seeds	8·18	12·35	3·86	22·38	3·60	13·15	18·34	2·77
Groundnut	6·11	0·03	0·01	0·02	..	0·08	0·04	..
Other oil-seeds	2·07	12·32	3·85	22·36	3·60	13·07	18·30	2·77
Cotton	13·62	4·19	0·02	7·68	..	0·56	16·20	..
Tobacco	0·12	0·08	..	..	..	..	0·02	1·06
Other non-food crops including fodder crops.	8·20	0·25	0·10	0·17	0·45	0·13	0·61	0·06

As per 1961 census, 61.19 per cent of the total number of households cultivate land and the remaining 38.81 per cent do not cultivate any land in the district. Of the cultivating households 87.03 per cent households cultivate lands owned by them, 4.36 per cent cultivate tenanted lands and the remaining 8.61 per cent cultivate lands partly owned and partly taken on lease.

A tahsilwise classification of holdings in Government rayatwari area in the district is given in the following table:—

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HOLDINGS.

TABLE No. 7

STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1963.

(1)	Chandrapur		Warora		Brahmapuri		Gadhchiroli		Sironcha		Rajura	
	Land holders (2) Total	Area (3)	Land holders (4) Total	Area (5)	Land holders (6) Total	Area (7)	Land holders (8) Total	Area (9)	Land holders (10) Total	Area (11)	Land holders (12) Total	Area (13)
Up to 5 acres		15,929		21,008		41,419		27,969		16,608		1,576
5 to 10 acres		14,435		12,791		10,991		10,879		4,944		3,099
10 to 20 acres	50,045	6,957	50,261	10,012	56,334	1,328	50,179	5,816	26,391	2,758	12,284	5,488
20 to 50 acres		3,303		4,702		477		2,059		1,441		3,041
50 acres and above		17,123		75,380		11,489		19,432		6,580		8,445

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HOLDINGS.

Ceiling on Holdings of Agricultural Land.

The Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, was applied to the district from January 26, 1962. Accordingly four local areas, *viz.*, Warora, Chandrapur, Gadhchiroli and Rajura have been notified and ceiling areas for dry crop land in every such area have been fixed at 43.706 hectares (108 acres), 46.134 hectares (114 acres), 50.990 hectares (126 acres) and 50.990 hectares (126 acres), respectively. In the case of irrigated lands, the ceiling area is the same in all the four local areas, *viz.*, 7.284 hectares (18 acres) in the case of perennially irrigated areas, 10.926 hectares (27 acres) in areas irrigated in two seasons and 19.426 hectares (48 acres) in areas which get irrigation water for one season only. The holders of land in excess of the ceiling areas are not allowed either to transfer or partition any land untill the excess of it is determined under the Act. The excess lands are ultimately vested in the State Government which in return as stated in the Act makes provision for payment of compensation to the holders. Such lands are then distributed to landless or other persons in the prescribed order of priority.

Consolidation of Holdings.

Of the various measures adopted towards land reform after Independence the introduction of the Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947 assumes great importance. The legislation was aimed against the division and sub-division of the agricultural land into small fragments which were scattered all over and also prohibited cultivators from carrying out permanent improvements on such land. These distinctive features of the agricultural economy very often caused unnecessary disputes over boundaries and involved litigation. They also made it difficult for the cultivator to protect the crop. It was, therefore, necessary to bring the scattered holdings together into compact blocks with a view to improving agriculture and establishing, as far as possible, economic units of cultivation. To ensure the overall success of such a measure it was also essential to take simultaneous steps to prevent further sub-division as well as fragmentation of the existing plots of land. The scheme of consolidation, therefore, envisages consolidation of existing fragments into standard areas and the prevention of fragmentation of land.

The standard areas specified as minimum necessary for profitable cultivation under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947 are as follows:—

(i) Dry crop lands.—.809 hectares (2.0 acres),

(*ii*) Rice lands.— .405 hectares (1.0 acre) and

(*iii*) Bagait lands.— .202 hectares (0.5 acre).

All plots of land below the standard area are treated as fragments and their transfer, except to holders of contiguous plots, is prohibited.

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Consolidation of Holdings.

The abovementioned Act was made applicable to the Vidarbha region from April 1st, 1959. Accordingly, the office of the Assistant Consolidation Officer was established at Chandrapur on 4th April 1960. To start with, the officer was instructed to draft schemes of consolidation of holdings in Chandrapur tahsil only. Subsequently in 1963 three more Assistant Consolidation Officers were appointed. They started the work of consolidation in Warora, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils. Since the establishment of the offices of the Assistant Consolidation Officers in the district, considerable progress was achieved in consolidation work. This is shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 8

STATEMENT SHOWING THE PROGRESS OF CONSOLIDATION WORK IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1967.

Tahsil	No. of villages completed	Area covered (in hectares)	No. of khatedars	No. of holdings before consolidation scheme	No. of blocks after consolidation of holdings
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Chandrapur ..	52	17,044·565 (42,118)*	4,505	14,116	10,738
Warora	42	18,893·170 (46,686)	4,080	9,530	7,603
Brahmapuri ..	82	29,351·875 (72,530)	10,842	29,585	20,557
Gadhchiroli ..	14	5,432·505 (13,424)	1,514	5,312	3,117
Total	190	70,722·116 (1,74,758)	20,941	58,543	42,015

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

All efforts today are directed towards reviving the agricultural industry so as to raise it above the ambit of subsistence economy and at the same time enabling it to meet the needs of the growing population. In this connection it could be pointed out that farming on co-operative basis has become an important medium of the present economic upheaval in rural areas of the country. The co-operative farming helps to mitigate the evils

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

resulting from traditional impediments such as inequitable distribution of land, uneconomic size of holding, fragmentation and sub-division of land and the age old methods of cultivation. Above all the movement of co-operative farming imbibes in the minds of the farmers a spirit of sacrifice and a sense of communal living. One of the advantages of the co-operative farming is that it leads to an increase in the production by reducing expenditure. It also derives the benefits of centralised management with decentralised control and use of costly agricultural machinery which is generally beyond the capacity of small farmer producers. In addition it widens the scope of employment for the agricultural labourers through subsidiary business on the farm. There are four types of co-operative farming societies *viz.*, better farming, tenant farming, joint farming and collective farming. Co-operative farming in the district has been organised on the basis of principles underlying the joint farming and collective farming societies. Out of the former there are three societies and of the latter 31 thus giving a total of 34 societies for the whole district.

Co-operative Joint Farming.

Under the co-operative joint farming society land, labour, machinery and other farm equipment required for cultivation are pooled together. The land-holders are either owners or protected tenants who pool the small plots of land as one unit for purposes of cultivation. They however retain the right of ownership of land so pooled. The cultivation is undertaken by the society.

The members working on the farm are paid the current rates of wages. The membership is voluntary and a member enjoys the option to withdraw. The returns from land so pooled are distributed after meeting the expenses of cultivation and the allocation to the reserve fund. The produce is received and disbursed collectively. The co-operative joint farming gives better results due to the economic use of land and the employment of better technique.

Co-operative collective farming.

Under collective farming the right of cultivation and the right of ownership are pooled. The society procures land either on lease basis or through purchase. Sometimes it is also acquired free. Individual ownership of land is not retained after the formation of the society. The members receive wages for cultivating the land. Profits are distributed in proportion to the wages earned after making provision for the reserves. A member can resign and receive refund of capital subscribed by him after giving due notice.

Constitution of joint farming society.

For starting a joint farming or a collective farming society atleast ten members and a minimum share capital of Rs. 500 are required. The members are usually land-owners and permanent and protected tenants who pool their lands for joint cultivation and such other allied purposes. The members then enter into an

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Constitution of joint farming society.

agreement with the society in the prescribed form. Any new entrant is required to apply for membership of the society by paying the amount of a share. A member can be expelled if he does not observe the conditions of the membership. A society is required to call the annual general meeting which decides about the election of the managing committee, appointment of auditors etc. A special general meeting of the society could also be called as and when required after giving due notice. Every member has one vote. The society is affiliated to the financing agency, block supervising union and purchase and sale society operating in the area.

The managing committee consists of seven members. The committee has full authority to carry on the business of the society. It usually meets at least once a month. The chairman enjoys a casting vote and is selected from amongst the seven members.

In addition every such society has a board of supervision consisting of five members of whom two are from the Agriculture and Co-operative Departments. The board is elected by the members of the society at the time of the annual general meeting. It calls for audit verification report and submits the same before the annual general meeting. It also recommends the programme of agricultural production, schedules of work etc. It also safeguards the movable and immovable property of the society.

There is also a manager appointed and controlled by the managing committee.

The valuation of the land so pooled is made according to the rules framed by the managing committee with the approval of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Maharashtra State. This valuation serves as the basis to determine the size of income from the property to be paid to the members. The society arranges for the supply of all the agricultural requisites. The members are required to work according to the directions of the managing committee in respect of all matters connected with production, protection and marketing of agricultural produce. They are liable for penalty up to Rs. 50 individually for every breach of the byelaw.

Constitution of collective farming society.

This type of society is ordinarily formed by landless agriculturists with a view to enabling them to hold land either on lease-hold or free-hold basis. The society owns all the agricultural implements required for productive purposes. The profits are worked out at the end of each year after deducting wages, costs of management and allotment for reserve fund. The profits are then divided in proportion to wages earned by each member.

The proprietary rights of the landlord or the owner or the tenancy rights of a protected or permanent tenant in his land are not extinguished in any of the societies mentioned above. Such rights are however restricted in so far as he has agreed to transfer certain authority to the society and are regulated for the common benefit of all according to the byelaws of the society.

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Constitution of collective farming society.

The following statement gives information about the organisation of the co-operative farming societies in the district in 1963-64:—

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

STATEMENT

Type of society	No. of societies	Total membership	Paid up capital in Rs.	Reserve and other funds in Rs.	Total liabilities in Rs.	Total assets in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Joint farming	3	126	12,980	5,768	1,46,988	1,31,133
Collective farming	31	635	64,943	58,915	8,40,131	6,52,216

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State Financial Assistance.

The financial assistance given to the farming societies by the State in 1963-64 was as follows:—

(1) Rs. 20,000 to five collective farming societies for development of land.

(2) A management subsidy of Rs. 5,800 to 13 collective farming societies.

(3) A loan of Rs. 11,250 and a subsidy of Rs. 3,750 to three collective farming societies for construction of godowns.

The functioning of all the three joint farming societies in the district is on a sound basis. Of the collective farming societies only 22 societies are working, the rest being defunct. The movement towards co-operative farming in the district however is still in a primary stage and requires momentum.

CEREALS.

Rice.

Amongst the food and non-food crops grown in the district, rice occupies the highest portion of the gross cropped area. As per 1961 census, the rice crop occupied 30.18 per cent of the gross cropped area of the district as against 6.67 for the State. In the district, Gadhchiroli, Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils are predominantly rice-growing areas. In 1961-62 they had 76,933.237 hectares (1,90,106 acres), 50,705.132 hectares (1,25,295 acres) and 31,448.149 hectares (77,710 acres) respectively under rice crop. Of these tahsils Gadhchiroli during the period between 1956-57 and 1961-62, occupied the highest portion of the gross cropped area under rice. Sironcha tahsil occupies the fourth place in regard to the area under rice cultivation. One more feature in respect of rice cultivation is that rice occupies in normal years a far larger area than any other crop although in some seasons when the rainfall has been short or uncertain, it has been outstripped by the jowar crop.

Two prominent varieties of the rice crop were commonly grown in the district before 1909 *viz.*, the light (*halka*) and the heavy (*bhari*). The light being an early variety matures quickly with a little supply of water. Heavy rice on the other hand, while it needs more water and takes longer to mature, ripens when the weather is settled and also gives a larger outturn than the light rice variety.

About the methods of rice cultivation the old gazetteer of the district has the following to say—"In the *khalsa* portion of the district there are three distinct methods of rice cultivation, *viz.*, *rohna*, by transplantation, *autia*, by sowing broadcast, and *mulka* or *kaorak*, by previous germination. In all three systems alike, embanked land only is employed[1]".

The method by transplantation was usually employed where irrigation was available. A small plot generally about one-twentieth of an acre was selected for raising seedlings of paddy crop. After sufficient manuring it was sown broadcast in the

1. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, Vol. A., 1909, P. 164.

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second week of June and scarified by means of the *wakhar*. Transplantation in a *normal* year was usually done shortly after the middle of July and lasted till *Pola*. The embanked fields or *dholis* were worked up in to a thick pasty mud by repeated ploughings. This done, the seedlings of about one foot in height were transplanted in the *dholis*. One hand-weeding and light showers after transplantation helped in giving good results.

Another method *viz.*, broadcasting was followed in two ways. In the first, the seed was sown before the rains, while in the second the preliminary showers were awaited. The first was known as dry method. In either case, the seed was broadcast by hand and covered by drawing a harrow over it. This practice was largely followed in the zamindaris.

Under the method of previous germination the land was usually prepared by three or four ploughings with the *nagar* as for transplantation, but the sowing and subsequent operations followed the broadcast method. The special feature of this system was that the seeds were made to germinate previous to sowing by soaking them in water for twelve hours and then letting them stand for another twenty-four hours.

Of the method of cultivation of the crop now followed in the district, transplanting is largely accepted. In the month of June seed-beds are prepared and seeds are broadcast. The seedlings due to the moisture they get from the subsequent monsoon showers vigorously come up and they are transplanted in the puddled land when they are about a foot in height towards the end of July. Sometimes this transplanting goes on till the first week of August. During August and September hand-weedings are carried out. The early varieties are harvested towards the end of September. This harvesting and threshing is continued till October end. The late varieties are harvested and threshed during November, December and January.

Jowar.

Next to rice, jowar has been the most widely sown open-field crop in the district. Till 1909 there were two general classes, the *kharif* jowar and the *rabi* jowar recognised in the district. The *kharif* jowar was the more widely sown and was found in numerous varieties, differing from each other in colour, shape, hardness of grain and outturn. Of these *ringni* was the only variety of the spring crop. The *kharif* jowar was usually sown in July and in any case not later than the middle of August. About four *pailis* of seed per acre was sown and in sowing, either the *sarta* or *tifan* was employed. Generally one weeding was given. It was cut towards the end of December or early in January. The standard outturn was then fixed at 600 lbs. per acre which was, as a result of experiments carried on, raised to 650 lbs. The crop did almost well on good soils such as *kanhar* or *bersi* and also on inferior soils such as *khardi* and *wardi*.

Ringni jowar was commonly grown as a spring crop in rice tracts. Its cultivation differed little from that of the *kharif*

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variety except in the matter of times and seasons. It was generally sown in October and cut in January and February. It then gave an average yield of some 500 lbs. per acre. The grain was rather hard and often coarse. This variety used to sustain drought. Both *kharif* and *rabi* varieties of jowar were liable to smut, which turns the grains to a fine black powder.

The Sironcha Jowar distinguished itself in various respects from the varieties found in rest of the district. Several features, however, distinguished the cultivation of Sironcha tahsil sharply from the other types prevailing in the district. In the case of jowar for instance, this tahsil had its own variety which took its name from the tahsil. The Sironcha jowar appeared in nine varieties, the *bhuttas* varying considerably in colour and shape, some being red and other black, but all alike were prolific in the extreme. The crop was usually sown in September after the floods had subsided, and cut in February or March. Sometimes *mug* or cotton was mixed with it. The outturn then ranged from 2,000 lbs. per acre on the best soils to 700 lbs. on the worst. Mr. Hemingway then estimated that a standard of 1,500 lbs. would not be outside the mark.

Even at present rice and jowar still dominate the cropping pattern of the district. Jowar occupied 30.02 per cent (1961 Census) of the gross cropped area of the district as against 30.95 per cent for the State. Variations were, however, found in the cultivated area of jowar from tahsil to tahsil in the district. Thus in Chandrapur, Rajura and Warora tahsils jowar occupied 45.14, 39.73 and 34.96 per cent of the gross cropped area respectively. The other three tahsils, *viz.*, Sironcha, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli had 26.56, 16.64 and 13.21 per cent of the gross cropped area, under jowar.

For sowing *kharif* jowar, the land is usually kept ready by the end of June at the latest. Two to three harrowings are given before the monsoon showers. Sowing is done in June-July on a variety of soils ranging from light type to clayey loam and the heavy black soil. One hand weeding and about two bullock interculturings are given when the crop is about ten inches high. The *kharif* jowar is ready for harvest by about November-December. It is cut by sickle close to the ground and then exposed to the sun for about two to three days when the earheads are cut off and carried to the threshing floor. The grains are separated by threshing and winnowing.

For growing *rabi* crop in the district, the land is kept ready by ploughing and giving two or three harrowings. The *rabi* seed is drilled during September-October. Hand weeding and interculturings are given when the crop is about 6 to 10 inches high. In harvesting, the plants are cut close to the ground. The earheads are then cut and threshed in the threshing yard,

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CEREALS.

Jowar.

The statement below gives the production and outturn of *kharij* and *rabi* jowar in metric tonnes in the district during the years 1960-61, 1961-62, 1962-63:—

	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63	
(1)	Production (2)	Yield rate (3)	Production (4)	Yield rate (5)	Production (6)	Yield rate (7)
Jowar—						
Kharif ..	22,961·600 (22,600)*	680	7,924·800 (7,800)	270	18,796·000 (18,500)	400
Rabi ..	68,783·200 (67,700)	371	65,735·200 (64,700)	338	81,778·000 (80,500)	463

It will thus be seen that the production of *kharif* jowar decreased from 22,961.600 metric tonnes (22,600 tons) in 1960-61 to 18,796.000 metric tonnes (18.500 tons) in 1962-63. The yield rate per acre also decreased to 400 lbs. as against 680 lbs. in 1960-61. The production of *rabi* jowar on the other hand has increased from 68,783.200 metric tonnes (67,700 tons) in 1960-61 to 81,788.000 metric tonnes (60,500 tons) in 1962-63 and the yield rate increased from 371 lbs. in 1960-61 to 463 in 1962-63.

Wheat.

The old gazetteer of the district mentions about the cultivation of wheat crop in Chanda district in 1909. Wheat was then grown mostly in Warora and Brahmapuri tahsils. In Warora, the tenants used to grow wheat on that portion of a field which lay about the site of the previous year's *mandwa*, and so secured the fertilising effect of the manure of the cattle which were picketed there during the open seasons. In Brahmapuri tahsil, the crop was produced in embanked land. The seed was generally sown late in October or early in November, and the crop was cut in February or March. The standard outturn then recorded was 580 lbs.

Now wheat is grown almost all over the district. Of the six tahsils, Warora occupies the highest acreage under the crop, and next in order come the tahsils of Brahmapuri, Chandrapur, Rajura, Gadhchiroli and Sironcha. The average acreage under wheat in the district for three years from 1957-58 to 1959-60 was 5.62 per cent of the gross cropped area as against 4.68 for the State. The methods of cultivation of the crop adopted now in the district include such operations as harrowing, ploughing, sowing, harvesting and threshing. The seed is sown in October after land is brought to fine tilth by harrowing and ploughing. The sowing operation is sometimes carried on till the middle of November. The crop gets ready for harvesting by the end of February. The threshing and winnowing operations are done in April.

*Figures in brackets are in tons. Yield rate is in lbs.

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CEREALS.

Maize.

Maize is another cereal crop grown in the district. Its cultivation is, however, concentrated in Sironcha tahsil. It is also produced in Gadhchiroli and Chandrapur tahsils. The remaining tahsils account for a very negligible area under this crop. In Sironcha, Gadhchiroli and Chandrapur tahsils the crop was grown over an area of 1,362.056 hectares (3,341 acres), 341.960 hectares (845 acres) and 276.400 hectares (683 acres), respectively in 1961-62. The crop when sown in well drained easy working, deep alluvial loams and red loams which are deep and free from coarse materials gives best results. It is generally grown in *kharif* season. The land is well ploughed and harrowed prior to the monsoon and farmyard manure is added to soil. The seed is sown after the first showers of the monsoon. The crop when sown alone grows quickly and gets ready for harvesting after about four months. The cobs are cut off the standing stalks. The heads are eaten parched or boiled while green. The ripe grain is parched and made into *lahis* and sometimes after grinding is used as flour.

Sometimes the crop is grown as a hot weather crop but then it is mainly produced for its green heads. Thus the crop sown in February is ready for harvest in May.

Kodra.

The concentration of the cultivation of kodra crop is one of the several features which distinguish the cultivation of Gadhchiroli tahsil sharply from the other types prevailing in the district. Between 1956-57 and 1961-62, except for few acres in Sironcha tahsil, the crop was produced only in Gadhchiroli tahsil.

The kodra crop can be grown even in the poorest soils and hence it is extensively cultivated on *murmadi* land in the tahsil. It is a rainfed crop. The crop is sown in July and harvested in November when it is cut close to the ground, tied into bundles and dried for about a week. The bundles are then stacked near the threshing yard where after some time they are threshed. The newly harvested grain is said to be powerfully narcotic and is consumed mostly by the hill tribes.

The table Nos. 9 and 10 give tahsil-wise area under cereals and the outturn in metric tonnes.

TABLE

TAHSILWISE AREA UNDER CEREALS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)		Wheat (4)	
Warora ..	1956-57 ..	14,019·537	(34,643)	25,654·664	(63,394)
	1957-58 ..	14,346·928	(35,452)	23,741·713	(58,667)
	1958-59 ..	14,615·639	(36,116)	22,441·457	(55,454)
	1959-60 ..	15,278·110	(37,753)	25,863·887	(63,911)
	1960-61 ..	16,091·125	(39,762)	24,996·645	(61,768)
	1961-62 ..	16,558·537	(40,917)	26,030·617	(64,323)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57 ..	26,727·891	(66,046)	3,436·998	(8,493)
	1957-58 ..	27,088·871	(66,938)	2,907·264	(7,184)
	1958-59 ..	27,889·340	(68,916)	2,980·512	(7,365)
	1959-60 ..	30,305·720	(74,887)	3,375·081	(8,340)
	1960-61 ..	31,058·436	(76,747)	3,440·640	(8,502)
	1961-62 ..	31,448·149	(77,710)	3,624·368	(8,956)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57 ..	45,476·184	(112,374)	5,244·730	(12,960)
	1957-58 ..	46,487·899	(114,874)	2,970·800	(7,341)
	1958-59 ..	47,554·247	(117,509)	3,123·366	(7,718)
	1959-60 ..	48,594·290	(120,079)	3,752·653	(9,273)
	1960-61 ..	49,561·085	(122,468)	4,127·392	(10,199)
	1961-62 ..	50,705·132	(125,295)	4,432·525	(10,953)
Gadhchiroli ..	1956-57 ..	68,231·678	(168,604)	2,794·761	(6,906)
	1957-58 ..	69,267·674	(171,164)	1,857·104	(4,589)
	1958-59 ..	70,623·373	(174,514)	1,999·553	(4,941)
	1959-60 ..	74,722·842	(184,644)	2,346·369	(5,798)
	1960-61 ..	77,126·677	(190,584)	2,641·385	(6,527)
	1961-62 ..	76,933·237	(190,106)	2,849·394	(7,041)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

No. 9

Barley (5)		Jowar (6)		Maize (7)		Kodo or Kodra (8)	
..		54,728·520	(135,237)	5·261	(13)	..	
..		56,131·972	(138,705)	4·047	(10)	..	
..		60,018·981	(148,310)	4·047	(10)	..	
..		64,007·161	(158,165)	3·237	(8)	..	
..		61,751·037	(152,590)	1·619	(4)	..	
..		61,723·518	(152,522)	1·214	(3)	..	
4·451	(11)	52,419·382	(129,531)	322·939	(798)	..	
4·451	(11)	54,390·203	(134,401)	298·658	(738)	..	
5·261	(13)	51,924·856	(128,309)	309·989	(766)	..	
4·856	(12)	58,286·520	(144,029)	305·538	(755)	..	
4·451	(11)	56,967·648	(140,770)	287·731	(711)	..	
1·619	(4)	61,748·204	(152,583)	276·400	(683)	..	
7·689	(19)	14,682·008	(36,280)	9·712	(24)	3·237	(8)
4·856	(12)	15,212·956	(37,592)	61·512	(152)	..	
6·070	(15)	16,446·844	(40,641)	1·619	(4)	..	
5·666	(14)	16,248·952	(40,152)	2·023	(5)	1·619	(4)
5·261	(13)	16,765·736	(41,429)	1·214	(3)	..	
5·666	(14)	16,862·861	(41,669)	·809	(2)	..	
55·442	(137)	15,832·126	(39,122)	397·806	(983)	1,412·354	(3,490)
60·703	(150)	16,293·468	(40,262)	398·615	(985)	1,327·370	(3,280)
46·134	(114)	15,778·302	(38,989)	372·311	(920)	1,109·244	(2,741)
71·225	(176)	15,018·302	(37,111)	365·431	(903)	1,103·983	(2,728)
72·439	(179)	16,269·186	(40,202)	353·291	(873)	1,070·799	(2,646)
69·201	(171)	17,353·745	(42,882)	341·959	(845)	1,152·141	(2,847)

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TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

*Area in hectares.**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)		Wheat (4)		Barley (5)		Jowar (6)		Maize (7)		Kodo or Kodra (8)	
Sironcha ..	1956-57 ..	23,603·311	(58,325)	89·840	(222)	·405	(1)	9,645·691	(23,835)	1,446·752	(3,575)	42·897	(106)
	1957-58 ..	24,663·588	(60,945)	87·007	(215)	·809	(2)	11,307·736	(27,942)	1,441·491	(3,562)	14·569	(36)
	1958-59 ..	24,870·787	(61,457)	78·509	(194)	5·261	(13)	11,934·595	(29,491)	1,431·374	(3,537)	6·880	(17)
	1959-60 ..	28,112·727	(69,468)	68·797	(170)	·809	(2)	12,117·108	(29,942)	1,427·327	(3,527)	32·375	(80)
	1960-61 ..	29,395·177	(72,637)	62·321	(154)	..		11,718·897	(28,958)	1,398·999	(3,457)	3·642	(9)
	1961-62 ..	29,660·651	(73,293)	87·817	(217)	..		12,561·453	(31,040)	1,352·056	(3,341)	14·973	(37)
Rajura ..	1959-60 ..	2,374·293	(5,867)	2,967·562	(7,333)	..		32,376·903	(80,005)	89·031	(220)	..	
	1960-61 ..	2,162·642	(5,344)	2,919·809	(7,215)	..		32,179·821	(79,518)	198·296	(490)	..	
	1961-62 ..	2,598·893	(6,422)	3,494·464	(8,635)	..		29,226·018	(72,219)	219·744	(543)	..	
District Total ..	1956-57 ..	178,058·602	(439,992)	37,220·995	(91,975)	67·987	(168)	147,307·727	(364,005)	2,182·471	(5,393)	1,458·488	(3,604)
	1957-58 ..	183,883·248	(454,385)	31,634·709	(78,171)	70·820	(175)	153,336·335	(378,902)	2,204·325	(5,447)	1,341·939	(3,316)
	1958-59 ..	185,553·387	(458,512)	30,623·399	(75,672)	62·726	(155)	156,103·578	(385,740)	2,119·340	(5,237)	1,116·124	(2,758)
	1959-60 ..	199,387·983	(492,698)	38,374·350	(94,825)	82·556	(204)	198,054·947	(489,404)	2,192·589	(5,418)	1,137·977	(2,812)
	1960-61 ..	205,395·142	(507,542)	38,188·194	(94,365)	82·151	(203)	195,652·326	(483,467)	2,241·151	(5,538)	1,074·441	(2,655)
	1961-62 ..	207,904·600	(513,743)	40,519·186	(100,125)	76·486	(189)	199,475·800	(492,915)	2,192·184	(5,417)	1,167·114	(2,884)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 10

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF CEREALS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

*Figures in metric tonnes**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)		Wheat (4)		Jowar (5)		Maize (6)	
Warora	1956-57	12,845·288	(12,643)	8,737·600	(8,600)	25,687·528	(25,283)	3·048	(3)
	1957-58	10,849·864	(10,679)	8,871·712	(8,732)	34,089·848	(33,553)	2·032	(2)
	1958-59	13,576·808	(13,363)	10,492·232	(10,327)	36,459·160	(35,885)	2·032	(2)
	1959-60	13,976·096	(13,756)	13,311·632	(13,102)	38,520·624	(37,914)	2·032	(2)
	1960-61	16,908·272	(16,642)	12,084·304	(11,894)	26,579·576	(26,161)	1·016	(1)
	1961-62	15,984·728	(15,733)	12,659·360	(12,460)	34,239·200	(33,700)	..	
	1962-63	15,963·392	(15,712)	12,429·744	(12,234)	39,852·600	(39,225)	..	
	1963-64	17,361·408	(17,088)	11,845·544	(11,659)	32,660·336	(32,146)	2·032	(2)
Chandrapur	1956-57	22,763·480	(22,405)	1,159·256	(1,141)	28,733·496	(28,281)	136·144	(134)
	1957-58	24,326·088	(23,943)	1,281·176	(1,261)	34,061·400	(33,525)	139·192	(137)
	1958-59	28,641·040	(28,190)	1,276·096	(1,256)	28,341·320	(27,895)	145·288	(143)
	1959-60	28,434·792	(27,987)	1,752·600	(1,725)	35,427·920	(34,870)	143·256	(141)
	1960-61	27,270·456	(26,841)	1,524·000	(1,500)	37,870·384	(37,274)	113·792	(112)
	1961-62	29,874·464	(29,404)	1,928·368	(1,898)	33,981·136	(33,446)	131·064	(129)
	1962-63	32,925·512	(32,407)	2,025·904	(1,994)	39,852·600	(39,225)	135·128	(133)
	1963-64	41,994·328	(41,333)	219·456	(216)	31,950·152	(31,447)	129·032	(127)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	43,222·672	(42,542)	1,769·872	(1,742)	7,356·856	(7,241)	4·064	(4)
	1957-58	37,643·816	(37,051)	1,359·408	(1,338)	9,328·912	(9,182)	28·448	(28)
	1958-59	44,721·272	(44,017)	1,480·312	(1,457)	9,990·328	(9,833)	1·016	(1)
	1959-60	41,131·744	(40,484)	1,991·360	(1,960)	9,950·704	(9,794)	1·016	(1)
	1960-61	41,374·568	(40,723)	1,997·456	(1,966)	10,184·384	(10,024)	1·016	(1)
	1961-62	39,068·248	(38,453)	2,378·456	(2,341)	10,389·616	(10,226)	1·016	(1)
	1962-63	52,775·104	(51,944)	2,493·267	(2,454)	11,225·784	(11,049)	1·016	(1)
	1963-64	63,588·392	(62,587)	1,805·432	(1,777)	8,185·912	(8,057)	1·016	(1)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	42,933·112	(42,257)	942·848	(928)	7,811·008	(7,688)	20·320	(20)
	1957-58	44,989·496	(44,281)	873·760	(860)	9,898·888	(9,743)	185·928	(183)
	1958-59	51,916·584	(51,099)	940·816	(926)	9,584·944	(9,434)	208·280	(205)
	1959-60	52,588·160	(51,760)	1,221·232	(1,202)	9,217·152	(9,072)	187·960	(185)
	1960-61	51,352·704	(50,544)	1,335·024	(1,314)	8,957·056	(8,816)	193·040	(190)
	1961-62	52,538·376	(51,711)	1,397·000	(1,375)	9,640·824	(9,489)	178·816	(176)
	1962-63	58,401·712	(57,482)	1,305·560	(1,285)	10,660·016	(10,501)	162·560	(160)
	1963-64	85,572·600	(84,225)	1,235·456	(1,216)	10,621·264	(10,454)	172·720	(170)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

*Figures in metric tonnes**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)		Wheat (4)		Jowar (5)		Maize (6)	
Sironcha	1956-57	14,783·816	(14,551)	30·480	(30)	4,748·784	(4,674)	608·584	(599)
	1957-58	7,431·024	(7,314)	23·368	(23)	6,870·192	(6,762)	671·576	(661)
	1958-59	13,912·088	(13,693)	29·464	(29)	7,250·176	(7,136)	668·528	(658)
	1959-60	18,006·568	(17,723)	14·224	(14)	7,387·336	(7,271)	703·072	(592)
	1960-61	20,396·200	(20,075)	30·480	(30)	5,706·872	(5,617)	646·176	(636)
	1961-62	15,177·008	(14,938)	40·640	(40)	12,219·432	(12,027)	642·112	(632)
	1962-63	18,817·336	(18,521)	62·992	(62)	7,587·488	(7,468)	651·256	(641)
	1963-64	26,913·840	(26,490)	39·624	(39)	6,519·672	(6,417)	667·512	(657)
Rajura	1956-57	..		..		..		..	
	1957-58	..		..		..		..	
	1958-59	..		..		..		..	
	1959-60	*1,422·400*	*(1,400)*	*1,529·080*	*(1,505)*	*19,741·896*	*(19,431)*	*45·720*	*(45)*
	1960-61	*1,080·008*	*(1,063)*	*1,407·160*	*(1,385)*	*21,404·672*	*(21,067)*	*92·456*	*(91)*
	1961-62	*1,381·760*	*(1,360)*	*1,830·832*	*(1,802)*	*14,478·000*	*(14,250)*	*104·648*	*(103)*
	1962-63	*1,686·560*	*(1,660)*	*1,398·016*	*(1,376)*	*20,638·008*	*(20,313)*	*61·976*	*(61)*
	1963-64	*2,343·912*	*(2,307)*	*2,099·056*	*(2,066)*	*19,342·608*	*(19,038)*	*70·104*	*(69)*
District Total ..	1956-57	136,548·368	(134,398)	12,640·056	(12,441)	74,337·672	(73,167)	772·160	(760)
	1957-58	125,240·288	(123,268)	12,409·424	(12,214)	94,249·240	(92,765)	1,027·176	(1,011)
	1958-59	152,767·792	(150,362)	14,218·920	(13,995)	91,625·928	(90,183)	1,025·144	(1,009)
	1959-60	155,559·760	(153,110)	19,820·128	(19,508)	120,245·632	(118,352)	981·456	(966)
	1960-61	158,382·208	(155,888)	18,378·424	(18,089)	110,702·344	(108,959)	1,047·496	(1,031)
	1961-62	154,024·584	(151,599)	20,234·656	(19,916)	114,948·208	(113,138)	1,057·656	(1,041)
	1962-63	180,569·616	(177,726)	19,715·480	(19,405)	129,825·496	(127,781)	1,011·936	(996)
	1963-64	237,774·480	(234,030)	17,244·568	(16,973)	109,279·944	(107,559)	1,042·416	(1,026)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

TABLE No. 11

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER PULSES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green gram (4)	Tur (5)	Black gram (6)	Horse gram (7)	Math (8)	Val (9)	Chavli (10)	Watana (11)	Lakh (12)
Warora ..	1956-57 ..	2,904·836 (7,178)	1,537·807 (3,800)	4,606·541 (11,383)	80·128 (198)	1,118·957 (2,765)	71·629 (176)	8·903 (22)	·809 (2)	332·652 (822)	7,545·370 (18,645)
	1957-58 ..	2,760·768 (6,822)	26·305 (65)	4,814·954 (11,898)	112·503 (278)	1,332·631 (3,293)	63·940 (158)	185·751 (459)	17·806 (44)	237·550 (587)	6,627·947 (16,378)
	1958-59 ..	2,586·753 (6,392)	74·057 (183)	5,225·710 (12,913)	191·821 (474)	1,230·650 (3,041)	171·587 (424)	7·284 (18)	2·023 (5)	227·029 (561)	6,924·987 (17,112)
	1959-60 ..	2,708·968 (6,694)	80·128 (198)	3,315·188 (8,192)	246·049 (608)	1,821·087 (4,500)	207·199 (512)	8·498 (21)	2·023 (5)	274·782 (679)	8,015·616 (19,807)
	1960-61 ..	2,623·579 (6,483)	1,505·432 (3,720)	3,845·326 (9,502)	178·062 (440)	1,944·111 (4,804)	222·557 (550)	9·308 (23)	9·712 (24)	258·594 (639)	7,538·086 (18,627)
	1961-62 ..	2,617·914 (6,469)	308·775 (763)	4,581·045 (11,320)	213·674 (528)	2,728·393 (6,742)	208·818 (516)	21·448 (53)	22·258 (55)	299·467 (740)	8,440·536 (20,857)
Chandrapur	1956-57 ..	1,528·904 (3,778)	3,941·237 (9,739)	1,268·691 (3,135)	548·349 (1,355)	1,734·889 (4,287)	12·545 (31)	6·880 (17)	4·856 (12)	365·026 (902)	7,275·040 (17,977)
	1957-58 ..	1,428·137 (3,529)	1,876·124 (4,636)	979·745 (2,421)	876·954 (2,167)	1,565·730 (3,869)	29·542 (73)	261·427 (646)	93·482 (231)	238·765 (590)	7,073·102 (17,478)
	1958-59 ..	1,388·478 (3,431)	5,165·412 (12,764)	1,190·586 (2,942)	895·975 (2,214)	1,672·972 (4,134)	265·878 (657)	15·378 (38)	66·368 (164)	242·407 (597)	7,455·125 (18,422)
	1959-60 ..	1,204·345 (2,976)	2,694·804 (6,659)	998·765 (2,468)	1,029·926 (2,545)	1,950·182 (4,819)	282·066 (697)	8·903 (22)	73·248 (181)	286·133 (707)	7,531·206 (18,610)
	1960-61 ..	1,168·328 (2,887)	474·656 (10,810)	812·205 (2,007)	948·584 (2,344)	1,874·101 (4,631)	288·136 (712)	22·258 (55)	99·957 (247)	234·718 (580)	7,099·002 (17,542)
	1961-62 ..	1,178·850 (2,913)	382·833 (945)	1,266·667 (3,130)	905·687 (2,238)	1,889·479 (4,669)	299·063 (739)	29·137 (72)	63·131 (156)	273·972 (677)	7,845·647 (19,387)
Brahmapuri	1956-57 ..	3,000·747 (7,415)	351·672 (869)	180·085 (445)	5,722·665 (14,141)	635·357 (1,570)	77·700 (192)	11·331 (28)	1·619 (4)	72·034 (178)	11,625·010 (28,726)
	1957-58 ..	2,290·927 (5,661)	527·306 (1,303)	214·888 (531)	7,290·014 (18,014)	607·029 (1,500)	64·345 (159)	352·481 (877)	3·237 (8)	49·776 (123)	10,867·438 (26,854)
	1958-59 ..	1,731·651 (4,279)	280·447 (693)	285·708 (706)	9,227·650 (22,802)	731·268 (1,807)	349·648 (864)	15·378 (38)	·809 (2)	45·325 (112)	11,003·817 (27,191)
	1959-60 ..	1,754·314 (4,335)	352·481 (871)	271·139 (670)	10,275·382 (25,391)	905·687 (2,238)	363·812 (899)	12·950 (32)	2·428 (6)	62·726 (155)	10,957·278 (27,076)
	1960-61 ..	1,793·568 (4,432)	456·485 (1,128)	151·757 (375)	9,427·565 (23,296)	774·164 (1,913)	317·274 (784)	14·569 (36)	3·237 (8)	54·633 (135)	11,050·356 (27,306)
	1961-62 ..	1,586·774 (3,921)	257·785 (637)	133·951 (331)	9,440·920 (23,329)	760·000 (1,878)	649·926 (1,606)	31·565 (78)	1·619 (4)	53·419 (132)	11,720·516 (28,962)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57 ..	4,428·074 (10,942)	630·905 (1,559)	244·430 (604)	2,565·709 (6,340)	3,330·566 (8,230)	7·284 (18)	10·522 (26)	·405 (1)	55·037 (136)	7,626·308 (18,845)
	1957-58 ..	2,973·228 (7,347)	494·127 (1,221)	224·196 (554)	2,946·519 (7,281)	3,469·778 (8,574)	60·293 (149)	410·756 (1,015)	21·853 (54)	28·733 (71)	6,792·250 (16,784)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. PULSES.

TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green gram (4)	Tur (5)	Black gram (6)	Horse gram (7)	Math (8)	Val (9)	Chavli (10)	Watana (11)	Lakh (12)
Gadhchiroli —*contd.*	1958-59 ..	2,819·043 (6,966)	975·293 (2,410)	272·353 (673)	3,598·468 (8,892)	4,126·178 (10,196)	464·579 (1,148)	17·401 (43)	·809 (2)	40·873 (101)	7,241·451 (17,894)
	1959-60 ..	3,017·339 (7,456)	1,865·602 (4,610)	201·533 (498)	4,342·685 (10,731)	4,984·517 (12,317)	703·749 (1,739)	14·973 (37)	1·214 (3)	60·703 (150)	7,321·579 (18,092)
	1960-61 ..	3,133·079 (7,742)	1,595·677 (3,943)	97·125 (240)	4,287·648 (10,595)	4,470·161 (11,046)	644·260 (1,592)	24·281 (60)	107·646 (266)	41·683 (103)	7,101·025 (17,547)
	1961-62 ..	3,478·276 (8,595)	1,356·507 (3,352)	170·373 (421)	5,675·721 (14,025)	4,391·248 (10,851)	606·220 (1,498)	62·322 (154)	·809 (2)	42·897 (106)	6,679·747 (16,506)
Sironcha ..	1956-57 ..	235·931 (583)	2,021·811 (4,996)	10·117 (25)	284·899 (704)	1,256·955 (3,106)	..	5·666 (14)	..	2·428 (6)	21·853 (54)
	1957-58 ..	339·936 (814)	377·572 (933)	·405 (1)	381·619 (943)	1,279·212 (3,161)	31·161 (77)	42·492 (105)	5·261 (13)	3·237 (8)	12·545 (31)
	1958-59 ..	225·410 (557)	610·266 (1,508)	5·261 (13)	530·948 (1,312)	1,417·210 (3,502)	47·348 (117)	6·880 (17)	..	1·619 (4)	22·662 (56)
	1959-60 ..	127·881 (316)	1,395·357 (3,448)	·405 (1)	643·855 (1,591)	1,382·812 (3,417)	50·586 (125)	6·070 (15)	..	2·428 (6)	22·662 (56)
	1960-61 ..	95·910 (237)	1,316·848 (3,254)	3·642 (9)	476·720 (1,178)	1,325·751 (3,276)	61·108 (151)	6·070 (15)	14·164 (35)	2·023 (5)	14·569 (36)
	1961-62 ..	135·570 (335)	893·142 (2,207)	4·047 (10)	574·654 (1,420)	1,597·296 (3,947)	64·750 (160)	10·117 (25)	..	7·284 (18)	18·211 (45)
Rajura ..	1956-57 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	1,141·214 (2,820)	6,089·715 (15,048)	1,862·770 (4,603)	551·182 (1,362)	1,378·765 (3,407)	585·176 (1,446)	662·471 (1,637)	797·231 (1,970)	93·078 (230)	330·223 (816)
	1960-61 ..	1,249·266 (3,087)	6,237·425 (15,413)	2,437·711 (5,999)	365·026 (902)	1,525·666 (3,770)	359·361 (888)	1,783·451 (4,407)	2 832 (7)	118·573 (293)	571·821 (1,413)
	1961-62 ..	1,240·767 (3,066)	5,757·063 (14,226)	2,720·299 (6,722)	278·019 (687)	1,362·982 (3,368)	338 722 (837)	2,238 723 (5,532)	11·736 (29)	79,723 (197)	775·378 (1,916)
District Total	1956-57 ..	12,098·493 (29,896)	8,483·432 (20,963)	6,309·055 (15,590)	9,201·750 (22,738)	8,076·723 (19,958)	168·754 (417)	43·301 (107)	7·689 (19)	827·178 (2,044)	34,093·581 (84,247)
	1957-58 ..	9,804·132 (24,228)	3,301·833 (8,159)	6,234·188 (15,405)	11,607·608 (28,683)	8,262·474 (20,417)	249·286 (616)	1,255·336 (3,102)	141·640 (350)	533·781 (1,319)	31,373·282 (77,525)
	1958-59 ..	8,751·335 (21,625)	7,105·477 (17,558)	6,979·619 (17,247)	14,444·862 (35,694)	9,178·278 (22,680)	1,299·042 (3,210)	62·322 (154)	70·011 (173)	556·443 (1,375)	32,648·043 (80,675)
	1959-60 ..	9,954·061 (24,597)	12,478·088 (30,834)	6,649·800 (16,432)	17,089·080 (42,228)	12,446·118 (30,755)	2,192·589 (5,418)	713·866 (1,764)	876·145 (2,165)	779·830 (1,927)	34,178·565 (84,457)
	1960-61 ..	10,063·731 (24,868)	15,486·524 (38,268)	7,337·766 (18,132)	15,683·606 (38,755)	11,913·956 (29,440)	1,892·716 (4,677)	1,859·937 (4,596)	235·122 (581)	710·224 (1,755)	33,374·859 (82,471)
	1961-62 ..	10,238·151 (25,299)	8,956·106 (22,131)	8,876·383 (21,934)	17,091·104 (42,233)	12,737·492 (31,475)	2,167·498 (5,356)	2,393·313 (5,914)	99·553 (246)	756·763 (1,870)	35,480·036 (87,673)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

The important pulses in the district include lakh, horse gram, black gram, gram and green gram. These and other minor pulses together occupied 14.67 per cent of the gross cropped area during the period from 1957-58 to 1959-60 in the district as against 10.69 per cent for the State. The cultivation of these crops was concentrated in Brahmapuri (24.64 per cent), Rajura (16.96 per cent), Gadhchiroli (16.73 per cent) and Chandrapur (13.42 per cent) tahsils. The acreage under these crops and their outturn during the period between 1956-57 and 1961-62 are given in table Nos. 11 and 12, respectively. The description of each of these crops including the method of its cultivation, the soils required for it etc. is given below. The damage to those crops due to the pests and diseases is explained in separate sections in this chapter.

TABLE No. 12

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF PULSES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

*(Figures in metric tonnes)**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green Gram (4)	Tur (5)	Black gram (6)	Horse Gram (7)	Masur (8)
Warora ..	1956-57 ..	1,211·072 (1,192)	389·128 (383)	1,864·360 (1,835)	17·272 (17)	362·712 (357)	59·944 (59)
	1957-58 ..	1,273·048 (1,253)	6·096 (6)	1,977·136 (1,946)	26·416 (26)	435·864 (429)	50·800 (50)
	1958-59 ..	1,063·752 (1,047)	17·272 (17)	1,559·560 (1,535)	40·640 (40)	361·696 (356)	45·720 (45)
	1959-60 ..	1,395·984 (1,374)	16·256 (16)	1,118·616 (1,101)	62·992 (62)	655·320 (645)	64·008 (63)
	1960-61 ..	1,430·528 (1,408)	345·440 (340)	1,528·064 (1,504)	45·720 (45)	620·776 (611)	56·896 (56)
	1961-62 ..	1,365·504 (1,344)	73·152 (72)	1,564·640 (1,540)	50·800 (50)	816·864 (804)	155·448 (153)
	1962-63 ..	1,307·592 (1,287)	564·896 (556)	1,704·848 (1,678)	52·832 (52)	1,411·224 (1,389)	57·912 (57
	1963-64 ..	1,316·736 (1,296)	498·856 (491)	2,834·640 (2,790)	86·360 (85)	1,062·736 (1,046)	49·784 (49)
Chandrapur	1956-57 ..	703·072 (692)	998·728 (983)	385·064 (379)	115·824 (114)	563·880 (555)	..
	1957-58 ..	661·416 (651)	471·424 (464)	398·272 (392)	204·216 (201)	552·704 (544)	2·032 (2)
	1958-59 ..	570·992 (562)	1,203·960 (1,185)	267·208 (263)	209·296 (206)	546·608 (538)	2·032 (2)
	1959-60 ..	524·256 (516)	505·968 (498)	261·112 (257)	193·040 (190)	511·048 (503)	1·016 (1)
	1960-61 ..	584·200 (575)	1,016·000 (1,000)	246·888 (243)	221·488 (218)	659·384 (649)	1·016 (1)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

TABLE No. 12—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes*)*

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Gram (3)	Green Gram (4)	Tur (5)	Black gram (6)	Horse Gram (7)	Masur (8)
Chandrapur —*contd.*	1961-62 ..	676·656 (666)	90·424 (89)	387·096 (381)	193·040 (190)	627·888 (618)	1·016 (1)
	1962-63 ..	560·832 (552)	442·976 (436)	534·416 (526)	191·008 (188)	690·880 (680)	1·016 (1)
	1963-64 ..	579·120 (570)	764·032 (752)	616·712 (607)	231·648 (228)	611·632 (602)	3·048 (3)
Brahmapuri	1956-57 ..	1,388·872 (1,367)	89·408 (88)	66·040 (65)	1,449·832 (1,427)	225·552 (222)	3·048 (3)
	1957-58 ..	1,670·304 (1,644)	33·528 (33)	88·392 (87)	1,672·336 (1,646)	198·120 (195)	3·048 (3)
	1958-59 ..	799·592 (787)	52·832 (52)	117·856 (116)	1,727·200 (2,700)	191·008 (188)	4·064 (4)
	1959-60 ..	908·304 (894)	82·296 (81)	67·056 (66)	1,247·648 (1,228)	297·688 (293)	5·080 (5)
	1960-61 ..	905·256 (891)	111·760 (110)	46·768 (48)	2,196·592 (2,162)	252·984 (249)	3·048 (3)
	1961-62 ..	910·336 (896)	60·960 (60)	35·560 (35)	1,488·440 (1,465)	227·584 (224)	5·080 (5)
	1962-63 ..	796·544 (784)	59·944 (59)	57·912 (57)	2,289·048 (2,253)	207·264 (204)	4·064 (4)
	1963-64 ..	906·272 (892)	48·768 (48)	1·016 (1)	2,964·688 (2,918)	227·584 (224)	4·064 (4)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57 ..	2,253·488 (2,218)	159·512 (157)	90·424 (89)	595·376 (586)	163·576 (161)	1·016 (1)
	1957-58 ..	1,413·256 (1,391)	127·000 (125)	99·568 (98)	686·816 (676)	1,134·872 (1,117)	1·016 (1)
	1958-59 ..	1,159·256 (1,141)	204·216 (201)	91·440 (90)	753·872 (742)	1,212·088 (1,193)	1·016 (1)
	1959-60 ..	1,710·944 (1,684)	480·568 (473)	45·720 (45)	1,118·616 (1,101)	1,850·136 (1,821)	1·016 (1)
	1960-61 ..	1,556·512 (1,532)	365·760 (360)	34·544 (34)	999·744 (984)	1,325·880 (1,305)	5·080 (5)
	1961-62 ..	1,814·576 (1,786)	321·056 (316)	44·704 (44)	1,208·024 (1,189)	1,314·704 (1,294)	5·080 (5)
	1962-63 ..	1,643·888 (1,618)	204·216 (201)	116·940 (115)	919·480 (905)	1,220·216 (1,201)	..
	1963-64 ..	1,569·720 (1,545)	158·496 (156)	1·016 (1)	959·104 (944)	1,126·744 (1,109)	..
Sironcha ..	1956-57 ..	109·728 (108)	512·064 (504)	3·048 (3)	66·040 (65)	445·008 (438)	..
	1957-58 ..	152·400 (150)	96·520 (95)	..	89·408 (88)	418·592 (412)	..
	1958-59 ..	105·664 (104)	142·240 (140)	2·032 (2)	123·952 (122)	464·312 (457)	..
	1959-60 ..	79·248 (78)	326·136 (321)	..	150·368 (148)	461·264 (454)	..
	1960-61 ..	53·848 (53)	335·280 (330)	1·016 (1)	99·568 (98)	424·688 (418)	..
	1961-62 ..	64·088 (63)	211·328 (208)	1·016 (1)	110·744 (109)	478·536 (471)	..
	1962-63 ..	76·200 (75)	146·304 (144)	..	99·568 (98)	451·104 (444)	..
	1963-64 ..	5·080 (5)	333·248 (328)	..	182·880 (180)	565·912 (557)	..
Rajura ..	1956-57 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	587·248 (578)	1,424·432 (1,402)	418·592 (412)	129·032 (127)	452·120 (445)	104·648 (103)
	1960-61 ..	635·000 (625)	1,435·608 (1,413)	874·776 (861)	93·472 (92)	615·696 (606)	..

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

TABLE No. 12—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes*)*

Tahsil	Year	Gram	Green Gram	Tur	Black gram	Horse gram	Masur
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Rajura —*contd.*	1961-62 ..	647·192 (637)	1,363·472 (1,342)	830·072 (817)	66·040 (65)	364·744 (359)	..
	1962-63 ..	581·152 (572)	1,681·480 (1,655)	1,084·072 (1,067)	93·472 (92)	460·248 (453)	..
	1963-64 ..	574·040 (565)	1,676·400 (1,650)	1,083·056 (1,066)	83·312 (82)	435·864 (429)	..
District Total	1956-57 ..	5,666·232 (5,577)	2,148·840 (2,115)	2,408·936 (2,371)	2,244·344 (2,209)	1,760·728 (1,733)	68·072 (67)
	1957-58 ..	5,170·424 (5,089)	836·168 (823)	2,563·368 (2,523)	2,679·192 (2,637)	2,740·152 (2,697)	56·896 (56)
	1958-59 ..	3,699·256 (3,641)	1,620·520 (1,595)	2,038·096 (2,006)	2,854·960 (2,810)	2,775·712 (2,732)	52·832 (52)
	1959-60 ..	5,205·984 (5,124)	2,835·656 (2,791)	1,911·696 (1,881)	2,901·696 (2,856)	4,227·576 (4,161)	175·768 (173)
	1960-61 ..	5,165·344 (5,084)	3,609·848 (3,553)	2,734·056 (2,691)	3,656·584 (3,599)	3,899·408 (3,838)	66·040 (65)
	1961-62 ..	5,478·272 (5,392)	2,120·392 (2,087)	2,863·088 (2,818)	3,117·088 (3,068)	3,830·320 (3,770)	166·624 (164)
	1962-63 ..	4,966·208 (4,888)	3,099·816 (3,051)	3,498·088 (3,443)	3,551·936 (3,496)	4,440·936 (4,371)	62·992 (62)
	1963-64 ..	4,950·968 (4,873)	3,652·520 (3,595)	4,536·440 (4,465)	4,507·992 (4,437)	4,030·472 (3,967)	56·896 (56)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

The production of Lakh is very common in Brahmapuri tahsil. It is cultivated more or less in an equal area in Warora, Chandrapur and Gadhchiroli tahsils. Lakh is a coarse kind of pea. Its grain is distinguished from that of pea by its being flat on two sides and the reddish mattling on its surface. The crop is always grown alone and in *rabi* season only. Sown in deep, alluvial and retentive black soil, it gives best outturn. After the rainy season, the land which develops cracks is suitable for this crop. That is why Lakh is often cultivated in rice fields. The land is well-ploughed and repeatedly harrowed. The seeds are sown in September-October. The plants are uprooted and taken to the threshing yard, and after they are sufficiently dried for about a week are beaten with sticks or trampled under oxen's feet. The seeds are removed after winnowing the husk. The seeds of Lakh are inferior to those of other pulses. Its fodder, however, is considered to be very nutritious for draught animals.

Lakh.

Horse gram, *hulga* or *kulthi* is another important pulse crop grown in the district. In Gadhchiroli tahsil the crop is grown on a large scale. Other tahsils also grow it in a smaller area. The table No. 11 gives tahsil-wise area under this pulse crop. Horse gram is generally grown as a *kharif* crop and requires a moderate rainfall of about 889 mm. (35 inches). It is grown on a variety of soils such as poor sandy loam, gravelly upland, black and deep red loams etc. *Kulthi* is taken as a mixed crop with other cereals and needs the same method of cultivation as is given to the crop with which it is sown. The crop is sown thick and also in every fourth row. It gets ready for harvest by November when it is uprooted and brought to the threshing floor. After it is sufficiently dried the plants are trampled under oxen's feet. The seeds are then removed by winnowing the husk. This husk added to that of the various other cereals and pulses at the threshing floor is very nutritious to both draught as well as milch cattle.

Horse gram.

Black gram, *udid,* is another important crop which is grown throughout the district. Its cultivation is, however, concentrated in Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli and Chandrapur tahsils. The crop can be produced on a variety of soils such as black, red loams, light red or brown alluvial. It is usually drilled mixed with cereals like jowar etc. It is cultivated in the same way as the main crop, with which it is produced. The ripe pulse is split and consumed as *dal.* It is ground to powder, to be made into *papads.* The stalks and leaves form good fodder.

Black gram.

Gram, *harbara* or *chana,* is also grown in all the tahsils of the district, Gadhchiroli and Warora being the most important. The crop is mostly grown as a *rabi* crop. As such, it is generally sown in October-November when the rains have almost ceased. Heavy rainfall and cloudy weather are harmful to this crop. The field is made ready by September for sowing. A ploughing and two harrowings are given. The crop becomes ready for harvesting in January-February. *Harbara* is some time grown

Gram.

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PULSES.

Gram.

with well-irrigation. In this case about 2 to 3 waterings are given to the crop. If required, one hand-weeding is also given. Very often the tender shoots are plucked off before the flowering time. This renders the plants strong and bushy. Such tender leaves are also used as vegetable. After about three and a half months the leaves become reddish brown and dry and are shed in the fields. The plants are then uprooted and brought to the threshing floor where they are dried for about a week and then trampled under the feet of oxen for separating the seed.

The grain may be eaten green, boiled or parched. It is the most common and concentrated food for horses. Its *dal* and flour are used in the preparation of many types of dishes.

Green gram.

The cultivation of green gram, *mug*, is found mainly in Rajura and Chandrapur tahsils. The crop is mostly grown as a *kharif* crop along with cereals. It gives the best yield if sown in deep good soil as well as in ordinary black soil and red soil. The seeds are drilled mixed with cereals. Within a week the seedlings of the crop come out of the soil. One or two inter-culturings and a hand weeding are given to the crop. In about two and a half months the green pods are ready. These pods are eaten as vegetable. They take about a month to ripen. When the pods become dry, the plants are uprooted and brought to the threshing yard where they are dried for a week and threshed by beating with sticks or by the usual method of trampling under oxen's feet. The leaves and stalks of the crop are much prized as fodder.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

In Sironcha tahsil, garden crops occupy a prominent place in the agricultural economy. Of these tobacco is an important crop. In 1956-57, tobacco was grown over an area of 715.080 hectares (1,767 acres). Since then, however, as can be seen from the table No. 13, the area under the crop has been decreasing. In 1963-64, the tobacco crop occupied only 261.022 hectares (645 acres) in the tahsil. Tobacco is also grown in other tahsils of the district. Of these, Gadhchiroli and Chandrapur tahsils have large acreage under tobacco. During the last quarter of the 19th century tobacco was grown in the upper part of Sironcha tahsil mostly by *Marars* in land situated on the edge of a nullah and irrigated from a *kachcha* or unlined well. Sometimes a big tobacco garden was cultivated by a large community jointly. About the tobacco growers, the old gazetteer of the district says—"In the lower Talukas, a good many expert tobacco-growers have immigrated from Madras. These water the tobacco by hand and after one or two waterings pick off the head of the plant, thus inducing it to spread and ripen early. Very high rents are paid for these tobacco gardens".

Tobacco.

The crop is grown for the sake of its leaves which are used after curing. First the tobacco seed is sown in the seed beds during the first week of July. After about one and a half months the seedlings are transplanted in the field. Two months after, the tops of the crop are nipped off, leaving about ten well

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DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

developed leaves on the plants. These leaves, when they become slightly hard and yellow are usually harvested in the months of December-January. The leaves are then exposed to sun, tied into small bundles and after a sprinkling of decoction of some hot spices, the bundles are covered with soil for some time. The leaves which are taken out after about a week form the tobacco which exerts a mild narcotic and soothing effect on the human system when chewed alone with *chuna* or mixed with betel leaves. Table No. 14 gives the outturn of tobacco.

Tobacco.

Betel Leaves.

Pan was included amongst the chief garden crops cultivated in the district in the last quarter of the 19th century. People belonging to Barais community used to cultivate betel leaves. The cultivation was mainly concentrated at Bhandak and Chichordi in Warora tahsil. This variety of *pan* had not the same reputation as that of Ramtek, and hence commanded a lower price. The Barais were therefore far from being in a prosperous condition.

The cultivation of the crop, as can be seen from the Table No. 13 has more or less been stopped in the district since 1961-62. Prior to that the crop was raised only in Warora, Chandrapur and Brahmapuri tahsils. However, the area under the crop was very negligible. The highest acreage under the crop in the three tahsils together was only 6.475 hectares (16 acres) in 1959-60. Of these tahsils Warora had 4.856 hectares (12 acres) and Chandrapur and Brahmapuri had 0.809 hectares (2 acres) each under this crop.

TABLE No. 13

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)	Betel Leaves (4)
Warora	1956-57	5·261 (13)	..
	1957-58	2·023 (5)	4·451 (11)
	1958-59	3·237 (8)	4·856 (12)
	1959-60	2·428 (6)	4·856 (12)
	1960-61	3·237 (8)	4·856 (12)
	1961-62	1·214 (3)	..
	1962-63	·809 (2)	..
	1963-64	1·214 (3)	..

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 13—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)	Betel Leaves (4)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57	14·569 (36)	0·809 (2)
	1957-58	3·642 (9)	0·809 (2)
	1958-59	6·475 (16)	0·809 (2)
	1959-60	4·047 (10)	0·809 (2)
	1960-61	5·666 (14)	..
	1961-62	4·047 (10)	0·405 (1)
	1962-63	6·070 (15)	0·809 (2)
	1963-64	2·428 (6)	0·405 (1)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57	4·047 (10)	0·405 (1)
	1957-58	..	0·809 (2)
	1958-59	..	0·809 (2)
	1959-60	..	0·809 (2)
	1960-61	..	0·809 (2)
	1961-62	..	0·405 (1)
	1962-63	..	..
	1963-64	15·378 (38)	..
Gadhchiroli ..	1956-57	12·950 (32)	..
	1957-58	6·880 (17)	..
	1958-59	9·308 (23)	..
	1959-60	10·926 (27)	..
	1960-61	5·666 (14)	..
	1961-62	15·783 (39)	..
	1962-63	6·475 (16)	..
	1963-64	31·970 (79)	..

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 13—*contd.*

(Area in hectares*)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)	Betel Leaves (4)
Sironcha	1956-57	715·080 (1,767)	..
	1957-58	436·251 (1,078)	..
	1958-59	496·145 (1,226)	..
	1959-60	507·476 (1,254)	..
	1960-61	545·517 (1,348)	..
	1961-62	459·723 (1,136)	..
	1962-63	238·765 (590)	..
	1963-64	261·022 (645)	..
Rajura	1956-57	..	..
	1957-58	..	..
	1958-59	..	..
	1959-60	8·903 (22)	..
	1960-61	9·712 (24)	..
	1961-62	6·880 (17)	..
	1962-63	4·451 (11)	..
	1963-64	2·833 (7)	..
District Total ..	1956-57	751·906 (1,858)	1·214 (3)
	1957-58	448·797 (1,109)	6·070 (15)
	1958-59	515·165 (1,273)	6·475 (16)
	1959-60	533·781 (1,319)	6·475 (16)
	1960-61	569·798 (1,408)	5·665 (14)
	1961-62	487·646 (1,205)	0·809 (2)
	1962-63	256·571 (634)	0·809 (2)
	1963-64	314·846 (778)	0·405 (1)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 14

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF TOBACCO IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)
Warora	1956-57	3·048 (3)
	1957-58	1·016 (1)
	1958-59	2·032 (2)
	1959-60	2·032 (2)
	1960-61	2·032 (2)
	1961-62	1·016 (1)
	1962-63	1·016 (1)
	1963-64	1·016 (1)
Chandrapur	1956-57	8·128 (8)
	1957-58	2·032 (2)
	1958-59	4·064 (4)
	1959-60	3·048 (3)
	1960-61	3·048 (3)
	1961-62	2·032 (2)
	1962-63	3·048 (3)
	1963-64	1·016 (1)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	2·032 (2)
	1957-58	..
	1958-59	..
	1959-60	..
	1960-61	..
	1961-62	..
	1962-63	..
	1963-64	8·128 (8)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	8·128 (8)
	1957-58	4·064 (4)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tons.

TABLE No. 14—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Tobacco (3)
Gadhchiroli—*contd.*	1958-59	7·112 (7)
	1959-60	8·128 (8)
	1960-61	4·064 (4)
	1961-62	6·096 (6)
	1962-63	3·048 (3)
	1963-64	9·144 (9)
Sironcha	1956-57	421·640 (415)
	1957-58	284·480 (280)
	1958-59	331·216 (326)
	1959-60	332·232 (327)
	1960-61	326·136 (321)
	1961-62	278·384 (274)
	1962-63	146·304 (144)
	1963-64	111·760 (110)
Rajura	1956-57	..
	1957-58	..
	1958-59	..
	1959-60	5·080 (5)
	1960-61	5·080 (5)
	1961-62	4·064 (4)
	1962-63	2·032 (2)
	1963-64	1·016 (1)
District Total	1956-57	442·970 (436)
	1957-58	291·592 (287)
	1958-59	344·424 (339)
	1959-60	350·520 (345)
	1960-61	340·360 (335)
	1961-62	291·592 (287)
	1962-63	155·448 (153)
	1963-64	132·080 (130)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tons.

Sugarcane is another garden crop which is mostly grown in Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli and Chandrapur tahsils. Rajura tahsil had practically no area [except 0.809 hectares (2 acres) in 1959-60 and 0.405 hectares (1 acre) in 1960-61] under sugarcane during the period between 1956-57 and 1963-64. Of the tahsils in the district Brahmapuri has the highest acreage under sugarcane. In this tahsil, however, the acreage under the crop has gone down from 355.314 hectares (878 acres) in 1956-57 to 189.393 hectares (468) in 1963-64.

The following tables give area under sugarcane and its outturn in metric tonnes from 1956-57 to 1963-64:—

TABLE No. 15

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER SUGARCANE IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
Warora	.. 1956-57	10·117 (25)
	1957-58	9·172 (24)
	1958-59	7·284 (18)
	1959-60	7·689 (19)
	1960-61	5·666 (14)
	1961-62	4·856 (12)
	1962-63	6·070 (15)
	1963-64	4·451 (11)
Chandrapur ..	.. 1956-57	51·395 (127)
	1957-58	3·642 (9)
	1958-59	23·876 (59)
	1959-60	16·187 (40)
	1960-61	10·926 (27)
	1961-62	13·759 (34)
	1962-63	14·569 (36)
	1963-64	14·973 (37)
Brahmapuri	.. 1956-57	355·314 (878)
	1957-58	318·655 (780)
	1958-59	229·457 (567)
	1959-60	207·604 (513)
	1960-61	175·634 (434)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 15—*contd.*

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
Brahmapuri—*contd.*	1961-62	184·132 (455)
	1962-63	185·751 (459)
	1963-64	189·393 (468)
Gadhchiroli	.. 1956-57	93·887 (232)
	1957-58	85·389 (211)
	1958-59	68·797 (170)
	1959-60	79·723 (197)
	1960-61	70·820 (125)
	1961-62	63·940 (158)
	1962-63	61·108 (151)
	1963-64	62·726 (155)
Sironcha	.. 1956-57	13·354 (33)
	1957-58	13·354 (33)
	1958-59	7·284 (18)
	1959-60	6·475 (16)
	1960-61	5·261 (13)
	1961-62	6·880 (17)
	1962-63	6·070 (15)
	1963-64	4·856 (12)
Rajura	.. 1956-57	..
	1957-58	..
	1958-59	..
	1959-60	0·809 (2)
	1960-61	0·405 (1)
	1961-62	..
	1962-63	..
	1963-64	..

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 15—*contd.*

*Area in hectares**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
District Total ..	.. 1956-57	524·068 (1,295)
	1957-58	427·753 (1,057)
	1958-59	336·698 (832)
	1959-60	318·488 (787)
	1960-61	268·711 (664)
	1961-62	273·567 (676)
	1962-63	273·567 (676)
	1963-64	276·400 (683)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 16

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF SUGARCANE IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64

*Figures in metric tonnes**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
Warora	.. 1956-57	45·720 (45)
	1957-58	48·768 (48)
	1958-59	36·576 (36)
	1959-60	35·560 (35)
	1960-61	24·384 (24)
	1961-62	22·352 (22)
	1962-63	28·448 (28)
	1963-64	20·320 (20)
Chandrapur ..	.. 1956-57	23·368 (23)
	1957-58	185·928 (183)
	1958-59	120·904 (119)
	1959-60	82·296 (81)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tons.

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

*Figures in metric tonnes**

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
Chandrapur—*contd.*	1960-61	50·800 (50)
	1961-62	65·024 (64)
	1962-63	67·056 (66)
	1963-64	69·088 (68)
Brahmapuri ..	.. 1956-57	5,681·472 (5,592)
	1957-58	1,636·776 (1,611)
	1958-59	1,157·224 (1,139)
	1959-60	1,050·544 (1,034)
	1960-61	813·816 (801)
	1961-62	914·400 (900)
	1962-63	950·976 (936)
	1963-64	875·792 (862)
Gadhchiroli ..	.. 1956-57	392·176 (386)
	1957-58	430·784 (424)
	1958-59	175·768 (173)
	1959-60	251·968 (248)
	1960-61	227·584 (224)
	1961-62	312·928 (308)
	1962-63	286·512 (282)
	1963-64	290·576 (286)
Sironcha	.. 1956-57	60·960 (60)
	1957-58	67·056 (66)
	1958-59	30·480 (30)
	1959-60	27·432 (27)
	1960-61	101·600 (100)
	1961-62	30·480 (30)
	1962-63	28·448 (28)
	1963-64	22·352 (22)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tons.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. SUGARCANE.

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sugarcane (3)
Rajura	1956-57	..
	1957-58	..
	1958-59	..
	1959-60	4·064 (4)
	1960-61	24·384 (24)
	1961-62	..
	1962-63	..
	1963-64	..
District Total	1956-57	6,203·696 (6,106)
	1957-58	2,369·312 (2,332)
	1958-59	1,520·952 (1,497)
	1959-60	1,451·864 (1,429)
	1960-61	1,242·568 (1,223)
	1961-62	1,345·184 (1,324)
	1962-63	1,361·440 (1,340)
	1963-64	1,278·128 (1,258)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tons.

About the cultivation of sugarcane crop in the district the old gazetteer has the following to say: "Cane cultivation is found in Warora and the Rajgarh paragana of Chandrapur but the chief seat of production is the Garbori paragana of Brahmapuri. Lean years and the competition of *gur* from the United Provinces and Bengal have combined to reduce the cultivation of sugarcane to a somewhat languishing state, and the crop is now hardly important enough to justify a detailed description of the processes employed, interesting though they are."

The cultivation of sugarcane in the last quarter of the 19th Century had its peculiarities. The crop was grown in two ways *viz., motasthal* and *patasthal* the former being the way of irrigating the crop by a leathern *mot* employed to draw the water from the well and the latter by a channel or *pat* coming from a tank. The method of allotting land for sugarcane cultivation was another peculiarity. "In cane-growing villages of this district", writes Mr. Hemingway, "it has been the custom from time immemorial for tenants to hand over their holdings in rotation

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. SUGARCANE.

to the *malguzar* for cane. The cane when irrigated from a tank is almost invariably grown by a community of which the *malguzar* is not of necessity a member; if a certain number of tenants in the village express a desire to grow cane, and the tank contains enough water to supply the demand, the *malguzar* may sublet a plot of his *sir* to them for the purpose, or he may call upon a tenant to surrender his holding for cane: the *malguzar* has full control over the land thus taken up: he is supposed to give the tenant land of equal value in exchange: or if that cannot be arranged he remits the rent for the time that the land is out of the tenant's possession. The *malguzar* then apportions the land to the men who want to grow cane, and he or the owner of the tank, if the tank does not belong to the *malguzar*, takes water-dues from the cane growers according to the area which each member of the community has under cane in his garden."

Kata and *kathai* were the two varieties of cane grown in the district. The *kata* was a better variety and was so known because of its thick purple colour. It, however, gave only one cutting and generally occupied the ground only for one year. *Kathai*, on the other hand, was a smaller and inferior cane, also harder and contained little juice, but it had the advantage of giving three cuttings in successive years, though the second and third cuttings were comparatively poor.

In about 1907, due to the efforts of the then Irrigation and Agriculture Department the area under cane considerably increased. The local experiments which were then made in the Ahiri estate also helped in increasing the area under sugarcane.

The cultivation of sugarcane is extremely expensive and requires heavy manuring as well as watering. Lengthy fences have to be erected to prevent encroachment by pigs and jackals. The cane also occupies the ground for a whole year before it is ready for cutting. The best soil for the crop is the medium deep and well-drained. It is brought to a fine tilth by ploughing it about a month prior to planting and by subsequent repeated harrowing. Manures are also applied. The land is put into ridges and furrows and necessary channels are prepared for Irrigation before planting. These furrows are irrigated before planting. The planting is done sometime in January-February. Selected canes are cut into small sets of pieces having three eyebuds. These sets are gently pressed in the furrows already watered with the eyebuds facing sideways. Irrigation is repeated with an interval of about ten days and continued till the harvesting of the crop except rainy season. Cane planted in January-February becomes fully ripe in the same months of the following year. The canes are then cut close to the ground leaving its stubbles of about two to three inches high above the ground level, and brought to the temporarily erected shed called *gurhal* for extracting juice from it. The juice is pressed by mills, which generally include both wooden or iron-rollers and then boiled down in country pans.

Of the oil-seeds produced in the district linseed and sesamum are the most important and cover a larger proportion of the total area under oil-seeds in the district. The other minor oil-seeds grown in the district are castor and groundnut. All the oil-seeds together occupied 12.35 per cent of the gross cropped area of the district as against 8.18 per cent for the State between 1957-58 and 1959-60. Of the area under oil-seeds, *viz.*, 12.35 per cent, groundnut occupied only 0.03 per cent of the gross cropped area. The remaining of the gross cropped area, with the exception of small percentage of castor, was covered by linseed and sesamum. Linseed and sesamum are cultivated all over the district. The cultivation of sesamum and linseed is concentrated in Warora, Chandrapur and Rajura tahsils. The tables given below give the acreage under these oil-seeds and their outturn in the district between 1956-57 and 1961-62.

TABLE No. 17

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62

(Area in hectares)*

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)	Sesamum (4)	Linseed (5)	Castor (6)
Warora	1956-57 ..	19·830 (49)	16,478·004 (40,718)	21,763·204 (53,778)	149·735 (370)
	1957-58 ..	84·579 (209)	21,314·002 (52,663)	17,828·037 (44,054)	125·048 (309)
	1958-59 ..	31·161 (77)	26,654·239 (65,864)	12,431·549 (30,719)	112·098 (277)
	1959-60 ..	20·639 (61)	19,299·880 (47,691)	17,281·306 (42,703)	151·757 (375)
	1960-61 ..	4·047 (10)	23,352·406 (57,705)	12,762·178 (31,536)	124·288 (307)
	1961-62 ..	15·783 (39)	17,891·977 (44,212)	14,116·257 (34,882)	97·125 (240)
Chandrapur	1956-57 ..	103·195 (255)	8,366·883 (20,675)	9,698·705 (23,966)	56·656 (140)
	1957-58 ..	140·021 (346)	7,914·039 (19,556)	9,189·610 (22,708)	74·057 (183)
	1958-59 ..	139·617 (345)	10,405·286 (25,712)	6,552·271 (16,191)	49·372 (122)
	1959-60 ..	22·258 (55)	5,915·700 (14,618)	7,516·638 (18,574)	57·061 (141)
	1960-61 ..	40·873 (101)	10,041·474 (24,813)	4,939·59 (12,206)	51·395 (127)
	1961-62 ..	8·094 (20)	7,710·482 (19,053)	6,739·236 (16,653)	50·990 (126)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 17—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)	Sesamum (4)	Linseed (5)	Castor (6)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	19·425 (48)	116·954 (289)	5,000·705 (12,357)	118·168 (292)
	1957-58	19·830 (49)	74·057 (183)	3,764·389 (9,302)	56·656 (140)
	1958-59	11·331 (28)	137·998 (341)	3,222·110 (7,962)	49·776 (123)
	1959-60	4·451 (11)	66·368 (164)	3,557·595 (8,791)	148·924 (368)
	1960-61	1·214 (3)	57·465 (142)	3,233·036 (7,989)	138·807 (343)
	1961-62	1·214 (3)	87·412 (216)	3,494·464 (8,635)	38·040 (94)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	0·405 (1)	624·835 (1,544)	4,895·082 (12,096)	60·703 (150)
	1957-58	1·619 (4)	380·000 (939)	3,162·621 (7,815)	48·562 (120)
	1958-59	..	1,105·197 (2,731)	3,303·452 (8,163)	17·401 (43)
	1959-60	0·405 (1)	475·911 (1,176)	4,156·934 (10,272)	68·392 (169)
	1960-61	0·405 (1)	1,673·781 (4,136)	2,629·650 (6,498)	51·803 (128)
	1961-62	0·405 (1)	1,036·401 (2,561)	3,098·276 (7,656)	57·465 (142)
Sironcha	1956-57	9·308 (23)	1,628·456 (4,024)	333·056 (823)	10·926 (27)
	1957-58	4·856 (12)	1,547·924 (3,825)	333·056 (823)	11·331 (28)
	1958-59	4·451 (11)	1,609·841 (3,978)	186·965 (462)	23·876 (59)
	1959-60	4·856 (12)	847·817 (2,095)	233·099 (576)	50·586 (125)
	1960-61	1·214 (3)	2,026·667 (5,008)	135·570 (335)	37·231 (92)
	1961-62	0·405 (1)	1,435·421 (3,547)	276·400 (683)	26·305 (65)
Rajura	1959-60	17·806 (44)	5,090·545 (12,579)	8,501·239 (21,007)	37·636 (93)
	1960-61	14·164 (35)	7,996·191 (19,759)	6,568·054 (16,230)	162·279 (401)
	1961-62	2·428 (6)	5,224·901 (12,911)	6,154·465 (15,208)	37·636 (93)
District Total	1956-57	152·162 (376)	27,215·133 (67,250)	41,690·752 (103,020)	396·997 (981)
	1957-58	250·905 (620)	31,230·023 (77,171)	34,277·713 (84,702)	315·655 (780)
	1958-59	186·560 (461)	39,912·561 (98,626)	25,696·347 (63,497)	252·524 (624)
	1959-60	70·415 (174)	31,696·221 (78,323)	41,246·811 (101,923)	514·356 (1,271)
	1960-61	61·917 (153)	45,147·984 (111,563)	30,268·085 (74,794)	565·731 (1,398)
	1961-62	28·328 (70)	33,386·595 (82,500)	33,879·098 (83,717)	307·561 (760)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 18

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF OIL-SEEDS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64

(Figures in metric tonnes)*

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)	Sesamum (4)	Linseed (5)	Castor (6)
Warora	1956-57	13·208 (13)	3,048·000 (3,000)	4,591·304 (4,519)	60·960 (60)
	1957-58	40·640 (40)	3,989·832 (3,927)	4,156·456 (4,091)	46·736 (46)
	1958-59	19·304 (19)	4,988·560 (4,910)	2,619·248 (2,578)	41·656 (41)
	1959-60	12·192 (12)	3,625·088 (3,568)	4,451·096 (4,381)	56,896 (56)
	1960-61	3·048 (3)	4,370·832 (4,302)	27,762·200 (27,325)	41·656 (41)
	1961-62	6·096 (6)	2,729·992 (2,687)	3,000·248 (2,953)	40·640 (40)
	1962-63	4·064 (4)	3,950·208 (3,888)	2,527·808 (2,488)	38·608 (38)
	1963-64	19·304 (19)	3,965·448 (3,903)	2,378·456 (2,341)	35·560 (35)
Chandrapur	1956-57	54·864 (54)	1,407·160 (1,385)	2,044·192 (2,012)	21·336 (21)
	1957-58	68·072 (67)	1,028·192 (1,012)	1,936·496 (1,906)	27·432 (27)
	1958-59	84·328 (83)	1,947·672 (1,917)	1,681·480 (1,655)	18·288 (18)
	1959-60	13·208 (13)	1,111·504 (1,094)	1,936·496 (1,906)	19,304 (19)
	1960-61	24·384 (24)	1,879·600 (1,850)	10,748·264 (10,579)	19·304 (19)
	1961-62	3·048 (3)	1,018·032 (1,002)	1,596·136 (1,571)	21·336 (21)
	1962-63	5·080 (5)	2,427·224 (2,389)	1,191·448 (1,153)	14·224 (14)
	1963-64	..	1,640·840 (1,615)	1,250·696 (1,231)	13·208 (13)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	44·704 (44)	21·336 (21)	1,266·952 (1,247)	47·752 (47)
	1957-58	9·144 (9)	14·224 (14)	793·496 (781)	21·336 (21)
	1958-59	7·112 (7)	28·448 (28)	827·024 (814)	18·288 (18)
	1959-60	3·048 (3)	13·208 (13)	916·432 (902)	55·880 (55)
	1960-61	1·016 (1)	4·064 (4)	7,034·784 (6,924)	56·896 (56)
	1961-62	..	12·192 (12)	828·040 (815)	14·224 (14)
	1962-63	..	13·208 (13)	768·096 (756)	12·192 (12)
	1963-64	2·032 (2)	14·224 (14)	663·448 (653)	10·160 (10)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	..	93·472 (92)	1,030·224 (1,014)	20·320 (20)
	1957-58	1·016 (1)	60·960 (60)	639·064 (629)	18·288 (18)
	1958-59	..	247·904 (244)	691·896 (681)	17·272 (17)
	1959-60	..	161·544 (159)	1,070·864 (1,054)	15·240 (15)
	1960-61	..	312·928 (308)	5,722·112 (5,632)	19·304 (19)
	1961-62	..	157·480 (155)	733·552 (722)	21·336 (21)
	1962-63	..	227·584 (224)	780·288 (768)	21·336 (21)
	1963-64	1·016 (1)	196·088 (193)	353·568 (348)	24·384 (24)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Groundnut (3)		Sesamum (4)		Linseed (5)		Castor (6)	
Sironcha	1956-57	4·064	(4)	274·320	(270)	70·104	(69)	4·064	(4)
	1957-58	2·032	(2)	230·632	(227)	67·056	(66)	4·064	(4)
	1958-59	1·016	(1)	301·752	(297)	45·720	(45)	9·144	(9)
	1959-60	1·016	(1)	158·496	(156)	59·944	(59)	22·352	(22)
	1960-61	1·016	(1)	378·968	(373)	294·640	(290)	14·224	(14)
	1961-62	..		218·440	(215)	58·928	(58)	11·176	(11)
	1962-63	..		334·264	(329)	51·816	(51)	9·144	(9)
	1963-64	..		204·216	(201)	46·736	(46)	10·160	(10)
Rajura	1956-57	..		..		..		..	
	1957-58	..		..		..		..	
	1958-59	..		..		..		..	
	1959-60	10·160	(10)	959·104	(944)	2,148·840	(2,115)	14·224	(14)
	1960-61	8·128	(8)	1,496·568	(1,473)	14,296·136	(14,071)	60·960	(60)
	1961-62	1·016	(1)	684·784	(674)	1,456·944	(1,434)	15·240	(15)
	1962-63	3·048	(3)	1,132·840	(1,115)	1,150·112	(1,132)	14·224	(14)
	1963-64	2·032	(2)	935·736	(921)	1,120·648	(1,103)	12·192	(12)
District Total	1956-57	116·340	(115)	4,844·288	(4,768)	9,002·776	(8,861)	154·432	(152)
	1957-58	120·904	(119)	5,323·840	(5,240)	7,592·568	(7,473)	117·856	(116)
	1958-59	111·760	(110)	7,514·336	(7,396)	5,865·368	(5,773)	104·648	(103)
	1959-60	39·624	(39)	6,028·944	(5,934)	10,583·672	(10,417)	183·896	(181)
	1960-61	37·592	(37)	8,442·960	(8,310)	65,858·136	(64,821)	212·344	(209)
	1961-62	10·160	(10)	4,820·920	(4,745)	7,673·848	(7,553)	123·952	(122)
	1962-63	12·192	(12)	8,085·328	(7,958)	6,449·568	(6,348)	109·728	(108)
	1963-64	24·384	(24)	6,956·552	(6,847)	5,813·552	(5,722)	105·664	(104)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

OIL-SEEDS

Linseed.

Linseed or *alshi*, gives best result if sown in black soil having high clay and lime contents. It is also grown on light alluvial soil. Usually the crop is produced in *rabi* season. The sowing is done in October and harvesting in February-March. Linseed occupies the highest acreage in the district. This crop has been cultivated since long. The old gazetteer of the district has the following to say about it: "Linseed is a troublesome and precarious crop, but popular, since, if successful, it is a very paying investment. Like wheat, it is usually sown after juari or cotton, but unlike wheat, it is very exhausting to the soil, and it is said that no good crop, except perhaps cotton, can be obtained for two or three years from land where it has been sown. Two hundred and fifty pounds is a normal outturn."

The cultivation of the crop requires ploughing and harrowings. The land is kept ready for sowing by the end of September. The sowing is done in the month of October when the rains have almost ceased. One or two hand-weedings are done. The crop gets ready for harvesting by February. As the seeds have a tendency to shed easily, the plants are uprooted when the capsules are just ripe and begin to open. Sometimes the harvesting is done by cutting the plants close to the ground. The seeds are separated by the usual method of trampling under the feet of bullocks.

Sesamum.

Next to linseed, *til* is the most important oil-seed in the district. It is grown in both the *kharif* as well as the *rabi* season. *Rabi* sesamum is sown in the month of September as such it can be called either late *kharif* or early *rabi* sesamum. Though it is a rain-fed crop, heavy rains ruin it especially at the time when the flowers are fertilized. It is grown either in sandy light or black soil. A description in respect of the cultivation of the crop as given in the old gazetteer of the district, is as under:—

> "*Til* is sown chiefly as a spring crop; the seed is so small that it is mixed with powdered cow-dung previous to sowing to prevent an excessive quantity passing through the coulter at one time. Only one and a half or two pounds of seed are required to the acre, and the outturn is about 200 lbs. for the *kharif* and 300 lbs. for the *rabi* crop. When dry the seeds run out of the pods by the mere force of gravitation when the plant is held head downwards, so all the labour of threshing is obviated."

The method of *til* cultivation except for some improved strains, has remained more or less the same. The field is got ready by ploughing and repeated harrowings. The crop is either drilled or sown broadcast. It takes about four and a half months to ripen. *Kharif* sesamum is often followed by *rabi* gram or jowar, *udid*, etc. However, as the crop is supposed to exhaust the soil the crops that are grown after sesamum have to be well manured so as to keep the fields in good condition. White, red and black

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

OIL-SEEDS

Castor.

are the three varieties of *til* grown in the district. The average yield of *til* crop when grown pure amounts to about 300-400 lbs. per acre.

The other oil-seeds grown in the district are groundnut and castor. These are, however, minor crops and occupy very small area as compared to these described above. Amongst these two minor crops, castor is produced on a larger scale than groundnut. Its cultivation is concentrated in Warora, Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils.

Castor is grown both in *kharif* as well as *rabi* season on a variety of soils such as sandy, clayey, light alluvial loams, rough gravelly uplands, etc. There are two types of castor plants grown in the district: the annual and the perennial. The annual crop is smaller than the perennial one, it is generally grown along the irrigation water channels, on the borders of sugarcane fields, in garden lands and also bordering the chilli fields. The *kharif* castor is usually sown in June-July and gets ready for harvesting in December-January. When sown as pure crop, the castor seeds are dibbled and the distance kept between the plants is about three feet each way. The first fruits are harvested some time in December-January. The plants keep bearing for several months afterwards. The fruits are even gathered till the end of February of the next year. The fruits are then heaped up. This results in the skin of the fruit getting black. Afterwards these fruits are spread out in the sun to dry. The seeds are then beaten with sticks, winnowed and screened to remove from them husks, dry skins, etc.

The oil extracted from the castor seeds has great demand in the soap industry. It is also used for lighting purposes and for lubrication.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Chillis and coriander are the two important condiments and spices grown in the district. Of these chillis are grown all over the district and occupy the highest acreage. Turmeric and garlic occupy a very negligible area. The tables given below show the tahsil-wise area under the above-mentioned condiments and spices and their outturn during the period between 1956-57 and 1961-62.

TABLE No. 19

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62

(Area in hectares)*

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)	Turmeric (4)	Coriander (5)	Garlic (6)
Warora	1956-57	3,564·474 (8,808)	348·839 (862)	93·078 (230)	2·428 (6)
	1957-58	4,104·325 (10,142)	399·829 (988)	71·629 (177)	4·451 (11)
	1958-59	4,479·065 (11,068)	375·144 (927)	86·603 (214)	2·428 (6)
	1959-60	2,784·644 (6,881)	344·387 (851)	91·864 (227)	4·451 (11)
	1960-61	3,833·995 (9,474)	330·628 (817)	89·436 (221)	3·237 (8)
	1961-62	3,956·210 (9,776)	328·605 (812)	49·776 (123)	3·237 (8)
Chandrapur	1956-57	1,614·697 (3,990)	21·448 (53)	44·111 (109)	3·237 (8)
	1957-58	1,154·164 (2,852)	19·023 (47)	48·158 (119)	2·833 (7)
	1958-59	1,386·454 (3,426)	21·448 (53)	53·823 (133)	2·833 (7)
	1959-60	1,167·924 (2,885)	16·187 (40)	43·706 (108)	2·833 (7)
	1960-61	1,619·553 (4,002)	13·759 (34)	43·706 (108)	5·261 (13)
	1961-62	1,735·293 (4,288)	14·164 (35)	42·087 (104)	5·261 (13)
Brahmapuri	*1956-57*	*980·959 (2,424)*	*31·970 (79)*	*87·412 (216)*	*1·214 (3)*
	1957-58	*910·139 (2,249)*	*40·469 (100)*	*63·536 (157)*	*0·809 (2)*
	1958-59	*891·118 (2,202)*	*36·017 (89)*	*57·465 (142)*	*0·809 (2)*
	1959-60	*506·667 (1,252)*	*27·114 (67)*	*71·629 (177)*	*1·618 (4)*
	1960-61	622·812 (1,539)	19·020 (47)	56·656 (140)	1·214 (3)
	1961-62	269·925 (667)	13·759 (34)	72·034 (178)	1·214 (3)
Gadchiroli	1956-57	1,255·741 (3,103)	0·405 (1)	70·011 (173)	0·405 (1)
	1957-58	1,094·676 (2,705)	0·405 (1)	53·823 (133)	1·214 (3)
	1958-59	1,278·808 (3,160)	0·405 (1)	49·372 (122)	0·405 (1)
	1959-60	833·653 (2,060)	0·809 (2)	46·539 (115)	1·618 (4)
	1960-61	1,152·141 (2,847)	0·405 (1)	50·990 (126)	1·214 (3)
	1961-62	968·009 (2,392)	0·405 (1)	66·773 (165)	1·214 (3)
Sironcha	1956-57	254·547 (629)	3·642 (9)	9·308 (23)	..
	1957-58	199·510 (493)	4·451 (11)	14·973 (37)	..
	1958-59	248·072 (613)	2·428 (6)	11·736 (29)	..
	1959-60	212·055 (524)	2·023 (5)	13·355 (33)	..
	1960-61	361·384 (893)	1·619 (4)	8·498 (21)	..
	1961-62	392·140 (969)	2·023 (5)	5·261 (13)	..

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)		Coriander (5)		Garlic (6)		Turmeric (4)	
Rajura	1959-60	1,086·177	(2,684)	0·809	(2)	..		3·642	(9)
	1960-61	2,364·176	(5,842)	1·214	(3)	..		..	
	1961-62	2,627·626	(6,493)	6·880	(17)	..		1·619	(4)
District Total ..	1956-57	7,670·418	(18,954)	303·919	(751)	7·284	(18)	406·305	(1,004)
	1957-58	7,462·814	(18,441)	252·119	(623)	9·308	(23)	464·175	(1,147)
	1958-59	8,283·113	(20,468)	258·999	(640)	6·475	(16)	435·442	(1,076)
	1959-60	6,591·121	(16,287)	267·902	(662)	10·522	(26)	394·164	(974)
	1960-61	9,954·061	(24,597)	266·283	(658)	10·926	(27)	365·431	(903)
	1961-62	9,949·205	(24,585)	242·811	(600)	10·926	(27)	360·575	(891)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 20.

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)	Turmeric (4)
Warora	1956-57	1,806·448 (1,778)	..
	1957-58	1,544·320 (1,520)	..
	1958-59	1,678·432 (1,652)	701·040 (690)
	1959-60	1,047·496 (1,031)	638·048 (628)
	1960-61	1,488·440 (1,465)	670·560 (660)
	1961-62	1,322·832 (1,302)	673·608 (663)
	1962-63	1,810·512 (1,782)	695·960 (685)
	1963-64	1,976·120 (1,945)	642·112 (632)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57	895·096 (881)	..
	1957-58	438·912 (432)	..
	1958-59	636·016 (626)	30·480 (30)
	1959-60	483·616 (476)	30·480 (30)
	1960-61	681·736 (671)	30·480 (30)
	1961-62	892·048 (878)	32·512 (32)
	1962-63	802·640 (790)	30·480 (30)
	1963-64	837·184 (824)	30·480 (30)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57	553·720 (545)	..
	1957-58	392·176 (386)	..
	1958-59	458·216 (451)	67·056 (66)
	1959-60	221·488 (218)	44·704 (44)
	1960-61	296·672 (292)	33·528 (33)
	1961-62	143·250 (141)	28·448 (28)
	1962-63	325·120 (320)	26·416 (26)
	1963-64	300·736 (296)	27·432 (27)
Gadhchiroli ..	1956-57	954·024 (939)	..
	1957-58	876·808 (863)	..
	1958-59	1,259·840 (1,240)	..
	1959-60	1,398·016 (1,376)	1·016 (1)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Chillis (3)	Turmeric (4)
Gadhchiroli—*contd.*	1960-61	963·168 (948)	1·016 (1)
	1961-62	972·312 (957)	..
	1962-63	1,090·168 (1,073)	..
	1963-64	991·616 (976)	1·016 (1)
Sironcha ..	1956-57	186·944 (184)	..
	1957-58	130·048 (128)	..
	1958-59	154·432 (152)	4·064 (4)
	1959-60	19·304 (19)	3·048 (3)
	1960-61	157·480 (155)	3·048 (3)
	1961-62	247·904 (244)	4·064 (4)
	1962-63	217·424 (214)	..
	1963-64	223·520 (220)	6·096 (6)
Rajura	1956-57	..	..
	1957-58	..	..
	1958-59	..	..
	1959-60	258·064 (254)	7·112 (7)
	1960-61	1,017·016 (1,001)	..
	1961-62	1,121·664 (1,104)	2·032 (2)
	1962-63	1,058·672 (1,042)	..
	1963-64	1,059 688 (1,043)	2·032 (2)
District Total ..	1956-57	4,396·232 (4,327)	..
	1957-58	3,382·264 (3,329)	..
	1958-59	4,186·936 (4,121)	802·640 (790)
	1959-60	3,427·984 (3,374)	724·408 (7713)
	1960-61	4,604·512 (4,532)	738·632 (727)
	1961-62	4,700·016 (4,626)	740·664 (729)
	1962-63	5,304·536 (5,221)	752·856 (741)
	1963-64	5,388·864 (5,304)	709·168 (698)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. CONDIMENTS AND SPICES. Chillis.

The cultivation of chilli is concentrated in Warora and Rajura tahsils. The crop is very popular due to its pungency. It can be grown on a variety of soils and under a wide range of climatic conditions. However, loamy and black soils are best suited for successful cultivation. Well manured lateric soils also yield good results. The chilli crop is usually grown in *kharif* season as a single crop. Often it can be grown as a subordinate crop to the other garden crops.

The seedlings are first raised in a nursery and when they are about 8 to 10 inches high, they are transplanted in the field which is kept thoroughly cultivated and well-manured. This transplantation is done after the monsoon sets in. The distance between the two plants and that between the two rows is abou two feet. When the p'ants are well-established the soil is gently unearthed. A little quantity of manure, ash, etc., is applied to every plant. Under normal conditions, after about three months from planting, the first few fruits are formed. The fruits are picked for another three to four months, with the interval of about ten to fifteen days. Both, green as well as red chillis are harvested. *Lavangi* and *bhivapuri* are the common varieties produced in the district.

FIBRES.

The fibres in the district include mostly cotton and sann-hemp. Sann-hemp is grown throughout the district, while the cultivation of cotton is concentrated in Warora, Rajura and Chandrapur tahsils. Ambadi is another fibre crop which, however, occupied a very negligible area in the district. The tables given below give tahsil-wise area under fibres and their outturn during the period between 1956-57 and 1963-64.

TABLE No. 21

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER FIBRES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann-Hemp (4)	Ambadi (5)
Warora	1956-57	14,127·183 (34,909)	114·121 (282)	..
	1957-58	14,605·118 (36,090)	75·212 (186)	0·405 (1)
	1958-59	14,057·173 (34,736)	92·268 (223)	..
	1959-60	10,909·525 (26,958)	44·920 (111)	14·973 (37)
	1960-61	13,126·800 (32,437)	54·633 (135)	11·736 (29)
	1961-62	14,484·117 (35,791)	56·251 (139)	29·947 (74)
	1962-63	13,771·869 (34,031)	31·565 (78)	3·237 (8)
	1963-64	16,346·481 (40,393)	31·161 (77)	5·261 (13)
Chandrapur	1956-57	1,475·485 (3,646)	78·104 (193)	2·833 (7)
	1957-58	1,000·384 (2,472)	72·439 (179)	2·023 (5)
	1958-59	743·408 (1,837)	76·890 (190)	1·214 (3)
	1959-60	284·089 (702)	53·419 (132)	2·428 (6)
	1960-61	328·200 (811)	58·679 (145)	13·355 (33)
	1961-62	483·600 (1,195)	63·131 (156)	0·809 (2)
	1962-63	663·685 (1,640)	44·920 (111)	0·619 (4)
	1963-64	54 ·968 (1,359)	56·251 (139)	2 833 (7)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	..	85·389 (211)	2·428 (6)
	1957-58	..	47·753 (118)	0·809 (2)
	1958-59	4·047 (10)	63·131 (156)	0·809 (2)
	1959-60	..	50·181 (124)	1·619 (4)
	1960-61	..	44·111 (109)	2·428 (6)
	1961-62	..	34·398 (85)	3·642 (9)
	1962-63	..	15·378 (38)	3·237 (8)
	1963-64	..	38·040 (94)	3·237 (8)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	8·948 (21)	58·275 (144)	2·833 (7)
	1957-58	9·308 (23)	58·275 (144)	2·833 (7)
	1958-59	2·428 (6)	76·081 (188)	1·619 (4)
	1959-60	0·405 (1)	48·158 (119)	2·023 (5)
	1960-61	0·809 (2)	51·395 (127)	4·047 (10)
	1961-62	3·237 (8)	49·776 (123)	6·070 (15)
	1962-63	0·405 (1)	39·659 (98)	4·856 (12)
	1963-64	1·214 (3)	30·750 (76)	16·997 (42)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann-Hemp (4)	Ambadi (5)
Sironcha	1956-57	..	25·090 (62)	..
	1957-58	0·809 (2)	21·044 (52)	2·043 (5)
	1958-59	..	25·900 (64)	2·833 (7)
	1959-60	..	12·141 (30)	0·809 (2)
	1960-61	..	14·569 (36)	12·141 (30)
	1961-62	..	21·044 (52)	0·405 (1)
	1962-63	..	8·094 (20)	1·619 (4)
	1963-64	..	12·950 (32)	1·214 (3)
Rajura	1956-57	..	..	..
	1957-58	..	..	..
	1958-59	..	..	..
	1959-60	10,682·496 (26,397)	104·004 (257)	298·658 (738)
	1960-61	11,756·533 (29,051)	264·664 (654)	337·103 (833)
	1961-62	12,013·913 (29,687)	296·635 (733)	559·276 (1,382)
	1962-63	*12,372·465 (30,573)*	*258·999 (640)*	*231·480 (572)*
	1963-64	*12,407·672 (30,660)*	*227·433 (562)*	*234·718 (580)*
District Total	1956-57	15,611·167 (38,576)	360·980 (892)	8·094 (20)
	1957-58	15,615·618 (38,587)	274·782 (679)	8·903 (22)
	1958-59	14,807·056 (36,589)	334·270 (826)	7·284 (18)
	1959-60	21,876·516 (54,058)	312·822 (773)	320·511 (792)
	1960-61	25,212·342 (62,301)	488·051 (1,206)	380·809 (941)
	1961-62	26,984·867 (66,681)	521·235 (1,288)	600·149 (1,483)
	1962-63	26,808·424 (66,245)	398·615 (985)	246·049 (608)
	1963-64	29,305·336 (72,415)	396·592 (980)	263·855 (652)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 22

TAHSIL-WISE OUTTURN OF FIBRES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

(Figures in metric tonnes)*

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)		Sann Hemp (4)		Ambadi (5)	
Warora	1956-57	14,622·272	(14,392)	48·768	(48)	..	
	1957-58	16,825·976	(16,561)	28·448	(28)	..	
	1958-59	2,835·656	(2,791)	24·384	(24)	..	
	1959-60	1,657·096	(1,631)	14·224	(14)	4·064	(4)
	1960-61	18,917·920	(18,620)	18·288	(18)	3·048	(3)
	1961-62	2,227·072	(2,192)	20·320	(20)	8·128	(8)
	1962-63	2,435·352	(2,396)	10·160	(10)	1·016	(1)
	1963-64	9,984·232	(9,826)	10·160	(10)	1·016	(1)
Chandrapur	1956-57	1,524·000	(1,500)	17·272	(17)	1·016	(1)
	1957-58	1,153·160	(1,135)	27·432	(27)	1·016	(1)
	1958-59	154·432	(152)	28·448	(28)	..	
	1959-60	35·560	(35)	18·288	(18)	1·016	(1)
	1960-61	473·456	(466)	23·368	(23)	4·064	(4)
	1961-62	86·360	(85)	25·400	(25)	..	
	1962-63	98·552	(97)	15·240	(15)	1·016	(1)
	1963-64	34·544	(34)	18·288	(18)	1·016	(1)
Brahmapuri	1956-57	..		20·320	(20)	1·016	(1)
	1957-58	..		13·208	(13)	..	
	1958-59	1·016	(1)	28·448	(28)	..	
	1959-60	..		18·288	(18)	1·016	(1)
	1960-61	..		16·256	(16)	1·016	(1)
	1961-62	..		14·224	(14)	1·016	(1)
	1962-63	..		5·080	(5)	1·016	(1)
	1963-64	..		13·208	(13)	1·016	(1)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	9·144	(9)	18·288	(18)	1·016	(1)
	1957-58	10·160	(10)	21·336	(21)	1·016	(1)
	1958-59	..		34·544	(34)	1·016	(1)
	1959-60	..		18·288	(18)	1·016	(1)
	1960-61	..		21·336	(21)	1·016	(1)
	1961-62	..		20·320	(20)	2·032	(2)
	1962-63	..		13·208	(13)	2·032	(2)
	1963-64	..		10·160	(10)	4·064	(4)

* Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

TABLE No. 22—*contd.*

(*Figures in metric tonnes**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Cotton (3)	Sann-Hemp (4)	Ambadi (5)
Sironcha	1956-57	..	11·176 (11)	..
	1957-58	..	8·128 (8)	1·016 (1)
	1958-59	..	10·160 (10)	1·016 (1)
	1959-60	..	4·064 (4)	..
	1960-61	..	5·080 (5)	..
	1961-62	..	8·128 (8)	..
	1962-63	..	2·032 (2)	1·016 (1)
	1963-64	..	4·064 (4)	..
Rajura	1956-57	..	..	..
	1957-58	..	..	..
	1958-59	..	..	..
	1959-60	1,617·472 (1,592)	4·064 (4)	83·312 (82)
	1960-61	16,940·784 (16,674)	97·536 (96)	94·488 (93)
	1961-62	1,847·088 (1,818)	111·760 (110)	143·256 (141)
	1962-63	*1,900·936 (1,871)*	*83·312 (82)*	*58·928 (58)*
	1963-64	695·960 (685)	76·200 (75)	59·944 (59)
District Total	1956-57	*16,155·416 (15,901)*	*115·824* (114)	3·048 (3)
	1957-58	17,989·296 (17,706)	98·552 (97)	3·048 (3)
	1958-59	2,991·104 (2,944)	125·984 (124)	2·032 (2)
	1959-60	3,310·128 (3,258)	77·216 (76)	90·424 (89)
	1960-61	36,332·160 (35,760)	181·864 (179)	103·632 (102)
	1961-62	4,160·520 (4,095)	1,200·152 (197)	154·432 (152)
	1962-63	4,433·824 (4,364)	129·032 (127)	65·024 (64)
	1963-64	10,713·720 (10,545)	132·080 (130)	67·056 (66)

*Figures in brackets indicate outturn in tonnes.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

FIBRES.

COTTON.

Of the three cotton producing tahsils in the district Warora stands first, where in 1963-64 alone, cotton was grown over an area of 16346.481 hectares (40,393 acres). In the Chandrapur tahsil in the same year, cotton occupied only 349.968 hectares (1,359 acres). Next to Warora, the highest acreage under cotton was in Rajura tahsil 12407.673 hectares (30,660 acres). Cotton forms the most important cash crop of these tahsils.

Cotton grows best in deep black and medium and lighter type of soils which are well drained. It requires moderate raintall ranging between 508 and 762 mm: (20 and 30 inches). Its tillage consists of a ploughing and two or three heavy harrowings prior to monsoon. Farmyard manure and other fertilisers are also applied. The sowing is done between June and July when there is sufficient moisture due to the monsoon. The spacing between the two rows varies from 1½ to 3 feet and that between two plants about a foot. One or two hand weedings are done.

Generally early varieties are grown in the district. Their flowering starts mostly by the end of August or in the beginning of September. The balls open towards the end of October and *kapas* is picked during November-December. In all, three to four successive pickings are done with an interval of 15 days. The cotton is then put on regulated markets. After cotton, *kharif jowar* mostly grown mixed with *udid* is produced. During the third year some oil-seeds or other cereals are cultivated. The pests and diseases which affect this crop are described under the section "pests and diseases", in this chapter.

Sann-hemp.

Sann-hemp is grown all over the district. However, it is mainly cultivated in Rajura, Warora and Chandrapur tahsils. In 1963-64, in Rajura tahsil, sann-hemp was grown over an area of 227.433 hectares (562 acres). The other two tahsils together covered an area of 87.412 hectares (216 acres) during the same year. The crop is usually grown in tracts having moderate rainfall and in soils of various types such as clayey loams, black and lateritic. It is generally grown in *khrif* season. Sann-hemp is cultivated for the production of fibre and also as a green manure crop. When it is grown for fibre, it is sown after the first heavy showers of monsoon. The crop grows very fast and thereby suppresses the growth of weeds. It becomes ready for harvest after about four and a half months. The stalks are cut close to the ground at the time of pod setting and exposed to the sun for about a week when its leaves are stripped off. The stalks are then tied into small bundles and placed in water until the bark is well retted. The stalks are then taken out and the bark is peeled off in long strips, which are beaten on the stone and washed in water to obtain fibre.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS.

Mango and orange are the only important fruits grown in the district. Although mango trees are found all over the district, its cultivation is concentrated in Gadhchiroli, Chandrapur and Sironcha tahsils. Oranges are mainly grown in Brahmapuri tahsil. Guavas occupy a negligible area. In 1961-62 guavas were grown over an area of 23.472 hectares (58 acres) only. The following table gives tahsil-wise area under fruits in the district from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

TABLE No. 23

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER FRUITS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Mango (3)		Sweet lime (4)		Orange (5)		Guava (6)	
Warora	1956-57	31·970	(79)	0·405	(1)	33·589	(83)	10·117	(25)
	1957-58	31·161	(77)	0·809	(2)	36·017	(89)	10·117	(25)
	1958-59	28·328	(70)	0·405	(1)	34·803	(86)	8·094	(20)
	1959-60	29·947	(74)	0·809	(2)	29·137	(72)	7·689	(19)
	1960-61	31·161	(77)	0·809	(2)	28·733	(71)	..	
	1961-62	30·351	(75)	0·809	(2)	28·328	(70)	8·094	(20)
Chandrapur	1956-57	133·951	(331)	3·237	(8)	34·398	(85)	4·451	(11)
	1957-58	121·001	(299)	2·428	(6)	33·184	(82)	7·689	(19)
	1958-59	125·453	(310)	1·214	(3)	31·565	(78)	6·880	(17)
	1959-60	133·546	(330)	2·428	(6)	30·756	(76)	8·498	(21)
	1960-61	139·617	(345)	2·833	(7)	26·709	(66)	..	
	1961-62	91·054	(225)	1·214	(3)	26·709	(66)	7·284	(18)
Brahmapuri	*1956-57 .. ..*	*78·104*	*(193)*	*3·642*	*(9)*	*91·054*	*(225)*	*4·451*	*(11)*
	1957-58	*82·556*	*(204)*	*2·833*	*(7)*	*88·221*	*(218)*	*4·451*	*(11)*
	1958-59	*82·151*	*(203)*	*3·237*	*(8)*	*80·128*	*(198)*	*3·642*	(9)
	1959-60	*82·961*	*(205)*	*2·833*	*(7)*	*80·937*	*(200)*	*4·047*	(10)
	1960-61	77·295	(191)	2·833	(7)	77·295	(191)	..	
	1961-62	81·342	(201)	2·428	(6)	60·703	(150)	8·094	(20)
Gadhchiroli	1956-57	231·885	(573)	0·405	(1)	4·856	(12)	2·023	(5)
	1957-58	239·574	(592)	0·809	(2)	4·856	(12)	2·428	(6)
	1958-59	255·357	(631)	0·405	(1)	5·261	(13)	2·023	(5)
	1959-60	222·172	(549)	0·405	(1)	3·642	(9)	2·833	(7)
	1960-61	247·263	(611)	0·405	(1)	3·237	(8)	6·070	(15)
	1961-62	237·550	(587)	0·405	(1)	7·284	(18)	..	
Sironcha	1956-57	12·950	(32)	..		0·405	(1)	..	
	1957-58	12·545	(31)	..		0·809	(2)	..	
	1958-59	12·141	(30)	..		0·809	(2)	..	
	1959-60	14·469	(36)	..		0·405	(1)	..	
	1960-61	12·545	(31)	..		..		..	
	1961-62	14·973	(37)	..		..		..	

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 24

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER VEGETABLES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1961-62.

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Sweet Potato (3)		Onion (4)		Cabbage (5)		Brinjal (6)		Tomato (7)		Bhendi (8)	
Warora ..	1956-57	11·736	(29)	33·589	(83)	12·141	(30)	34·398	(85)	22·258	(55)	15·378	(38)
	1957-58	12·545	(31)	35·208	(87)	16·187	(40)	37·231	(92)	20·137	(72)	6·070	(15)
	1958-59	20·639	(51)	44·920	(111)	16·997	(42)	48·967	(121)	14·973	(37)	8·498	(21)
	1959-60	14·164	(35)	53·419	(132)	12·950	(32)	52·204	(129)	13·355	(33)	9·308	(23)
	1960-61	14·164	(35)	50·990	(126)	13·355	(33)	54·633	(135)	13·759	(34)	7·284	(18)
	1961-62	13·759	(34)	44·920	(111)	12·950	(32)	40·467	(100)	27·519	(66)	15·783	(39)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57	39·659	(98)	62·726	(155)	5·666	(14)	86·198	(213)	8·094	(20)	17·806	(44)
	1957-58	31·565	(78)	50·990	(126)	10·926	(27)	77·295	(191)	20·234	(50)	4·856	(12)
	1958-59	40·467	(100)	57·465	(142)	9·712	(24)	107·646	(266)	15·378	(38)	12·141	(30)
	1959-60	43·706	(108)	72·843	(180)	5·261	(13)	114·931	(284)	9·712	(24)	4·047	(10)
	1960-61	46·943	(116)	62·726	(155)	4·047	(10)	98·339	(243)	14·164	(35)	5·261	(13)
	1961-62	44·111	(109)	59·489	(147)	7·284	(18)	90·650	(224)	5·666	(14)	8·498	(21)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57	34·398	(85)	56·656	(140)	4·856	(12)	146·901	(363)	27·519	(68)	6·070	(15)
	1957-58	25·900	(64)	57·870	(143)	7·284	(18)	197·891	(489)	30·351	(75)	11·736	(29)
	1958-59	37·231	(92)	77·295	(191)	6·880	(17)	255·357	(631)	26·609	(66)	11·736	(29)
	1959-60	29·947	(74)	84·984	(210)	8·498	(21)	193·440	(478)	31·970	(79)	10·926	(27)
	1960-61	31·161	(77)	82·151	(203)	6·475	(16)	184·537	(456)	33·994	(84)	6·880	(17)
	1961-62	21·448	(53)	79·318	(196)	15·783	(39)	133·142	(329)	13·355	(33)	11·331	(28)
Gadhchiroli ..	1956-57	31·970	(79)	33·994	(84)	4·451	(11)	17·806	(44)	4·451	(11)	3·642	(9)
	1957-58	33·589	(83)	32·779	(81)	7·690	(19)	25·495	(63)	3·642	(9)	3·642	(9)
	1958-59	33·589	(83)	34·803	(86)	9·712	(24)	35·208	(87)	3·642	(9)	2·833	(7)
	1959-60	35·612	(88)	49·776	(123)	7·690	(19)	38·445	(95)	2·833	(7)	2·023	(5)
	1960-61	40·467	(100)	39·254	(97)	6·070	(15)	48·967	(121)	4·047	(10)	2·428	(6)
	1961-62	43·301	(107)	37·636	(93)	3·237	(8)	16·187	(40)	4·856	(12)	4·451	(11)
Sironcha ..	1956-57	5·666	(14)	14·569	(36)	..		0·809	(2)	..		..	
	1957-58	4·047	(10)	16·997	(42)	..		2·023	(5)	..		..	
	1958-59	4·451	(11)	15·378	(38)	0·405	(1)	3·237	(8)	..		..	
	1959-60	4·047	(10)	16·187	(40)	0·405	(1)	2·833	(7)	0·405	(1)	..	
	1960-61	5·666	(14)	17·401	(43)	..		4·856	(12)	..		..	
	1961-62	3·642	(9)	14·973	(37)	0·809	(2)	6·070	(15)	3·642	(9)	..	

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 23—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares**)

Tahsil	Year	Mango	Orange	Sweet lime	Guava
(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(4)	(6)
Rajura	1959-60	9·712 (24)	7·689 (19)	2·023 (5)	1·214 (3)
	1960-61	2·428 (6)	4·856 (12)	..	4·451 (11)
	1961-62	0·809 (2)	5·665 (14)	..	..
District Total ..	1956-57	488·860 (1,208)	164·302 (406)	7·689 (19)	21·044 (52)
	1957-58	486·837 (1,203)	163·088 (403)	6·880 (17)	24·686 (61)
	1958-59	503·429 (1,244)	152·566 (377)	5·261 (13)	20·639 (57)
	1959-60	492·907 (1,218)	152·566 (377)	8·498 (21)	22·662 (56)
	1960-61	510·309 (1,261)	140·831 (348)	6·880 (17)	10·522 (26)
	1961-62	456·081 (1,127)	128·693 (318)	4·856 (12)	23·472 (58)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Mango being a deep rooted crop, requires deep and well drained soils. It thrives best on alluvial soil. Mango is an evergreen tree and is adaptable to a very wide range of climate. However, severe cold, cloudy weather and rains at the time of flowering are detrimental. In 1961-62, mango cultivation occupied 577.487 hectares (1,427 acres) in the district of which Gadhchiroli tahsil occupied 237.550 hectares (587 acres) and Rajura only 0.809 hectares (2 acres).

For cultivating mango trees, either the seedlings are grown or for better variety the grafting method is followed. A pit of the size of 3′×3′ is dug keeping a distance of about 12.192 m. (40 feet) between two plants in the case of a mango garden. The pit is filled up with good soil and farm yard manure. If the grafted seedling is planted, the bud joint is always kept above the surface. The planting is generally done in the beginning of monsoon. Fencing and regular watering for about three years after plantation is necessary. *Rayval, pairi* and *nilam* are the varieties grown in the district. The trees bear fruits five to seven years after plantation. Usually tree starts flowering in January-February. The fruits take about three and a half months to ripen. Matured fruits are picked up and exposed to air for sometime and then are ripened by being kept in straw. Generally the ripe mangoes change their colour from green to reddish yellow. The season of the ripe mangoes is extended till the end of May. Pickle, *gulamba*, and *amboshi* are prepared from green mangoes while mango juice, *ambras* is the popular dish prepared from the ripe mango.

Orange.

Orange is another important fruit crop grown mostly in Brahmapuri, Warora and Chanda tahsils in the district. Its cultivation is, however, limited to a small area. Nowadays various agriculturists bring seedlings from Nagpur which stands above all in cultivating the finest variety popularly known as Nagpur *santra*. The crop gives best result if grown in loose, loamy and well-drained soils and in the area having dry and hot climate. The seedlings of *jamburi* are raised for about a year, in the nursery beds and budded in the fair weather after transplanting in rows in the nursery. When the buds are established, implantation is carried out in pits generally of the size of 393.290 cubic centimetres (2 cubic feet). The distance between the two plants on all sides varies from 4.572 to 6.096 m. (15 to 20 feet). The pits are to be filled up with good soil and farm yard manure. It requires regular watering after ten days. The orange tree starts bearing after about four years and yields fruit for another twenty years. The fruit is very well used as dessert, or table fruit and also for its delicious juice.

VEGETABLES.

Brinjal, onion and sweet potato are the important vegetables grown in the district. Their cultivation is concentrated in Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils. The minor vegetables include tomato, *bhendi* and cabbage. The table given below gives tahsil-wise area under vegetables from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

TABLE No. 24—*contd.*

(*Area in hectares*)*

Tahsil	Year	Sweet Potato	Onion	Cabbage	Brinjal	Tomato	Bhendi
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Rajura ..	1959-60	..	1·214 (3)	..	2·428 (6)	..	33·589 (83)
	1960-61	..	2·023 (5)	0·809 (2)	16·187 (40)	0·809 (2)	..
	1961-62	..	3·642 (9)	1·214 (3)	50·586 (125)	..	6·475 (16)
District Total..	1956-57	123·429 (305)	201·533 (498)	27·114 (67)	286·113 (707)	62·322 (154)	42·897 (106)
	1957-58	107·646 (266)	193·844 (479)	42·087 (104)	339·936 (840)	83·365 (206)	26·304 (65)
	1958-59	136·379 (337)	229·861 (563)	43·706 (108)	450·415 (1,113)	60·703 (150)	35·208 (87)
	1959-60	127·476 (315)	278·424 (688)	34·803 (86)	404·281 (999)	58·275 (144)	59·893 (148)
	1960-61	138·402 (342)	254·547 (629)	30·756 (76)	407·519 (1,007)	66·773 (165)	21·853 (54)
	1961-62	126·262 (312)	239·979 (593)	41·278 (102)	337·103 (833)	55·037 (136)	46·539 (115)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Brinjal.

Vange or brinjal is one of the most important green vegetables grown in the district. In 1961-62 it occupied an area of 337.103 hectares (833 acres) in the district. It gives best results if grown on medium brown and deep soil. First, seeds are sown in a nursery and are transplanted after about four to five weeks. Though sometimes brinjal crop is cultivated as a *kharif* crop, it is mostly produced after the monsoon is over. When grown as *kharif* crop sowing of seeds is done in August and in *rabi* season the sowing is done in February. The land is well ploughed and harrowed and made into beds or ridges and furrows. The distance kept round a plant varies between two and three feet. Farm yard manure is also applied. Irrigation is given immediately after the transplanting. Further irrigation is given regularly at an interval of about ten days.

The brinjal plant starts bearing fruit three months after transplantation and the harvesting takes another three months. The popular varieties found in the district are round or a little long purple and reddish white variety. The fruit is extensively used as vegetable.

Onion.

Onion is the next important crop grown in the district. The onion bulbs and its young leaves are used as vegetables, especially the bulbs are extensively used in various dishes. The crop can be grown on a variety of soils such as rich, sandy or medium black and black clayey loams. Heavy rainfall is detrimental to its growth. The land is well harrowed and made into ridges and beds. The seeds are first sown in nursery beds sometime in October-November and are transplanted after about four weeks. Prior to transplanting, the beds are irrigated. The seedlings are then transplanted at a distance of four to five inches in rows and about ten inches apart. Irrigation is given regularly after every 8 to 10 days. The crop becomes mature within three months after transplanting and the bulbs are gently lifted with the help of a light small spade.

Sweet potato.

Sweet potato, is grown all over the district except Rajura tahsil. In 1961-62, it occupied an area of 126.262 hectares (312 acres). The crop can be grown on a variety of soils such as light sandy, loamy as well as well-drained or medium deep type. The crop is generally produced in *rabi* season. The land is first well ploughed and harrowed and made into ridges and furrows. The crop is then propagated by cuttings having about three nodes of the old vines. These cuttings are planted on both sides of the ridges. Regular irrigations are given. Sweet potato, matures within a period of about five months. Red and white are the two varieties of the crop. The tubers are eaten raw, roasted, or boiled, and form a favourite dish on fast days. The vines are fed to cattle.

LIVE-STOCK.

Since long, agriculture in the district is dependent on the draught animals which mainly consist of plough bullocks and he-buffaloes. There is no special breed of cattle in the district.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK.

The introduction of special breeds like *gaolao* is a recent development started during the last fifteen years. In the first quarter of the twentieth century the cattle-wealth of the district was far from satisfactory. During that period the breed of cattle found in the district was small and poor. In the forests where plenty of grazing facilities were available breeding for sale in the neighbouring districts was carried on extensively. However, there was no selection and immature bulls were allowed to stay with the herds. The castration which was usually effected very late by Mangs and Gonds, was carried out with cruel methods such as by pounding with a stone. The fee generally charged by the Gonds and Mangs was an anna or two or a free meal. In 1902, an annual grant of Rs. 300 was sanctioned by the Government to be disbursed in prizes to cattle-breeders at the Mahakali fair which is still held annually at Chanda. The intention was to encourage the people to adopt more systematic selection and early castration. But all such efforts then met with little success. Subsequently the grant was also withdrawn.

The plough cattle of the district were then broadly classified into two groups *viz.*, (1) the *mahurpatti* group and (2) the *Telangpatti* group. The former were good-sized and strongly built and were suitable for work in the open fields of the jowar growing country. They were found in great numbers in Warora tahsil. A pair of good plough bullocks of this breed used to cost from Rs. 100 to Rs. 200 and a good cow from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50. The *Telangpatti* breed, on the other hand, was of much smaller build and was usually reserved for rice cultivation. The cost of a pair of good bullocks of this breed ranged from Rs. 60 to Rs. 125, while the cost of a cow varied between Rs. 10 and Rs. 30. The life of an ordinary pair of plough bullocks was about 10 to 12 years in the open-field country, but in the rice fields the usual duration of life was only about five years.

The grazing facilities in the areas covered by forests were satisfactory. "Plough cattle", writes Mr. Hemingway "are as a rule well fed and tended; in the rice tracts there is excellent grazing, and cattle are well fed the whole year round; in the open tracts also with one exception, there seems no lack of good fodder; all the period that the cattle are working they are fed with *bhusa* and the husks from the threshing-floor. During the hot weather, the cattle are kept out in the fields at the *mandwas* that tenants construct on their holdings and where they themselves live during the hot weather. The *karbi* of juari is an invaluable cattle food in these tracts; and the surplus that tenants do not require for their own cattle finds a ready sale in the local bazar. The one exception above referred to is the open tract at the bend of the Wainganga north of Bramhapuri, where the cropping is very close indeed; there is practically no waste land in the village, and cattle appear to be muzzled when loose until the month of April, when there is little for them to find in the fields. In this tract, tenants are content with the very thinnest and oldest cattle that they can procure; they seem perfectly happy if they get a full season's work out of their pair, before the latter expire, and new cattle of equally little value take their place."

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK.

In Warora and Brahmapuri well-to-do *malguzars* and tenants used to feed salt to their cattle five times a year; the amount given was one or one and a half *chittacks* at a time to plough cattle, and half a *chittack* to other cattle. The practice of feeding salt to cattle was more or less common in the district.

Cows were kept for the sake of milk, ghee and also for manure. In the eastern half of the district, almost every village had large herds of cows and other cattle. They were also kept for breeding purposes. In the *zamindari* and wild tracts, the Sao Teli and Gonds were in the habit of ploughing the fields with cows.

In the interior parts buffaloes were freely used in cultivation. Generally they were used in rice cultivation to drag the *khirli* or sledge and the *phan* or harrow. In the Wainganga valley, the *zamindaris* and the villages around the Chandrapur town buffaloes were extensively kept for the sake of ghee. Many of the buffaloes were brought from Wardha. In Sironcha tahsil a fine breed of buffaloes was produced and exported to Nellore in Madras. The price of a male buffalo varied between Rs. 15 and Rs. 16 and that of a she-buffalo Rs. 30 and Rs. 50.

Horses and ponies were very few in number and poor in quality. The *malguzars* and other persons of note used to travel in *rengis* drawn by bullocks.

Large flocks of goats and sheep were reared in the district. The sheep were generally kept by Dhangars and Kuramwars for the sake of wool, while goats were designed chiefly for food. Both goats and sheep were then valued for the sake of their manure. The price of a goat was Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 and of sheep Rs. 2. In Sironcha there was a special breed of sheep known as *dhor mundi* or the Godavari sheep.

In 1906-07 the most important cattle markets of the district were held at Warora, Madheri, Chimur Jambulghata, Bhandak, Nawargaon, Gangalwadi, Chandrapur, Rajgarh, Dabha, Kunghada-Talodhi and Nandgaon. The cattle were brought from the big Wun fair to the annual Mahakali fair at Chandrapur. In Sironcha tahsil also some cattle were brought to the weekly bazar at Asaralli.

The total number of agricultural stock during 1906-07 was returned as shown below:—

Bulls and bullocks	...	204,712
Cows	...	261,936
He-buffaloes	...	22,654
She-buffaloes	...	77,692
Young-stock	...	172,534

Sheep	...	43,111
Goats	...	96,220
Horses and ponies	...	988
Mules	...	1
Donkeys	...	169

Among the cattle diseases *sad* and *tadak phansi* (anthrax) *pai khuri* and *tondi khuri* (foot-and-mouth disease), *mata* (rinderpest) and *dukria* or *ghatsarap* (haemorrhagic septicaemia) affected the cattle most and very often caused heavy losses.

After Independence and especially after the introduction of the community development programme the live-stock in the district is being improved, as a result of the spread of animal husbandry activities. In the district today there are 14 full-fledged veterinary dispensaries. In addition, there are 38 veterinary aid centres. The veterinary officers, extension officers for animal husbandry and the stockmen carry out the work of treating animals, of castrating of scrub bulls and of preventive vaccinations against contagious diseases. Besides, they execute various schemes and disseminate technical information regarding the animal husbandry.

Cattle breeding centres.

Among the various schemes for the development of live-stock, maintenance of breeding farm is an important one. A cattle breeding farm is established at Chandrapur where animals of *gaolao* breed are maintained. Besides this there are four supplementary cattle breeding centres in the district located at Aheri, Brahmapuri, Gondipipri and Shindewahi. In the first two centres, established in 1957-58, 10 bulls and 53 cows of *gaolao* breed are kept, whereas in the last two, started in 1964-65, 6 bulls and 55 cows are maintained.

Gosadan.

In order to protect the old cattle, a *gosadan* is opened at Somnath near Mul and about 900 acres of forest land is attached to it for grazing and cultivation of grass.

Artificial Insemination.

There is one full-fledged artificial insemination centre at Chandrapur with three sub-centres at Bhadrawati, Mul, and Gadhchiroli. At these centres 647 inseminations were carried out and 143 calves were reared.

Live-stock Markets and Live-stock prices.

There are at present twenty cattle markets, out of which nearly sixteen are regular weekly markets. The prices at these markets vary from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 for a *gaolao* bull, Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 for a *gaolao* milch cow, and from Rs. 400 to Rs. 800 for a *berari* milch she-buffalo. The non-descript bullocks fetch on an average a price from Rs. 200 to Rs. 400.

A tahsilwise live-stock population as per 1961 Census is given in the following table:

TABLE No. 25

NUMBER OF LIVE-STOCK AS ENUMERATED IN 1961 CENSUS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Tahsil	Cattle						Total cattle
	Males over 3 years		Females over 3 years			Young stock	
	Used for Breeding only	Total males	Breeding cows		Total females over 3 years		
			In Milk	Total Breeding cows			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Brahmapuri	226	66,738	9,796	32,238	32,736	32,672	1,32,146
Warora	571	80,173	18,980	51,275	51,661	51,361	1,83,195
Gadhchiroli	619	98,775	20,021	64,879	68,584	72,147	2,39,506
Chandrapur	773	77,432	15,407	41,671	42,288	40,547	1,60,267
Rajura	23	35,340	5,499	24,813	24,826	16,599	76,765
Sironcha	607	40,766	9,436	38,192	41,680	43,082	1,25,528
Total	2,819	3,99,224	79,139	2,53,068	2,61,775	2,56,408	9,17,407

TABLE No. 25—*contd.*

Tahsil	Buffaloes						Total buffaloes
	Males over 3 years		Females over 3 years			Young stock	
	Used for breeding only	Total males	Breeding buffaloes		Total females over 3 years		
			In Milk	Total Breeding Buffaloes			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Brahmapuri	72	3,528	2,692	5,421	5,520	5,735	14,783
Warora	186	696	3,003	8,078	8,252	7,816	16,764
Gadhchirol	84	23,111	2,456	6,036	6,205	6,769	36,085
Chandrapur	200	7,341	4,768	10,463	10,628	10,467	28,436
Rajura	79	188	1,657	5,926	5,947	3,814	9,949
Sironcha	84	10,566	933	3,220	3,347	3,288	17,201
Total ..	705	45,430	15,509	39,144	39,899	37,889	1,23,218

TABLE No. 25—contd.

Tahsil	*Sheep*	Goats	Horses and ponies	Total live-stock	Total poultry
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Brahmapuri	7,681	26,316	53	1,81,419	1,05,307
Warora	4,939	40,360	260	2,46,227	1,41,858
Gadhchiroli	8,714	64,635	66	3,54,222	2,66,719
Chandrapur	11,054	30,540	36	2,31,427	1,68,597
Rajura	1,951	18,933	51	1,07,787	50,648
Sironcha	3,527	34,529	19	1,86,930	85,415
Total ..	37,866	2,15,313	485	13,08,012	8,18,544

Poultry.

Poultry farming, which provides a subsidiary occupation to the cultivators and others is carried on on a small scale in the district. Most of the poultry birds kept in the district are of *deshi* and non-descript variety. However, the zilla parishad, the panchayat samitis and the animal husbandry department have taken a joint move to upgrade *deshi* hens by supplying improved pure-breeds like White Leghorn and Rhode Island Red at concessional rates and also by giving financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies. There is neither a poultry experimental farm nor a poultry research station in the district. However demonstration and propaganda work is carried on through exhibitions and *kisan melas*. In 1964-65 three such exhibitions were organised. Besides, there are three poultry centres located at Chandrapur, Mul and Bhadrawati, respectively. The total annual income from these centres in 1964-65 amounted to Rs. 606. Training in poultry keeping is imparted to the cultivators. In 1964-65 loans to the tune of Rs. 5,223 and the poultry subsidy amounting to Rs. 3,094 were disbursed to the poultry breeders.

Besides the three poultry centres, the intensive poultry development scheme and the crash programme schemes were undertaken in six and three panchayat samitis respectively. Similarly in 1964-65, 4,444 birds were distributed to the cultivators at concessional rates. 982 hatching eggs were also supplied. Fifteen persons in the district own poultry farms with more than fifty pure-bred birds. Prophylactic vaccinations against Raniket and Fowl Pox diseases are carried out by the veterinary officers and stockmen.

Dairy conditions.

The cattle in the district constitutes about 48.14 per cent of the total live-stock while the buffaloes form only 5.7 per cent. Thus the buffalo population, which is the main source of milk, forms but a small portion of the total live-stock population. The tahsilwise distribution of cows and female buffaloes is given in the following table.

TABLE No. 26.

TAHSILWISE DISTRIBUTION OF COWS AND SHE-BUFFALOES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1961

Tahsil	Cows over three years			Female buffaloes over three years		
	In milk	Dry	Young stock	In milk	Dry	Young stock
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Chandrapur ..	15,407	21,108	40,547	4,768	4,042	10,467
Warora ..	18,980	25,557	51,361	3,003	3,429	7,816
Brahmapuri ..	9,796	18,456	32,672	2,692	1,870	5,735
Gadhchiroli ..	20,021	37,149	72,147	2,456	2,675	6,769
Sironcha ..	9,436	21,642	43,082	933	1,848	3,288
Rajura ..	5,499	13,769	16,599	1,657	2,889	3,814
Total ..	79,139	137,681	256,408	15,509	16,753	37,889

Dairy conditions.

The above table shows that about 60 per cent of the cattle are reared in tribal tahsils of Gadhchiroli, Sironcha, Rajura and Brahmapuri while only 40 per cent of cattle are found in Chandrapur and Warora tahsils. Similary the table also shows that the ratio of milch to dry animals is nearly 1:2 while that of buffaloes it is 1:1.

There is no special breed of cattle in the district. The cows are nondescript, dwarf with average daily milk yield of two litres. Buffaloes belong to typical Nagpur breed characterised by its long tapering horns. These animals are very hardy. The average milk yield of these animals comes to about four litres a day. In most of the cases, cows are not milked. Farmers in Chandrapur and Warora tahsils utilize a portion of cow milk for their own consumption. In tribal areas on the other hand the practice of allowing the calves to suck their mothers is common. The tribals do not milk their cows. Even though the cattle wealth is immense in the tribal areas, no adequate use is made of milch cattle by the tribals.

The activities of milk collection from the villages are restricted to areas nearabout Chandrapur, the district place and Ballarshah an industrial town in the district. Most of the villages which supply milk to Chandrapur town are situated within a radius of five miles. Vadgaon, Padoli, Lohara, Morva, Nandgaon, Datala are among a few villages which supply milk to Chandrapur. In the villages located on the bank of Wardha river and situated far away from Chandrapur town the villagers convert milk into butter and ghee and market these products in Chandrapur town on bazar days. In general there is scarcity of milk and the villages indicated above are not able to meet the requirement of Chandrapur town. The price of milk varies from 87 paise to Rs. 1.25 paise per *paili* (one paili = 1.25 kg. approx.) while that of butter and ghee varies from Rs. 6 to 7 per kg. and from Rs. 10 to 12 per kg. respectively.

The villages Visapur, Bamni, Dahari, Lavani supply milk to Ballarshah town. In these villages particularly there are ample facilities for grazing. Dry fodder is also available in ample quantity. Feeding cattle on cotton-seed and cotton-seed cakes is common. This has definitely improved the milk yield. Mainly milk of buffaloes is sold in Ballarshah town and the price varies from 80 paise to Rs. 1.25 per *paili*. Daily 400 to 600 litres of milk is sold in Ballarshah town even in summer; the sales go well over 1,000 to 1,200 litres, in winter. Due to the heavy demand for milk, milk products are not prepared by the village people staying nearby. In case of the villages of Palasgaon, Rajura, Karmana, Ambaoli, Kotti, Tinni, which are located far away from the town usually the villagers convert milk into ghee and sell it in the town at the rate varying from Rs. 8 to 10 per kg. The existing conditions indicate an ample scope for the development of dairy industry in the vicinity of Ballarshah town.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. IRRIGATION.

According to the agricultural returns for 1906-07, the total area under irrigation in the district amounted to 50,109.434 hectares (1,23,823 acres) of which 47,914.822 hectares (1,18,400 acres) were irrigated from tanks. Prior to the famine of 1900, the area under irrigation varied from 60,702.900 to 64,149.760 hectares (1,50,000 to 1,60,000 acres), but that famine threw a vast quantity of land under insufficiently stable irrigation out of cultivation. Since 1902, however, when the irrigated area stood at less than 44,515.460 hectares (1,10,000 acres) there was a fairly steady recovery and more area was brought under irrigation.

The chief sources of irrigation were the large lakes usually known as tanks, and the ponds known as *boris*. In 1906-07, there were about 1,500 large tanks and some 4,000 *boris* in the district. The best tanks in the district were usually found at the base of the hills in the Garbori pargana, and in the adjoining tracts of the Chandrapur and Warora tahsils; Ghot, Rajgarh and Amgaon had also several very fine tanks. In Garbori almost every village had a large high level tank capable of irrigating an area up to 121.406 hectares (300 acres) and this pargana at that time was so studded with these reservoirs that it was called the 'Lake District' of Chandrapur. As far as irrigation was concerned Gunjewahi was the best protected pargana, Mul, Keljhar, Talodhi, Garbori, Ghot and Wairagarh following in that order. Almost all the tanks in the district except those in Sironcha tahsil were fully utilised for irrigation purposes. Most of them were built during the reign of Gond kings who, under the system of *tukum* grants, allowed each builder of a tank to hold the land irrigated by that tank rent-free for a term of years. The Sironcha tahsil once had a number of good tanks, but most of them were neglected and ultimately became useless for irrigation purpose.

Most of the tanks in the district were constructed by the Kohlis, a caste apparently of Dravidian origin and parhaps akin to the Maria Gonds. As the builders of tanks the Kohlis were then without equals in the district. Although they succeeded in irrigating land from those tanks they could not make provisions of good waste weirs. However, in those days the Kohli malguzars were more alert than the Brahman malguzars in keeping their tanks in effective working order and good cultivators of rice and cane. The Kohlis also exhibited a wonderful skill in arranging distributive channels and taking out levels. But it was somewhat curious that only a small portion of the men who had unparalleled proficiency in the construction of the tanks were rewarded with privileged tenure.

Wells formed the next important sources of irrigation. In 1906-07, the area irrigated from wells amounted to 737.742 hectares (1,823 acres). The chief among the crops irrigated was the *motasthal* sugarcane crop. The leather *mot* worked by bullocks, the pole-lift and the hand-lift were the chief means employed for

raising water from wells. Sironcha tahsil was particularly the home of this type of irrigation.

The remaining area of 1,456.870 hectares (3,600 acres) in the district was irrigated by *gata* cultivation and perennial springs. The *gata* system of cultivation was mostly prevalent in Brahmapuri areas. Mr. Hemingway's description of the system runs thus: "In the riverain groups of the Brahmapuri tahsil the cultivated lands contain heavy *kanhar* or *bersi kanhar* soil; a very large proportion of this is embanked, and in normal years grows both *kharif* and *rabi* crops. The *kharif* crop is invariably light rice, generally sown broadcast; this is reaped in October, and the fields are again ploughed and cropped with gram, linseed and *rabi* pulses; occasionally wheat is the second crop. This system is quite distinct from the ordinary double-cropping, when pulses are sown as a catch-crop after rice; here, the light rice is a "catch" crop, and the second harvest is the more important; but the profits from the cultivation are high, because the outturn of the rice is heavy, and the expenses of transplantation are saved."

The *gata* system of cultivation peculiar to the zamindaris, however, differs in details from the one described above. Its description[1] runs thus: "The essential condition of this is a small valley with gently sloping sides and watered by a stream. Substantial timber dams are built across the stream at intervals during the hot weather, and are continued on either wing by embankments of earth until they almost but not quite merge into the rising sides of the valley. A series of perhaps twenty such *gatas* may be constructed one below the other. When the rains come, a large shallow basin of water is dammed up above each *gata*, superfluous water being passed on to those below it by the escape passages left at the end of either wing or else casting over the top of the dam. Rice is planted in the shallow water thus held up, the irrigated area thus being above, not below, the dam."

The perennial springs were eagerly seized upon by the Maria and guided in to small reservoirs for the purposes of his favourite *jhilan* cultivation. The Sironcha tahsil, including the Ahiri zamindari, and the vicinity of the Mul hills were the chief localities in which these perennial springs occurred.

State Irrigation.

The active history of Government enterprise in irrigation commenced, in respect of the district, with the inquiries made in 1901-02 by the Irrigation Commission. In May 1902 the irrigation circle was formed and Chandrapur was then included in the Wainganga Independent Executive Charge having its headquarters at Nagpur. Tanks at Tekri and Saighata were immediately taken in hand as small contract test-works for local labour, and drew well. The big Asola-Mendha scheme for which the original estimate was 4.81 lakhs was sanctioned by the then Government of India and put in hand shortly afterwards. In

1. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, Vol. A, 1909, pp. 170-71.

September 1903, owing to the increasing burden of work, the South Wainganga Independent Sub-Division was formed and put in charge of an Assistant Engineer with headquarters at Chandrapur, but the charge continued to grow in importance and in December 1905 it was constituted as a separate division under the name of the Mul Irrigation Division.

In the beginning the irrigation was confined to tank work. The progress on major works was then impeded by scarcity of labour, particularly after the commencement of construction operations on the Gondia-Chandrapur Railway, and also by the difficulty of securing contractors who would carry out the work satisfactorily. The attention was, therefore, concentrated on the Asola-Mendha project. The revised estimate of this project amounted to Rs. 10.38 lakhs, and up to the end of February 1908 work of the value of Rs. 3.16 lakhs had been completed. It was calculated that the tank when completed would irrigate an area of 8,093.720 hectares (20,000 acres), and command an area of 16,187.440 hectares (40,000 acres), the water spread area would be 18.907 km^2 (7.3 sq. miles) and would submerge seven villages, while the distributaries would extend the whole length of the *doab* between the Wainganga and Andhari rivers. The only other major works were Ghorajhari and Khairi. Ghorajhari was expected to cost Rs. 8.33 lakhs, to irrigate 10,521.836 hectares (26,000 acres), and command 16,066.034 hectares (39,700 acres). Till 1909 the work of the value of Rs. 1.15 lakhs was completed. Khairi was a smaller work costing about Rs. 1.17 lakhs. It was expected to irrigate 809.372 hectares (2,000 acres) and command 1,031.949 hectares (2,550 acres). Up to the end of February 1908, Rs. 15,700 were spent on this work. The other major projects which were under preparation or revision during 1908-09 were Naleshwar, Katwan, Bhainskhandi, Kasarla, Bunder, Metapar, and Mohali Mokasa. The estimates for Naleshwar and Katwan were Rs. 5.62 lakhs and Rs. 1.24 lakhs, respectively; the former was to protect 3,035.145 hectares (7,500 acres) and the latter 335.380 hectares (830 acres).

Minor tank works were also undertaken either at the entire cost of Government or else on what is known as the grant-in-aid system. This system was devised by the Hon'ble Mr. Craddock, then Commissioner of the Nagpur Division. Under this system, half the cost of a tank in a malguzari village was to be borne by Government, and half by the malguzar, or by the malguzar and tenants jointly; the part of the cost not borne by Government was to be advanced as a loan recoverable in small instalments. Six tanks were completed under this system till 1909. They were Mangrur (Rs. 8,500)[1], Saighata (Rs. 2,000), Meha (Rs. 1,700), Chichli (Rs. 1,400), Chargaon (Rs. 1,000) and Saoli (Rs. 800). Of the minor works then undertaken wholly by the State the following were completed: Pauna (Rs. 5,800), Mahabara

[1]. The figures in brackets indicate the total cost of each tank.

(Rs. 8,600), Ghorpeth (Rs. 5,400), Junona (Rs. 14,600), Janala (Rs. 5,500), Tekri (Rs. 3,250) and Kunghada (Rs. 4,700). The last named was a particularly successful tank. The water dues amounting to Rs. 1,453 were recovered for the year 1904-05 from 335.889 hectares (830 acres) irrigated by it, and in 1905-06, no less than 388.498 hectares (960 acres) of rice representing a full assessable revenue of Rs. 1,808 were recovered. Other minor irrigation works such as Kachapar (Rs. 9,500), Maregaon (Rs. 14,000), Paunpar (Rs. 33,600), Rudrapur (Rs. 16,000), and Itoli (Rs. 7,000) were practically completed at the end of the irrigation year 1906-07. The total area which all these works, both grant-in-aid and State, as also those completed and those under construction, were expected to irrigate was 3,042.429 hectares (7,518 acres). By the end of that year the total expenditure of the State on the construction of minor irrigation works in the district since the inception of the irrigation programme amounted to Rs. 1,17,650. This expenditure was distributed thus: contributions to grant-in-aid tanks Rs. 5,100, expenditure on State minor works in *rayatwari* villages Rs. 59,843, on State minor works in *malguzari* villages Rs. 50,280, and on repairs to tanks Rs. 2,427.

The area irrigated from State minor works amounted to 151.352 hectares (374 acres) in 1904-05, and it gradually increased to 453.248 hectares (1,120 acres) in 1905-06, and to 687.157 hectares (1,698 acres) in 1906-07. A sum of Rs. 1,976 was assessed as water dues in 1905-06 and the whole amount was recovered in that or the following year. In 1906-07 Rs. 2,949 were assessed as water dues, but only Rs. 70 of the current demand were collected. Water was in many cases granted free. The water-rates at which the crops were then assessed in the district were Rs. 7 per acre for sugarcane, Rs. 2 for garden crops, and from Re. 1 to Rs. 1.12 for field crops. The amount of irrigation done from grant-in-aid tanks, however, fell from 696.060 hectares (1,720 acres) in 1904-05 to 230.671 hectares (570 acres) and 124.643 hectares (308 acres) in the two subsequent years.

The irrigation works which were in operation in 1960-61 numbered 22. Of these works 15 works are the same (either with some modifications or repairs) which were completed during the period between 1902 and 1909. As per the irrigation administration report for the year 1960-61, three works *viz.*, Nimbala tank, Sitaram Peth Bandhara and Dina Nadi project were under construction.

The irrigation works at present in the district include major irrigation works, medium irrigation works and minor irrigation works. The only major irrigation work in the district is Dina Nadi Project. Now (1966) there was no medium irrigation scheme under execution in the district. There are, however, three existing medium irrigation tanks. These tanks have been constructed during the pre-plan period and have irrigation potential of more than 4,000 acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Dina Nadi Project.

The site of the major project under execution *viz.*, Dina Nadi Project is near the village Regadi in Gadhchiroli tahsil. The project, as administratively approved for Rs. 226.91 lakhs, envisages construction of a 21.031 m. (69 feet) high earthen dam across Dina river and Koka nalla near the village Regadi. The project has a culturable command of 12,488.610 hectares (30,860 acres) of which an area of 12,342.923 hectares (30,500 acres) of mixed crop-pattern has been proposed to be irrigated by the project. The net capacity of the Dina lake would be 1,976 M. cft. whereas the gross capacity would be 2,160 M. cft. Only one canal taking off directly from the reservoir is proposed, which would be 32.187 km. (20 miles) in length, serving 45 villages of the Gadhchiroli tahsil. The construction work of the dam is yet to start.

Medium and Minor irrigation works.

There are three medium and twelve minor irrigation tanks in operation, and as against the 19,128.698 hectares (47,268 acres) of the irrigation potential created under these State tanks, 18,452.872 hectares (45,598 acres) were irrigated in 1964-65. The following table gives details about these tanks:

TABLE No. 27

STATEMENT GIVING INFORMATION ABOUT THE STATE TANKS IN THE DISTRICT, 1964-65.

Tank (1)	Tahsil (2)	Irrigation Potential (in hectares)* (3)	Area irrigated during 1964-65 (in hectares)* Kharif (4)	Area irrigated during 1964-65 (in hectares)* Rabi (5)
Medium Tanks.				
Asolamendha ..	Brahmapuri ..	9,914.807 (24,500)	8,382.666 (20,714)	245.644 (607)
Ghorazheri ..	Do. ..	3,844.517 (9,500)	4,445.880 (10,986)	179.276 (443)
Naleshwar	Do. ..	1,687.541 (4,170)	1,903.643 (4,704)	7.284 (18)
Minor Tanks.				
Kuserla	Brahmapuri ..	485.623 (1,200)	424.111 (1,048)	63.940 (158)
Khairee	Do. ..	829.606 (2,050)	382.428 (945)	..
Gadmoushi	Do. ..	352.077 (870)	413.994 (1,023)	1.214 (3)
Pawanpar	Do. ..	283.280 (700)	198.701 (491)	26.709 (66)
Chindhi	Do. ..	178.062 (440)	197.891 (489)	16.592 (41)
Malegaon	Do. ..	114.526 (283)	95.910 (237)	4.047 (10)
Kunghara	Gadhchiroli ..	586.795 (1,450)	634.548 (1,568)	16.187 (40)
Rudrapur	Chandrapur ..	169.968 (420)	71.225 (176)	2.833 (7)
Junala	Do. ..	212.460 (525)	250.500 (619)	54.633 (135)
Junnona	Do. ..	131.523 (325)	104.004 (257)	55.847 (138)
Itoli	Do. ..	132.593 (140)	114.931 (284)	15.378 (38)
Kinhi	Brahmapuri ..	200.119 (495)	114.931 (284)	4.856 (12)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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Medium and Minor irrigation works.

Existing ex-malguzari tanks.

During the third Five-Year Plan, it was decided to renovate only the *ex-malguzari* tanks. Accordingly allocation of funds for the same was also earmarked. No new minor irrigation works were, therefore, proposed to be taken up during the Plan period.

The total number of *ex-malguzari* tanks in the district, irrigating more than 101.171 hectares (250 acres) individually and as such falling in the State sector, is 75. Of these 48 tanks are being repaired and renovated, the estimated cost being Rs. 89.47 lakhs. Five more such tanks were proposed to be taken up either for repairing or for renovating the same in 1965-66. The following table gives information about the *ex-malguzari* tanks on which work is at present in progress:-

TABLE No. 28

STATEMENT GIVING THE LIST OF EX-MALGUZARI TANKS UNDER REPAIRS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1964-65.

Ex-malguzari Tank (1)	Tahsil (2)	Gross estimated cost (Rs. in lakhs) (3)	Present irrigation area in hectares* (4)	Proposed irrigation area in hectares* (5)
Girgaon	Brahmapuri ..	2.75	159.446 (394)	311.668 (770)
Tekadi ..	Chandrapur ..	0.99	107.242 (265)	111.693 (276)
Murmadi ..	Brahmapuri ..	0.94	102.790 (254)	122.215 (302)
Jankapur	Do. ..	0.86	103.195 (255)	104.409 (258)
Gaidongari ..	Do. ..	1.28	101.171 (250)	150.543 (372)
Saigaon Tukum ..	Do. ..	1.08	101.981 (252)	120.596 (298)
Samda	Chandrapur ..	1.38	121.406 (300)	161.874 (400)
Bhatala	Warora ..	1.06	141.640 (350)	141.640 (350)
Mul	Chandrapur ..	1.03	105.218 (260)	105.218 (260)
Wadegaon	Gadhchiroli ..	1.11	101.981 (252)	123.024 (304)
Pomburna	Chandrapur ..	1.42	136.784 (338)	165.516 (409)
Hirapur	Gadhchiroli ..	1.20	123.024 (304)	134.356 (332)
Talodhi-Makasa ..	Do. ..	1.71	152.162 (376)	174.524 (431)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 28 — *contd.*

Ex-malguzari Tank (1)	Tahsil (2)	Gross estimated cost (Rs. in lakhs) (3)	Present irrigation area in hectares* (4)	Proposed irrigation area in hectares* (5)
Elgoor	Sironcha ..	1·29	128·690 (318)	183·323 (453)
Pathari	Brahmapuri ..	1·29	128·690 (318)	164·302 (406)
Mendki	Do. ..	1·09	104·004 (257)	112·503 (278)
Bhuj Tukum ..	Do. ..	1·13	116·540 (288)	131·523 (325)
Ekara	Do. ..	1·80	131·118 (324)	184·537 (456)
Kasari	Gadhchiroli ..	1·31	110·074 (272)	146·092 (361)
Rawanwadi ..	Do. ..	2·41	123·400 (305)	283·280 (700)
Chargaon	Brahmapuri ..	1·10	113·312 (280)	114·526 (283)
Govindpur	Do. ..	1·05	111·289 (275)	109·670 (271)
Walani	Do. ..	1·45	148·115 (366)	153·376 (379)
Userla-Mendha ..	Do. ..	2·08	165·112 (408)	194·000 (480)
Palasgaon Jat ..	Do. ..	1·10	110·074 (272)	118·168 (292)
Navtalao	Warora ..	1·67	134·760 (333)	172·396 (426)
Piperda	Do. ..	1·24	101·171 (250)	135·570 (335)
Kargatta	Do. ..	1·08	113·312 (280)	113·312 (280)
Kajalsar	Do. ..	1·33	115·740 (286)	131·523 (325)
Kosambi	Brahmapuri ..	1·46	141·640 (350)	179·276 (443)
Golbhuj	Chandrapur ..	2·52	29·542 (73)	267·093 (660)
Rajoli	Do. ..	5·59	283·280 (700)	785·091 (1,940)
Adyal	Brahmapuri ..	2·31	140·021 (346)	239·574 (592)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 28 — *contd.*

Ex-malguzari Tank (1)	Tahsil (2)	Gross estimated cost (Rs. in lakhs) (3)	Present irrigation area in hectares* (4)	Proposed irrigation area in hectares* (5)
Gadhchiroli ..	Gadhchiroli ..	2·25	210·841 (521)	231·480 (572)
Visora	Do. ..	1·34	117·359 (290)	156·209 (386)
Dongargaon ..	Chandrapur ..	4·27	149·734 (370)	443·536 (1,096)
Raigatta	Gadhchiroli ..	2·04	103·195 (255)	233·099 (576)
Motegaon	Warora ..	2·14	153·781 (380)	261·832 (647)
Ratnapur	Brahmapuri ..	2·23	209·627 (518)	229·052 (566)
Allewahi	Do. ..	3·83	455·676 (1,126)	479·553 (1,185)
Nawargaon ..	Do. ..	2·59	235·932 (583)	293·802 (726)
Wasera	Gadhchiroli ..	3·23	167·135 (413)	392·140 (969)
Sheoni	Brahmapuri ..	2·35	209·627 (518)	258·594 (639)
Palasgaon	Warora ..	2·40	144·068 (356)	275·186 (680)
Adegaon	Do. ..	1·64	101·576 (251)	159·851 (395)
Tambegadi-Mendha	Brahmapuri ..	3·39	110·074 (272)	362·194 (895)
Chop	Gadhchiroli ..	3·06	124·238 (307)	331·842 (820)
Sawargaon	Brahmapuri ..	1·90	154·995 (383)	184·537 (456)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Tab'e No. 29 gives the details of the irrigation works in the district.

TABLE No. 29

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DETAILS OF IRRIGATION WORKS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1964-65 *contd.*

Name of Tank (1)	Location of the work (2)	Tahsil or tahsils served (3)	Year and cost of construction (Rs. in lakhs) (4)		Area commanded (Culturable) (in hectares)* (5)	Area irrigated (in hectares)* (6)
Medium Projects—						
Asolamendha Tank ..	22·531 km. (14 miles), north of village Saoli on Pathri River.	Brahmapuri and Chandrapur.	1918	18·08	37,928·791 (93,724)	9,914·807 (24,500)
Ghorajheri Tank	On Bokardoh Nala near Chandrapur	Brahmapuri	1923	11·39	12,866·991 (31,795)	3,844·517 (9,500)
Nalleshwar Tank	On Upasya river near Sindewahi	Brahmapuri and Chandrapur.	1818	7·08	5,033·080 (12,437)	1,687·541 (4,170)
Minor Irrigation Works—						
Kuserla Tank	8·047 km. (5 miles) north-west of Nagbhir town ..	Brahmapuri	1927	3·88	2,553·164 (6,309)	485·623 (1,200)
Gadmoshi Tank	4·828 km. (3 miles) from north-east of Sindewahi ..	Do.	1913	0·41	931·182 (2,301)	352·077 (870)
Khairee Tank	32·187 km. (20 miles) north of village Saoli ..	Do. ..	1913	1·28	864·005 (2,135)	829·606 (2,050)
Pawanpar Tank	22·531 km. (14 miles) east of Sindewahi town ..	Do. ..	1909	0·32	313·632 (775)	283·280 (700)
Chindhi Tank	12·875 km. (8 miles) from Nagbhir town	Do. ..	1911	0·39	507·071 (1,253)	169·968 (420)
*Rudrapur Tank	*4·828 km. (3 miles) from Saoli village	*Chandrapur	*1908*	*0·1*	*335·080 (828)*	*169·968 (420)*
Kunghara Tank	*32·187 km. (20 miles) from Gadhchiroli	Gadhchiroli	1910	0·16	792·375 (1,958)	586·795 (1,450)
Janala Tank	35·406 km. (22 miles) from Chandrapur	Chandrapur	1912	0·16	976·912 (2,414)	212·460 (525)
Junona Tank	9·656 km. (6 miles) from Chandrapur	Do.	1906	0·18	175·634 (434)	131·523 (325)
Itoli Tank	32·187 km. (20 miles) from Chandrapur	Do.	1907	0·23	849·841 (2,100)	137·593 (340)
Maregaon Tank	14·484 (9 miles) from Sindewahi town	Brahmapuri	1908	0·16	231·076 (571)	114·526 (283)
Kinhi Tank	6·437 km. (4 miles) from Sindewahi	Do.	1957	0·50	200·319 (495)	200·319 (495)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 29—*contd.*

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DETAILS OF IRRIGATION WORKS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1964-65—*contd.*

Name of Tank	Description of				Water-rates charged	Crops irrigated
	Dam	Canal (in miles)	Length of waste weir	Tank irrigable capacity (Storage)		
(1)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Medium Projects—						
					Kharif Agreement rate Rs. 8 per acre. Rs. 10 per acre on demand.	(1) Rice, (2) Wheat. *Kharif* seasonal crops other than rice.
Asolamendha Tank ..	Earthen Dam	Main canal 27·12 and distributary and minors 139·14.	231·648 m. (760 ft.)	2,635 M.cft.	*Wheat* Agreement rate— Rs. 3 per acre. Demand rate— Rs. 6 per acre.	*Rabi* seasonal crops other than wheat.
Ghorajheri Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 12·10, distributary and minors 77·81.	124·968 m. (410 ft.)	1,343 M.cft.	*Kharif seasonal crops other than rice.*	Hot-weather seasonal crops such as clover other and fodder crops.
Naleshwar Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 14·26, minors 19·93.	98·146 m. (322 ft.)	394·7 M.cft.	A.R. Nil. D.R. Rs. 6 *Rabi seasonal crops other than wheat.*	Garden crops and vegetables. Sugarcane, Pan, Plantains and Mulberry, any other fruits.
Minor Irrigation Works—						
Kuserla Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 9·22, minors 1·14	16·764 m. (55 ft.)	83·30 M.cft.	A.R. Nil D.R. Rs. 6 per acre	
Gadmoshi Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 3·62, minors 1·55	15·240 m. (50 ft.)	81·20 M.cft.	*Hot weather seasonal crops*	
Khairee Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 3·40, minors 3·08	31·394 m. (103 ft.)	136·30 M.cft.	A.R. Nil D.R. Rs. 10 per acre	
Pawanpar Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 2·20, minors ..	106·680 m. (350 ft.)	157·90 M.cft.	*Garden crops and vegetables.*	
Chindhi Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 3·21, minors 0·42	58·522 m. (192 ft.)	29·20 M.cft.	A.R. Nil D.R. Rs. 15 per acre	
Rudrapur Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 1·22, minors 0·36	42·672 m. (140 ft.)	41·40 M.cft.	*Sugarcane* A.R. Nil.	
Kunghara Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 5·60, minors 0·46	15·240 m. (50 ft.)	87·70 M.cft.	D.R. Rs. 45 per acre *Any other fruit* A.R. Nil D.R. Rs. 3 per acre	
Janala Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 4·53, minors 1·44	47·244 m. (155 ft.)	65·9 M.cft.	*Pan, plantains and Mulberry.*	
Junona Tank	Do. ..	Main Canal 21·15, minors 1·14	45·720 m. (150 ft.)	68·90 M.cft.	A.R. Nil D.R. Rs. 45 per acre	
Itoli Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 1·71, minors 0·40	22·860 m. (75 ft.)	28·20 M.cft.	..	
Maregaon Tank	Do. ..	Main canal 1·20, minors 0·80	60·960 m. (200 ft.)	59·5 M.cft.	..	
Kinhi Tank	Do. ..	Main canal .. minors ..	23·470 m. (77 ft.)	28·92 M.cft.	..	

A.R.—Agreement Rate ; D.R.—Demand Rate.

TABLE No. 30

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER IRRIGATED CROPS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64.

Area in hectares

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Barley (5)	Sugarcane (6)	Chillis (7)	Turmeric (8)
Warora ..	1956-57	10,984·392(27,143)	4·452 (11)	..	10·117 (25)	9·308 (23)	342·364 (846)
	1957-58	11,117·534(27,472)	7·689 (19)	..	9·712 (24)	22·662 (56)	390·552 (965)
	1958-59	11,315·020(27,960)	7·689 (19)	..	7·284 (18)	11·736 (29)	363·003 (897)
	1959-60	11,612·465(28,695)	23·067 (57)	..	7·689 (19)	13·759 (34)	334·675 (827)
	1960-61	12,007·034(29,670)	29·542 (73)	..	5·666 (14)	14·164 (35)	324·153 (801)
	1961-62	12,188·736(30,119)	74·462 (184)	..	4·856 (12)	22·662 (56)	313·227 (774)
	1962-63	12,356·682(30,534)	57·870 (143)	..	6·070 (15)	13·355 (33)	328·200 (811)
	1963-64	12,497·918(30,883)	68·797 (170)	..	4·452 (11)	12·950 (32)	317·274 (784)
Chandrapur ..	1956-57	21,777·772(53,814)	23·876 (59)	4·452 (11)	50·990 (126)	154·995 (383)	18·615 (46)
	1957-58	22,091·809(54,590)	26·305 (65)	4·452 (11)	36·422 (90)	118·978 (294)	18·211 (45)
	1958-59	22,523·609(55,657)	45·729 (113)	5·261 (13)	23·876 (59)	127·476 (315)	19·830 (49)
	1959-60	23,837·219(58,903)	75·676 (187)	4·856 (12)	16·187 (40)	98·743 (244)	16·187 (40)
	1960-61	24,073·151(59,486)	64·345 (159)	4·452 (11)	10·926 (27)	124·643 (308)	13·759 (34)
	1961-62	24,398·924(60,291)	60·703 (150)	1·619 (4)	13·759 (34)	126·262 (312)	14·164 (35)
	1962-63	25,285·995(62,483)	112·503 (278)	3·237 (8)	14·569 (36)	..	14·569 (36)
	1963-64	26,859·414(66,371)	116·145 (287)	1·214 (3)	14·973 (37)	111·289 (275)	14·973 (37)
Brahmapuri ..	1956-57	31,087·169(76,818)	33·994 (84)	2·833 (7)	355·314 (878)	115·740 (286)	25·090 (62)
	1957-58	31,549·320(77,960)	19·425 (48)	2·023 (5)	315·655 (780)	93·482 (231)	31·565 (78)
	1958-59	31,549·725(77,961)	36·826 (91)	2·023 (5)	229·457 (567)	90·245 (223)	28·722 (71)
	1959-60	31,864·166(78,738)	104·409 (258)	3·642 (9)	207·604 (513)	55·037 (136)	19·830 (49)
	1960-61	32,620·120(80,606)	50·181 (124)	0·809 (2)	175·634 (434)	65·559 (162)	13·759 (34)
	1961-62	32,896·520(81,289)	108·051 (267)	1·619 (4)	184·132 (455)	53·014 (131)	9·712 (24)
	1962-63	33,179·800(81,989)	119·382 (295)	1·215 (3)	185·751 (459)	64·750 (160)	10·522 (26)
	1963-64	33,535·924(82,869)	59·084 (146)	0·809 (2)	189·383 (468)	60·703 (150)	13·355 (33)
Gadhchiroli ..	1956-57	17,630·955(43,567)	12·950 (32)	50·181 (124)	72·439 (179)	991·076 (2,449)	..
	1957-58	27,877·200(68,886)	12·545 (31)	56·251 (139)	63·131 (156)	832·844 (2,058)	..
	1958-59	12,545·671(31,001)	12·545 (31)	39·255 (97)	50·181 (124)	969·223 (2,395)	..
	1959-60	19,247·271(47,561)	24·686 (61)	61·512 (152)	66·773 (165)	658·019 (1,626)	0·405 (1)
	1960-61	24,438·176(60,388)	27·923 (69)	39·659 (98)	49·372 (122)	880·597 (2,176)	..
	1961-62	17,747·504(43,855)	29·542 (73)	46·943 (116)	50·586 (125)	805·325 (1,990)	..
	1962-63	24,603·290(60,796)	21·853 (54)	27·519 (68)	50·586 (125)	929·159 (2,296)	0·405 (1)
	1963-64	24,656·304(60,927)	23·472 (58)	30·351 (75)	62·726 (155)	916·209 (2,264)	0·405 (1)

TABLE No. 30—*cont.*

TAHSIL-WISE AREA UNDER IRRIGATED CROPS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1963-64—*contd.*

Area in hectares

Tahsil (1)	Year (2)	Rice (3)	Wheat (4)	Barley (5)	Sugarcane (6)	Chillis (7)	Turmeric (8)
Sironcha ..	1956-57	1,199·085 (2,963)	..	0·405 (1)	13·355 (33)	115·335 (285)	3·642 (9)
	1957-58	1,774·953 (4,386)	..	0·405 (1)	13·355 (33)	99·957 (247)	3·642 (9)
	1958-59	1,237·934 (3,059)	0·405 (1)	0·405 (1)	7·284 (18)	119·787 (296)	1·619 (4)
	1959-60	1,485·602 (3,671)	0·809 (2)	0·809 (2)	6·475 (16)	108·456 (268)	2·023 (5)
	1960-61	1,551·971 (3,835)	2·023 (5)	..	5·261 (13)	135·974 (336)	1·214 (3)
	1961-62	1,144·452 (2,828)	9·308 (23)	..	6·880 (17)	126·667 (313)	2·023 (5)
	1962-63	1,921·853 (4,749)	9·712 (24)	..	6·070 (15)	142·449 (352)	..
	1963-64	1,777·785 (4,393)	0·809 (2)	0·405 (1)	4·856 (12)	146·092 (361)	2·833 (7)
Rajura ..	1956-57	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1958-59	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1959-60	136·784 (338)	..	..	0·809 (2)	..	3·642 (9)
	1960-61	121·810 (301)	..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62	107·242 (265)	..	..	..	..	..
	1962-63	108·456 (268)	..	..	..	..	..
	1963-64	107·242 (265)	..	..	..	5·666 (14)	1·214 (3)
District Total ..	1956-57	82,679·373(204,305)	75·272 (186)	57·870 (143)	502·215 (1,241)	1,386·454 (3,426)	389·712 (963)
	1957-58	94,410·815(233,294)	65·964 (163)	63·131 (156)	438·275 (1,083)	1,167·924 (2,886)	443·940 (1,097)
	1958-59	79,171·959(195,638)	103·195 (255)	46·943 (116)	318·083 (786)	1,318·467 (3,258)	413·184 (1,021)
	1959-60	88,183·507(217,906)	228·647 (565)	70·820 (175)	305·538 (755)	934·015 (2,308)	376·762 (951)
	1960-61	94,812·264(234,286)	174·015 (430)	44·920 (111)	246·858 (610)	1,220·937 (3,017)	352·886 (872)
	1961-62	88,483·380(218,647)	282·066 (697)	50·181 (124)	260·213 (643)	1,133·930 (2,802)	339·127 (838)
	1962-63	97,456·078(240,819)	321·320 (794)	31·970 (79)	263·046 (650)	1,149·713 (2,841)	353·695 (874)
	1963-64	99,434·587(245,708)	268·307 (663)	32·779 (81)	276·400 (683)	1,252·908 (3,096)	350·053 (865)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

The adoption of appropriate varieties or strains of crops suitable for the tract is an important factor that contributes to improving food production. Very often the agriculturists pick up selected earheads from healthy and vigorous plants at the time of harvesting and preserve them till the next sowing season. Nowadays, however, under the Grow More Food campaign, the State Government has given more emphasis to evolving high yielding strains of various crops. Accordingly research stations as well as the seed farms have been established at numerous places. The Seed and Demonstration Farm at Sindewahi in Brahmapuri tahsil, for example, is carrying out experiments on the paddy crop. This centre commands an area of 85.923 hectares (212.32 acres). Besides, there are nine seed farms which provide improved seeds to farmers. The combined area of these farms is 244.572 hectares (604.35 acres). These farms mainly multiply improved seeds of jowar, paddy and wheat. The improved seeds of pulses like *tur* and gram, and cotton and sesamum are also evolved. These improved seeds are distributed to the farmers through the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis. In order to increase the supply of the improved seeds, the system usually followed is that the nucleus seed obtained from the Government farms is multiplied at the farms of registered seed growers. The seed is then purchased by the Agriculture department and then distributed to the farmers in the district.

In addition, various schemes such as (i) multiplication and distribution of improved seeds, establishment of a seed village scheme, and (ii) a scheme for hybrid seed production programme are also implemented in the district to increase the supply of improved seeds.

Under the first scheme an entire village is selected for multiplying the improved seeds. Accordingly in 1965 one village was selected from the whole of the Chandrapur district. The number of such villages increased to 33 during 1966-67. Nowadays every Panchayat Samiti has about four to five such villages from which seed supply is procured. A special staff which consists of an agricultural assistant per seed village and one agriculture officer for every three Panchayat Samitis is appointed to execute the scheme.

Another scheme for hybrid seed production was launched in the district in 1966. One hybrid seed production officer and one agricultural officer have been appointed to implement the scheme in the district. In 1966-67 the district was excluded from the hybrid seed production programme. In the following year, however, the Government has permitted the Agriculture department to take up the hybrid seed production programme in the district. Accordingly 230 quintals of hybrid jowar and 70 quintals of hybrid maize were supplied by Agriculture department.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

MANURES.

It has been a constant struggle of man to compensate for the deficiencies of land by means of irrigation, manures including chemical fertilizers, improved strains of seeds, improved agricultural implements, etc. With the help of these he has succeeded to a great extent in raising the output from land. Of these measures irrigation and manures, if they are simultaneously made available, yield better results. Since long, the application of manure has been an essential feature of agricultural operations in the district. It has been recorded in the old gazetteer of the district that even before 1909, the cultivators freely employed the manure in the rice tracts both for rice and sugarcane. The only forms of manure which were then common were the cattle droppings and house-sweepings. These were kept in an open pit till May when the stock was carted to the fields and dumped down *in situ* in heaps. The cultivators did not care either to store the manure in a scientific way by digging up a pit or prevent manure from losing its qualitative contents by evaporation when dumped in heaps in the fields. Such heaps were mixed with soil after the first showers of the monsoon. Many cultivators, as they do now, used to keep several cattle simply for the sake of obtaining their manure. The most heavily manured crops then were rice and sugarcane, particularly the latter, for which the expensive process of picketing goats and sheep on the field at night was ordinarily employed. The charge for picketing a flock for twelve days was Rs. 4. In the open tracts, cotton and wheat were often manured and jowar occasionally. Except in the Warora tahsil, comparatively little use was made of manure in these tracts.

With the implementation of planning in the post independence period the conditions, however, have changed. The chemical fertilisers have come to be adopted on a large scale. The information regarding the scientific storage of manure in a pit and the method of applying the chemical fertilisers to various crops are being disseminated by the official staff as well as by the social workers. The common cultivator, however, is gradually getting acquainted with these modern methods. In the rural areas of the district the fertilisers are distributed through the co-operative societies which in turn get the stock of fertilisers from the organisation at the district level. The farmers are also induced by the Panchayat Samitis and the Zilla Parishad to increase the supply of manure by digging up compost pits and following the method of green manuring, etc. The efforts in this direction are also strengthened by launching State sector schemes such as the development of local manurial resources, fertiliser and varietal trial scheme and the simple manurial trials scheme. The first scheme has been in operation in the district since 1962, and includes four sub-schemes *viz.*, (1) town (urban) compost, (2) rural compost, (3) green manuring, and (4) hand flush latrine. The object of this scheme is to induce the urban centres *i.e.*, municipal committees, cantonment boards and bigger village panchayats having a population of 5,000 and above

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. MANURES.

to start the work of composting from night soil and other organic town waste. A Compost Inspector having the whole district as his jurisdiction is appointed under the officer incharge of Residuary Activities to execute the scheme in the district. The production of town compost under the scheme in the district during 1966-67 was 5,059.680 metric tonnes (4.980 tons) of which 1,491.996 metric tonnes (1,468.5 tons) have been distributed. Under the scheme of hand flush latrines, 600 latrine sets have been distributed in the district.

Very often sann hemp is cultivated mainly as a green manure crop. When it is grown for this purpose, its seed is sown soon after the commencement of the monsoon showers. The crop is sown thick and grows very fast. After about two months its vegetative growth is mixed with soil by ploughing and levelling it. It adds a good percentage of nitrogen to the soil.

The execution of the other two schemes, *viz.*, fertiliser and varietal trial scheme and the simple manurial trials scheme, is more in the nature of research. Its main object is to conduct fertiliser and varietal trials to observe the effects of the fertiliser over different varieties of a crop. The following statement shows the progress so far achieved under the scheme:—

(1)	Paddy irrigated (2)	*Kharif* trials (3)	*Rabi* trials, jowar (4)
(1) No. of trials placed during 1967 ..	100	100	90
(2) No. of trials laid out	63	75	6
(3) No. of trials failed	37	25	84

Jowar stem borer (*chilo zonellus, Swinh*):

PESTS. Of Jowar.

The caterpillars are dirty white with many spots on the body and with a brown head. The full-grown caterpillar measures about ½" to ¼" in length. The moths are straw-coloured with forewings pale yellowish grey having minute dots on the apical margin and white hind wings.

The caterpillars bore inside the stems causing thereby the drying of the central shoots called 'dead hearts'. Due to this stems and leaves turn red. The extent of damage is about 4 to 5 per cent.

Being an internal feeder, only preventive measures as given below are found practicable and economic: (1) The affected plants should be pulled out along with the caterpillars inside and destroyed promptly. (2) After harvest of the crop stubbles

should be collected and burnt to destroy the hibernating larvae. (3) The fodder to be fed to cattle should be cut into small pieces and fed.

CHAPTER 4 Agriculture and Irrigation. PESTS. Of Jowar.

Army worms (*cirphis unipuncta*):

Full-grown caterpillars are 1" to 1½" long, smooth, stout-bodied, dull greenish coloured with broad light-coloured strips running along its length on either side of the body. They are found in the central whorl of plants, or may remain under stubbles around the plants under soil.

The caterpillars feed on leaves mostly at night, while during the day they remain hidden in the whorl or in the clods underground. They migrate from one field to another when their food is exhausted and hence the pest is called 'army worms'. The pest is active from June to November. *Kharif* crops suffer more from it than *rabi* crops. It is observed that when a long dry spell follows a good start of the monsoon, the pest assumes epidemic form.

The pest can be controlled by adopting the following measures: (1) Collection of egg masses and their destruction, (2) If the attack is localised caterpillars may be collected and destroyed, (3) After the harvest of the crop, the infested fields should be ploughed to expose pupae. Insecticidal measures have been found very effective. Five per cent BHC or endrin dust, if properly dusted at the rate of 30 lbs. per acre, successfully, controls the pest. Dusting done in the evening, especially if there is less breeze, is more effective as the pest is a night feeder. If water is easily available, 50 per cent BHC wettable powder may be used as a spray after diluting 1 lb. in 25 gallons of water. About 80 to 100 gallons of spray per acre are needed to control the pest satisfactorily, depending on the size of the crop. 5 per cent BHC poison bait, when broadcast in the evening, will also control the pest, for crops like *nachani*, if it does not rain, and if the soil is dry.

Hoppers and aphids (*Peregrinus maidis, Ashm* and *Rhopalosiphum maidis*, F):

Delphacids (*Peregrinus maidis*, Ashm and Aphids (*Rhopalosiphum maidis*, F.) and responsible for causing the sugary secretion on jowar locally known as *chikta*. It is quite severe especially on *rabi* jowar. Delphacids are wedge-shaped, greenish, brown in colour with blackish spots on wings. Aphids are oblong and dark brown in colour having two projections called cornicles on the dorsal side of the abdomen. It is mostly found in the wingless stage.

Sugary secretion is seen on the leaves of the plant and also in the whorl. Ultimately the growing shoot of the plant is damaged and further growth is checked.

The problem of sugary disease is still under investigation ; however, spraying with 0.02 per cent diazinon, thiometon, endrin or dusting with 5—10 per cent BHC dust @ 20 lbs. per acre help in reducing the intensity of infestation of these pests.

Wheat stem-borer (*Sesamia inferens, Wlk.*):

The full-fed caterpillar is about one inch long, flesh coloured, smooth with a black head and dark spots on the body. Each dark spot bears a hair. They are found inside the stems of the affected plants. The moths are small and are straw-coloured. Their forewings have a marginal dark line and the hind wings are white.

The caterpillar bores inside the stem thus causing the drying of the central shoots then called 'dead hearts'. While entering the shoot, the initial feeding of the caterpillar on the whorl gives rise to numerous holes on the leaves which develop later on. Drying of the plant often leads to reddening of stems and leaves.

Being internal feeders, only preventive measures are found practicable and economic. In the early stage of infestation, the stems of plants showing dead hearts should be pulled out along with the caterpillars and they should be destroyed promptly. After the harvest of the crop, the stubbles should be collected and burnt so as to destroy the hibernating larvae. After harvesting the crop, wheat stalks which are used as fodder should be stored in the form of cut fodder.

Gram pod borer (*Heliothis armigera obsolata*) :

Of Gram.

The caterpillars are greenish with darker broken grey lines along the sides of the body. They are 1½" to 2" in length when full-grown. They feed on tender foliage and young pods. They make holes in the pods and eat the developing seeds by inserting the anterior half portion of their body inside the pods.

Preventive measures include hand picking of caterpillars and their destruction in the early stages of attack. Thorough ploughing after harvesting the crop in order to expose pupae is also often resorted to. The pest can be controlled by 0.2 per cent DDT spray obtained by diluting 1 lb. of 50 per cent water dispersible DDT powder in 25 gallons of water. About 60 to 80 gallons on a young crop and 100 gallons on a grown up crop are generally required.

Of Groundnut.

Aphids: They are small, black soft-bodied insects found on the lower side of leaves. It is a very important pest as it reduces the vitality and yield of plants by sucking the sap and also acts as the vector of a serious virus disease commonly known as 'Rosette' of groundnut. The pest is of sporadic occurrence in most parts of the State, but in Khandesh it frequently takes the form of an epidemic. The control measures are the same as those for aphids on safflower ; 10 per cent BHC dust also gives some relief.

The swarming caterpillar (*spodoptera mauritia, Boisd*):

The full-grown caterpillars measure 1¼" to 1½" long, dark greenish with slight yellow tinge. They can readily be distinguished from other caterpillars by the presence of white longitudinal dorsal stripes along the length of their body. Their heads are dark.

Immediately on hatching, the caterpillars feed on grass or young paddy seedlings. They are active only at night, and during the day they hide in leaf sheaths or leaf whorls or in soil if it is not flooded.

Preventive measures include protection of seed beds by deep trenching with steep sides and hand collection of egg masses and their destruction. The caterpillars during the day-time hide under clods, so trapping them under planks or small bunches of dry grass may be tried. Dragging a rope across the field may be resorted to after flooding the affected fields so that caterpillars in the leaf sheaths and whorls drop into the water. After the harvest of the crop, the affected fields should be ploughed to expose the pupae. The pest can also be successfully controlled by dusting 5 per cent BHC at the rate of 20 to 30 lbs. per acre. The dusting if done in the evening will give better control as the caterpillars come out to feed at night. Where rains are frequent, spraying BHC water dispersible powder by diluting, 5 lbs. of 50 per cent BHC in 100 gallons of water can be tried. 60 to 100 gallons of spray per acre should be used for effective control.

The Rice Case Worms (*Nymphulia Depunctalis Guen.*) :

The full-grown caterpillars are greenish white, ½" long and semi-aquatic and generally feeding on foliage inside tubular cases formed of pieces of paddy leaves. The caterpillars cut the paddy leaves into short lengths, construct tubular cases and remain inside them while feeding.

Preventive measures include removal and destruction of the tubular cases along with the caterpillars. In the early stages of the crop before flowering, rope-dragging may be tried to dislodge the caterpillars after flooding the infested field and putting a little crude oil into it. Insecticides recommended for the blue beetle and hispa will also control the pest to some extent. But one part of pyrethrum extract in 600 parts of water or 0.375% DDT spray obtained by mixing 7 to 8 lbs. of 50% water dispersible powder in 100 gallons of water has shown better results.

Of Chillis.

Thrips and mites: These pests suck the cell sap due to which the leaves get badly curled. It is locally known as *churda murda* disease. The extent of damages is about 25%.

0.2% BHC + sulphur (wettable) effectively controls the disease. 0.02% endrin + wettable sulphur (1 : 1) or 0.02% diazinon or 0.025% dieldrine + sulphur (1 : 1) are also found to be equally effective.

Spotted boll worm (*Earias fabia*, S. E. *insulana*, B.):

The adults of the former have pale white upper wings with a greenish band in the middle, while the adults of the latter have the upper wings completely greenish. The caterpillars of both the species, however, are brownish white and have a dark head and prothoracic shield. They have a number of black and brown spots on the body. The full fed larvae measures about ¾" in length. The other boll worms are pink in colour and with brown heads.

In the case of spotted boll worms, the caterpillars bore into the growing shoots of the plants in the initial stage of the crop. Later on when the flower buds appear the larvae bore into them and then enter the bolls by making holes which are plugged with excreta. The infested buds and bolls open prematurely. The caterpillars of the pink boll worm on the other hand never attack the shoots. They feed inside the bolls and make them drop down. The pest is more harmful to American cotton varieties than to the Indian ones. As the caterpillars bore the bolls, the entry holes get closed and it becomes difficult to spot out the affected bolls until such bolls drop down. The pest is active from July to December, while the winter season is passed in the larval stage.

The controlling measures of the pest include: (1) Fumigation of seed before sowing with carbon-di-sulphide @ 2 ozs. per 15 cu. feet or heating the seed at 145° F. to destroy the hibernating pink boll worm larvae. (2) Six dustings with 10% DDT + 2% lindane + 40% sulphur mixture or with 1% endrin dust and (3) Six sprayings at fortnightly intervals with 1 oz. of 20% E. C. endrin in 4—6 gallons of water starting from a month prior to flowering. It is desirable to add an equal quantity of sulphur to avoid mite incidence.

Red cotton bug (*Dysdercus singulatus*, Fabr.):

The adults and nymphs suck plant sap and greatly impair the vitality of the plant. They also feed on the seeds and lower their oil content. The excreta of these insects soils the lint.

The pest can be controlled by collecting the adults and nymphs in large numbers by shaking them in a tray containing little kerosene added to ordinary water. In case the pest becomes serious, the crop may be treated with 5% BHC.

Jassids (*Empoasca devastans*, Dist.):

The adult is wedge-shaped about 2 mm. long and pale green in colour. The front wings have a black spot on their posterior parts. The nymphs are wingless and are found in large numbers on the lower surfaces of leaves. They walk diagonally in relation to their body.

Both the nymphs and adults suck the cell sap from the leaves as a result of which the leaf margin turns yellowish and in case of excessive infestation etiolation and drying up of leaves followed by stunted growth take place.

5% DDT dust mixed with an equal quantity of sulphur at the rate of 15 to 20 lbs. per acre effectively controls the pest. However, the use of DDT alone should be discouraged as many times it leads to excessive increase in aphid or mite population. DDT and sulphur mixture should not be used for Indian or Asiatic cotton, as sulphur scorches these varieties severely. O. 2% spray of DDT 50% water dispersible and sulphur water dispersible is very effective against jassids. 4 ozs. or 2 ozs. of endrin per acre or 0.01% to 0.02% parathion also effectively control the pest.

Aphids (*Aphis gossypii*, Glover):

The adult is oblong about 1 mm. long and dark yellowish green in colour. It is mostly found in the wingless stage. The nymphs and adults suck the cell sap from the leaves due to which the leaves turn yellowish and dry.

The pest can be effectively controlled by spraying nicotine sulphate at the rate of 1 lb. in 80 gallons of water with 5 lbs. of soap. Spraying with pyrethrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1,000 parts of water also gives satisfactory results. Nearly 80 to 100 gallons of spray are required per acre. DDT should not be used for controlling the aphids. 2 ozs. to 4 ozs. of endrin per acre or 0.01% to 0.02% parathion are also effective against cotton aphids.

Mealy bugs (*Ferrisiana virgata*, CKLL.):

The adult female is pale yellow in colour and her body is covered with white meal and glossy threads. Her average length is 2.6 to 3 mms. Newly hatched nymphs are light yellow in colour. The male adult is rarely winged. Adults and nymphs are seen congregating on the lower surface of the leaves and shoots of cotton plants. Both the adults and nymphs suck the juice of the leaves and tender shoots, with the result that the plant gives a stunted and whitish appearance. The feeding also causes curling and chlorosis.

Spraying with 1% fish oil rosin soap, 0.03% diazinon or parathion and 0.10% malathion helps in reducing the pest infestation.

Mites (*Eriophes gossypii*, Bank):

The adults are minute with an oval body and four pairs of legs. They are usually found on the lower surfaces of leaves.

The nymphs and adults usually feed on the lower surface of the leaves. In case of severe infestation complete defoliation of plants is caused. Spraying of 0.05% aramite, 0.03% dichlorobenzilic acid (akar) and 0.02% parathion and 0.02% sulphur effectively control the pest.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

PESTS.

Of Tur.

Tur plume moth (*Exelustes atomosa*):

The full-grown caterpillars are about ½" long, greenish brown in colour and fringed with short hairs and spines. They bore into green pods and feed on the developing seeds.

Preventive measures are the collection of caterpillars by shaking shoots and pods in small trays containing kerosenised water and avoiding to take leguminous crops in the same fields in successive years. The insecticidal measures given under the gram pod borer can be tried with advantage.

Of Sesamum.

The pests of sesamum are the gall fly, the sphinx-caterpillar, and the pod-sucking bug. Gall fly (*Aspondylia sesami Felt*) *pili*: The adult is like a small delicaet mosquito. The maggots are found inside the young flowers. The irritation causes gall formation and interferes with the process of pod formation. The insecticidal measures are not yet worked out. Preventive measures such as clipping and destroying the infested buds can be followed.

DISEASES.

Of Paddy.

Paddy blast (*Karpa*):

This disease is first manifested on leaves as small spindle-shaped brown spots with white centres. These spots grow in size and coalesce with each other. If the attack is at the time of emergence of the earheads, the necks are rotten and turned black. Such heads may not develop grains. If the attack is after the formation of grains, the necks do not support the weight of the panicles. The disease is prevalent on seedlings during July and August and on grown up crops during September-November.

The controlling measures include: (1) spraying of Bordeaux mixture 3:3:50 or any copper compound containing 50% metallic copper, (2) seed treatment with organo mercuria, and (3) dipping the seedlings in Bordeaux mixture before transplanting.

Bacterial Blight of paddy (*karpa* or *kad karpa*):

Some water soaked streaks and yellow bacterial ooze are seen at the margins. The disease is prevalent during August and September. The disease can be controlled by destroying the debris of the plants after harvest and also by spraying the mixture of endrin 0.02% and copper oxychloride 0.3% three times at an interval of 20 days.

Of Wheat.

Black stem rust (*tambera*):

The disease appears as reddish brown elongated linear eruptive spots known as pustules mostly on stem and also on leaves, leaf sheath and awns in early part of the season. When the pustules are rubbed by thumb, a brownish powder smears on the surface of the thumb. This reddish brown powder contains spores called uredospores. Later on the endophytoc mycelium gives second type of black coloured sori or black pustules at the same erupted spot or side by side. The black pustules contain blackish powder consisting of spores called telentospores, or last spores. The disease occurs from November to February. Resistant varieties *viz.*, Kenphad — 25, MED — 345, KCN, Hy — 65, NI — 917, NI — 315, NI — 146, NI — 284 — 5, NI — 28, NI — 62, for irrigated crops and selection 59, and 125 for dry crops can be grown to control the disease.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

DISEASES.

Of Wheat.

Loose smut (*kani* and *kajali*):

The rachis and awns are affected and loose blackish powder is formed in place of grains. The blackish powder consists of spores of the fungus. The disease is prevalent from January to March. The following special method has been evolved to control the disease effectively.

Soak the seed in cold water from 8 to 12 a.m. during the first fortnight of May, then spread the seed on galvanised iron sheets in hot sun for four hours and stir the seed periodically. Subsequently dry the seed in shade. After the drying, treat the seed with insecticides like D. D. T. and B. H. C.

Of Groundnut.

Tikka:

Some conspicuous round purplish brown spots appear on the small plants. The spots later on increase in size and become blackish in colour. The spots caused by cercospora arachidicola are irregular, circular, black often confluent, varying in size from 1 mm. to 1 cm. in diameter and surrounded by a yellowish zone, blending into green. While the spots caused by cercospora personata are more or less circular, varying in size from 1 mm. to 7 mm. dark brown to black in colour and the lower surface of the spots marked with concentric stromatic rings of conidiophores. The spots are surrounded by a bright yellow halo. The disease occurs from August to October.

The disease can be effectively controlled by spraying the crop in the third week of July with 3: 3: 50 Bordeaux mixture or any copper fungicide containing 50% metallic copper. A second spraying in the month of August and a third one in the third week of September give good results. Dusting with 200-300 mesh sulphur @ 15-20 lbs. per acre can also control the disease.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

In historical times the district which was under the Gonds first passed under the Maratha rule and then under the British rule. These rules had their own systems of land revenue which they imposed upon the district. Under the Gonds, the system of land revenue was founded on what could be termed as a purely *rayatwari* basis. Without actually asserting a definite title in the ownership of the soil, the State claimed a right to share in its produce, and possessed a fairly elaborate organisation for the realisation of its dues. The whole of the *khalsa* area of the district was then subdivided into *Killas* consisting of a varying number of villages, each *killa* being under a *killedar* or a *diwan*, assisted by an establishment, the chief officers of which were the *Deshmukh, Deshpande* and *Sir Mukaddam* who held an intermediate position between the *killedar* and the village officials.

Later, when the Marathas took over, they removed these intermediate officials, retaining only the general manager, who was then called *kamaishdar* and whose charge was styled a pargana, the keeper of the government accounts, afterwards called *phadnavis*, and the *warar pandia* or recorder of the village accounts. Of the village officials, the patel was the most important. He served as an agent of Government for apportioning and collecting the revenue as assessed on his village and was absolutely responsible for its payment. He also possessed a subordinate and rather undefined judicial authority. As a remuneration for this agency and responsibility, the patel received rent-free land or money usually equivalent nominally to one-fourth of the Government demand, but actually amounting to not more than one-sixth of that demand when various customary deductions had been made. The office was neither saleable nor hereditary, although in actual practice it very commonly passed from father to son. The patel was assisted by a *pandia*, or village accountant and a *kotwal*.

All village lands were held on a yearly lease, granted to the cultivators by the patel. No cultivator was entitled to hold the same fields in perpetuity, nor was it the practice to grant leases for more than one year.

Under the British, between 1818 and 1830 the levy of *bargans* was abolished. Settlements were made at first for two, then for three, and lastly for five years. At the three years settlement, a system of progressive assessment known as the *tahut bandobast* was very generally introduced into the Brahmapuri and Chimur parganas. Preference was given to existing patels, provided that they offered a reasonably high rate for their villages. An important change was effected in the position of the *lagwan*, which now became the basis for the assessment instead of being, as heretofore, a mere record of the distribution of the aggregate village assessment. The change was fatal to the trustworthiness of the *lagwan*, since patels had now an object in understating the rents.

In 1853, an end was put to the previous revenue systems by the lapse of the Nagpur kingdom to the British government. In 1862-63, the first regular settlement was started and was completed in 1868-69. The conferment of the proprietary status upon the *patels* was the remarkable feature of the first settlement.

But these *patels* had fallen into the habit of making illicit gains out of their rayats to supplement their legal allowance. In 1860, the then Government of India formally sanctioned the conferment of proprietary rights upon patels, by this time renamed *malguzars*, a term borrowed from the North-West Provinces. The actual rental demand, except in the case of privileged tenants, was left to the discretion of the *malguzars*. However, the conferment of the occupancy status on tenants — at — will turned the tables on the *malguzars*. In addition to deciding

the proprietary title to villages, the proprietary titles were awarded to plots. The following classes of holders were given proprietary rights in their plots in the *khalsa*:—

(1) In villages where the standing of the *malguzars* did not exceed 20 years, all rayats of 12 years occupancy and over who had held their plots longer than the *malguzars* had held the village;

(2) In villages where the standing of the *malguzars* exceeded 20 years, those rayats who had materially improved their plots and had held such plots longer than the *malguzars* had held the village;

(3) Relations of present *malguzars* or of former *patels*, who were holding rent free, or at favourable and fixed rates;

(4) Holders of privileged tenure plots; and

(5) Holders of resumed privileged tenure plots. Altogether 3,914 holdings with an area of 46587.110 hectares (107,706 acres) and a revenue demand of Rs. 31,509 were thus awarded in proprietary right.

Besides these proprietary plots there were various other holdings in the *khalsa*. They were *mukasa*, *nakta*, and *tukum*. Of these *mukasa* grants were theoretically absolutely revenue free having been granted either in charity, or for the subsistence of relatives or retainers of the sovereign, or in reward for military, religious or other services. *Makta* grants were given at a fixed annual demand, in theory not liable to alteration, the grantee undertaking to improve cultivation or bring jungle under the plough. The *tukum* grant, one of the most ancient and admirable features of the Gond system, invested the builder of a tank with as much land as the tank could water, at a fixed demand which was in theory not open to enhancement. Under the Marathas, *makta* and *tukum* grants were attached upon the death of the holder, but were usually renewed on payment of heavy *nazrana* by the heir. Muleasa grants were usually allowed to pass to a successor without a fine.

The tenant classes were accorded high protection. Absolute occupancy rights were granted in the *khalsa* parganas to the rayats whose possession carried with it something of a hereditary character, who had expended such capital on their fields as to give them some special title, who were relations of present *malguzars*, or former *patels*, rayats of new villages who had held their fields since the villages were founded, or since their fields had been reclaimed from the jungle, who held there fields from a date antecedent to the proprietor's connection with the village as landlord, rayats cultivating land which had descended to them by inheritance, provided the hereditary possession had lasted not less than 20 years, and to the rayats of villages in which the *malguzar* was an absentee and had held under 20 years. About the tenants-at-will, they were promoted to the occupancy class.

The first settlement was thus for twenty years and expired in 1889. The revision settlement operations, therefore, were started in 1897 but this work had to be postponed till 1906 due to the famine conditions which prevailed between 1897 and 1906. This revision settlement was guaranteed for twenty years.

Because of its size (the district is still the largest one in the State) and diversity of natural conditions prevailing in it, the district at the time of second revision settlement was divided into two parts. The first such division consisted of Chandrapur, Warora and Brahmapuri tahsils to the west of Wainganga river and which contained *malguzari* and *rayatwari* villages. The second comprised Gadhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils to the east of the river. These tahsils as compared to those in the first division were very backward due to dense forests and scanty communications. In these tahsils the *Zamindari* system was followed in the main. This second revision settlement again guaranteed for another twenty years was introduced in 1920-21 and lasted till 1940-41.

Under the *malguzari* system, the *malguzar* was allowed to manage the village on payment of revenue to Government leaving about one-third of the gross rental as his remuneration. The proprietary rights were conferred on the revenue farmers, village *patils* and *malguzars*. Under the *zamindari* system on the other hand, the *zamindars* had full proprietary rights in their estates. These *zamindars* paid only quit rent to Government. They had also the right of dividing or alienating their lands.

All such proprietary rights, however, were abolished by the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Land) Act, 1950. The systems such as *malguzari, zamindari* and *jagiri* were replaced by the *rayatwari* land system. Various defects such as uncertainty and the oppressive nature of rents, insecurity and evictions of tenure, etc.; were also remedied. This was achieved by the Tenancy Act, 1948. There are thus two categories of tenure holders, (a) the *bhumi swami* and (b) the *bhumi dhari*. Both of them have to pay land revenue, can improve their land for the purpose of agriculture and divert agricultural land to other uses with the permission of the Deputy Commissioner. The only difference is that while the *bhumi-swami* has a full right of transfer of his land and has full rights over all trees in his land, the *bhumi dhari* cannot transfer his interest other than by way of mortgage and has a right to all trees other than timber trees. In addition there are Government lessees who are granted lease under Section 164 of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and hold land according to the condition of the lease granted. The following table gives information about the number of tenure holders of each of the above-mentioned categories, the area, etc., in all the tahsils of the district except Rajura tahsil (as the same formed a part of the Adilabad district of the former Hyderabad State and was transferred to Nanded in 1956 and then again to Chandrapur district

in 1959, and is, therefore, governed in the present context by the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950.). The following table gives information regarding *bhumi swami, bhumi dhari* and Government lessees:—

TABLE No. 31

INFORMATION REGARDING KINDS OF TENURE HOLDERS, AREA AND ASSESSMENT, 1965.

Tahsil	Kinds of Tenure holders	No. of Tenure holders	Area in hectares	Assessment
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
				(Rs)
Chandrapur	Bhumi swami ..	10,879	104,604·72	79,030·05
	Bhumi dhari	34,681	252,021·27	15,954·54
	Government lessees ..	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
Warora ..	Bhumi swami	15,315	187,346·47	1,27,089·09
	Bhumi dhari	31,528	307,244·82	2,04,349·66
	Government lessees ..	5	355·19	586·37
Brahmapuri	Bhumi swami	12,709	69,132·99	88,339·33
	Bhumi dhari	40,409	156,784·15	1,81,625·29
	Government lessees ..	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
Gadhchiroli	Bhumi swami	7,133	71,288·42	59,902·38
	Bhumi dhari	35,998	251,456·27	1,69,602·50
	Government lessees ..	65	538·85	370·89
Sironcha ..	Bhumi swami	1,062	6,938·27	6,459·28
	Bhumi dhari	24,621	129,920·54	1,01,075·23
	Government lessees ..	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.

Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region) Act, 1958.

There are no protected tenants in any of the above-mentioned tahsils of the district. The total number of tenants as enlisted under Section 7 of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region) Act, 1958 are as follows:—

TABLE No. 32

TOTAL NUMBER OF ORDINARY AND OCCUPANCY TENANTS IN THE DISTRICT, 1965.

Tahsil	Kinds of Tenants	Total number	Area in hectares	Assessment
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
				Rs.
Chandrapur ..	Ordinary ..	11,736	41,782·94	1,88,079·03
	Occupancy ..	125	243·57	357·35
Warora	Ordinary ..	13,331	72,488·48	53,308·75
	Occupancy ..	216	1,321·89	1,404·61
Brahmapuri ..	Ordinary ..	6,584	17,475·70	..
	Occupancy ..	129	451·37	..
Gadhchiroli ..	Ordinary ..	6,596	143·92	..
	Occupancy ..	45	28,851·59	..
Sironcha	Ordinary ..	1,250	..	..
	Occupancy ..	..	..	..

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1958 has come into force in the district since 30th December 1958. The Act has regulated all the tenancy rights in the district. It provides security of tenure to, and payment of only reasonable rents by, the tenants. In fact, the intention in introducing this Act in his region was to bring the status and rights of tenants as far as possible on par with those prevailing in other parts of the State. Amendments to this act were introduced in the subsequent years, *viz.*, 1959, 1960, 5 of 1961, 27 of 1961 and 2 of 1962. Of these the last two amendments were introduced with a view to safeguarding the interests of the tenants and to give a fair chance to small land-holders to resume land for personal cultivation. Similarly, a chance was given to the transferees to get their transfers which had been made because of the ignorance of the then existing provisions validated on payment of penalty, by introducing a new section, *viz.*, 120-A. Later on, in pursuance of the "Land to the tiller" policy, the Act provided for compulsory transfer of ownership rights of tenanted lands to the tenants from April 1st, 1961. This day is since then known as the "tiller's day". The tenants created after the above-mentioned date and who were in possession of the tenanted lands on that date were made eligible for compulsory transfer of land in their favour.

The following figures indicate the progress of the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region) Act, 1958 in the district.

TABLE No. 33

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TENANCY ACT IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1965.

Sections of the Act (1)	No. of cases filed under the Act (2)	No. of cases disposed of (3)	No. of cases pending (4)	No. of cases decided in favour of tenants (5)	No. of cases decided in favour of landlords (6)	Other cases (7)
7 (2) ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
8 ..	1,495	1,494	1	611	883	..
10 ..	..	..	..	..	..	25
12 ..	32	30	2	3	2	..
14 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
15 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
18 (4) ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
19 ..	2	..	2	..	..	..
20 and 21	17,912	17,910	2	4,265	13,645	..
30 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
36 and 38..	5,886	5,861	25	2,399	3,462	..
39 ..	5,791	5,789	2	3,637	2,152	..
39-A ..	29	29	..	18	11	..
43 ..	17	16	1	6	10	362
46 ..	13,977	3,188	10,789	104	2,722	..
49-A* ..	13,035	2,670	10,365	802	1,862	
Total ..	58,176	36,987	21,189	11,845	24,755	387

The Agricultural Lands Tribunals have started functioning in all the tahsils of the district since 1964-65. The progress of work of these tribunals under Sections 46 and 49-A of the Act is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 34

WORKING OF THE AGRICULTURAL LANDS TRIBUNALS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1965.

Agricultural Lands Tribunal (1)	Sections of the Act (2)	Cases so far registered (3)	Probable number of cases to be registered (4)
Chandrapur	46	3,592	Nil.
	49-A	1,676	175
Warora	46	56,157	Nil.
	49-A	1,668	4,539
Brahmapuri	46	1,630	100
	49-A	476	200
Gadhchiroli	46	2,203	900
	49-A	1,411	1,554
Sironcha	46	937	Nil.
	49-A	7,731	Nil.

The information in respect of tenure holders in Rajura tahsil attached to this district where the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950 is in force, is given in the following statements. This Act came in force from 10th June 1950. During the subsequent period between 31st March 1951 and 26th January 1962, about fourteen Acts were enacted and were introduced in this tahsil.

Nature of tenure (1)	No. of Khatedars (2)	Area in hectares* (3)	Assessment (4)
			Rs.
(1) *Khalsa* lands including abolished tenures.	3,758	84,914·454 (209,828·00)	1,98,606·62
(2) Service *Inam* Lands	1,228	21,228·613 (52,457·00)	49,651·32
(3) Land granted to landless persons under Pilot Scheme.	2,254	7,068·707 (17,467·14)	Not fixed.

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

The total number of tenants in Rajura tahsil with their due classification is as under:—

Nature of tenants (1)	No. of Khatedars (2)	Area in hectares* (3)
(1) Protected tenants of 1950 (34)	839	2,621·637 (6,478·20)
(2) N. P. T. S. of 1956 (37-A)	220	919·175 (2,271·33)
(3) N. N. P. T. S. declared at the time of work-sheet, 37-A, 1965.	337	1,300·681 (3,214·05)
(4) O. T. S. u/s 8	2,863	13,903·501 (34,356·27)

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

The progress of work under the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950 in Rujura tahsil is as under:—

TABLE No. 35

ADMINISTRATION OF THE HYDERABAD TENANCY AND AGRICULTURAL LANDS ACT, 1950 IN RAJURA TAHSIL, 1965.

Sections of the Act (1)	No. of cases filed under the Act (2)	No. of cases disposed of (3)	No. of cases pending (4)	No. of cases decided in favour of tenants (5)	No. of cases decided in favour of landlords (6)	Other cases (7)
11 ..	2	2	..	..	2	..
19 ..	345	329	16	148	181	..
28 ..	246	237	9	66	171	..
32-1 ..	140	137	3	95	42	..
32-2 ..	51	43	8	20	23	..
37-A ..	3,422	3,422	..	2,602	820	..
38 ..	3	..	3	..	..	..
38-A ..	106	76	30	..	..	76
38-E ..	3,956	3,917	39	2,812	1,105	..
38-E (Expl.)	431	130	301	130	..	..
38-3 ..	2,602	2,580	22	..	..	2,580
44 ..	753	727	26	580	247	..
46 ..	1	..	1	..	..	..
51 ..	2	..	2	..	..	..
98-A, B, C.	3,354	2,628	726	..	..	2,628
Total ..	15,414	14,228	1,186	6,453	2,591	5,284

There was a large number of landless labourers, who served on the farms in various capacities during the harvest season. Till the end of the 19th century and the beginning of this century the wages paid to these labourers were very low as compared to the wages received by them today. Following is an account[1] of agricultural wages prevalent till 1909 when the old gazetteer was published:—

"An able-bodied agricultural labourer earned Rs. 4-8 per month in 1893, Rs. 5-2 in 1895, Rs. 4-12 in 1897 and Rs. 5 in 1898. His wages were reduced to Rs. 3-12 in 1899, a rate which continued till 1901, as a result of the famine of 1900. They recovered to Rs. 4-11 in 1902 and 1903 and at the present time (1908) the wages of agricultural labour vary from 2 annas to 3 and 4 annas a day. In the towns of Warora and Chandrapur coolies can earn 4 to 6 annas daily. These rates are for males only. Females get half the wages of males. A common blacksmith earned Rs. 9-8 per mensem in 1893. During the next four years his earnings varied between Rs. 10 and Rs. 10-8 and fell to Rs. 9-8 in 1898 as a result of famine in 1897. Since then they have improved and we find Rs. 11-4 recorded during the following three years. In 1902 they rose to Rs. 13-2 and in 1903 to Rs. 15 a month. Now (in 1908) he receives 8 annas a day in Sironcha, 12 annas in Chandrapur and up to a rupee in Warora. A common mason is shown as having earned Rs. 10-6 a month in 1893, Rs. 13 in 1895, Rs. 12-8 in 1897, Rs. 10-5 in 1899 and Rs. 11-4 in 1900. The wages improved in 1902 and 1903 when he received Rs. 13-2 as his monthly income. In 1908 he got 10 annas a day rising to a rupee in Warora. A common carpenter who is better paid than either the blacksmith or the mason earned Rs. 12 a month in 1893, Rs. 12-4 in 1869, Rs. 14 in 1898 and Rs. 12-9 in 1899. In 1900 he received Rs. 13-2 and since then his wages have decidedly improved, having risen to Rs. 14 a month in 1901, Rs. 15 in 1902 and Rs. 18-12 in 1903. In 1908 he was getting from 12 annas a day to Rs. 1-4, the latter being the rate obtainable in Warora."

Formerly *i.e.*, when the first gazetteer of the district was written, the agricultural servant was denominated by various local names which differed from one tahsil to another. In Chandrapur tahsil for instance, the common term for an agricultural servant in regular employment was *awari*, while in Warora he was called *saha Koruya manus* or the man getting 6 *kuros*. In Sironcha the Telugu word *paleru* was used. The dependants of these *awari* and 6 *kuros* *i.e.* his wife or his small son, if they used to assist his duties, they were called *rapte*. The farm servants then used to receive the bulk of their wages in grain. At the time of the first settlement the servant of a rice cultivator

[1]. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, Vol. A, 1909; pp. 215-16.

received about 690.50 Kg. (740 seers)[1] of rice as his yearly wage besides grain perquisites amounting to 293.928 Kg. (315 seers). But afterwards due to the tendency in the rice tract of reducing the actual amount of grain paid to the farm-servant his yearly wage was reduced to 559.86 Kg. (600 seers) and the grain perquisites amounting to about 121.304 Kg. (130 seers), only. Subsequently, however, the prices had risen roughly cent per cent which resulted in the increase of the amount of grain remuneration from 592.52 Kg. (635 seers) of jowar at the last settlement to 676.50 Kg. (725 seers) in about 1909. During this period the fixed monthly wage of a farm-servant in regular employ in the rice tract was 5 *kuros* of *dhan* per mensem, and 6 *kuros* in the Warora tahsil. In the open field tract the monthly rate was 5 *kuros* and 2 *pailis* of jowar.

In either case, *i.e.*, if he was in the regular employ in the rice tracts or in the open field tracts, the agricultural servant used to get considerable amount of grains by way of perquisites of various kinds. Thus in the open field tract, the farm-servant used to get a *paili* of each kind of grain sown and for watching the crops he was entitled to get three *pailis* of jowar remuneration each day. A curious custom[2], that besides his remuneration for watching the crop, the servant sometimes used to get a fighting cock worth about Rs. 5 was also in vogue. On bazar days in the cold weather these cocks were set to fight each other with iron spurs tied on to their feet, and the owner of the winning cock took the vanquished bird. In addition the farm-servant had the right of gleaning the field (*sarwa*) and other remunerations such as *wadga* or basketful of grain for his share of the work of cutting and bringing the crop to the threshing floor, a pourboire of four annas during the damp process of transplantation, etc. Above all he used to get Rs. 2 to buy himself a blanket (*waz*) and Re. 1 or Rs. 1.4 to buy a pair of shoes and free food at the festivals of *pola* and *nagpanchami*. Thus the remuneration that a servant used to get out of perquisites in those days was roughly estimated to be between half a *khandi* and one *khandi* besides the cash doles in a year.

Among other agricultural labourers were the casual labourers, the village graziers and village servants. The agricultural labourers who were usually employed at periods of exceptional pressure, used to get two *pailis* a day or if required to watch a crop at night, three *pailis*. Women were generally employed for sowing and weeding and were remunerated at the rate of one *paili* a day for the former and only three pice a day for the latter. Variations were found in the remunerations given to men and women, and they also differed from one crop to another. Thus for reaping jowar men got 4 *pailis* and women 2 *pailis* a day, for wheat two *pailis* of the grain for men, one *paili* for

1. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, Vol. A, 1909, p. 216.
2. *Ibid.* 217.

women. The picking of cotton on the other hand was paid for by a share of from 1/16th to 1/20th of the amount picked. For transplanting rice, a man was paid Re. 1 for five days while a woman got Re. 1 for ten days.

The *dhorki*, a regular village grazier was paid only one anna per month for each head of cattle under his charge. Sometimes two or three farmers together used to hire a boy to look after their animals, and well-to-do persons had a private grazier employed exclusively in their own service. Women were also employed as *shenakari* to collect and stack the cow-dung either for fuel or for manure.

The village servants then included *lohar* or *khati*, carpenter (*barhai*), barber (*mhali*, called *mangali* in Sironcha), *bhumak* or *deohari* (*permadu* in Sironcha), village priest (*joshi*), washerman (*wathi*) and *chamar* (*madgi* in Sironcha). All these servants then were remunerated in kind which varied, according to their importance, between two *kuros* and four *kuros* a year. In addition they were also given other perquisites, food on festivals, etc. The *lohar* for instance used to get 2 or 3 *kuros* a year, the *mhali* or barber and *wathi* or washerman, each of them received about four *kuros* a year. The poor tenants paid only two pice each time they required the services of a barber. The *bhumak* was engaged in worshipping the village gods. For this and other services he used to get one *kuro* from each tenant. During his round in the fields, the *joshi* was given about 4 to 8 *pailis*, and at the time of marriage Rs. 1.4.

This system of village servants was also known as the *balutedari* system. It is, however, gradually disappearing. Now the services of the servants are being paid in cash. The remunerative structure in the case of the servants and labourers in the district as a consequence of the changed economy has reached a stage where from a retrospective look, even for the facts, would be more of a doubtful nature. It is difficult to imagine even that a barber was paid only 2 pice at a time for the services he rendered, and that the *joshi* just in a casual round in the field received about 4 to 8 *pailis* of grains from every tenant.

The agricultural labour is now classified according to the Manual of Revenue Accounts, into three categories, *viz.*, (1) skilled, (2) ordinary and (3) field labour. The skilled labour comprises carpenters, blacksmiths and cobblers; ordinary labour includes load carrying coolies, well diggers, etc., while field labour comprises ploughmen, sowers, reapers, harvesters, weeders, etc. To this one more category is added, *viz.* herdsmen. Their main work is to collect live-stock from different farmers and to feed them in the jungle during the day and to bring them back in the evening.

Table No. 36 below gives average figures of the daily wages of different classes of agricultural labour. Perusal of the table shows that in 1963-64, the wages of the field labour, herdsmen,

other agricultural labour and cobblers increased considerably as compared to those in 1957-58 and 1960-61. The highest wage-rates of a field labourer in 1957-58, 1960-61 and 1963-64 were Rs. 1.25, 1.37 and Rs. 2.00, respectively, those of other agricultural labourer Rs. 1.19, Rs. 1.33, and Rs. 2.00, those of a herdsman Rs. 1.31, Re. 0.92 and Rs. 1.75, while a cobbler received Rs. 2.19 as his maximum wages in 1957-58 the same being Rs. 2.83 in 1960-61 and Rs. 4.25 in 1963-64.

The labour in general in the district is dominated by agriculture and its allied activities. Mainly because of this and other factors the labour participation rates in the district are higher than the State averages both for men and women. Smaller proportion of urban population to total population and the backward tribal economy in the district also account much for the larger labour participation. In the rice tracts of Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils women's participation is very high. As per the 1961 census of the district the percentage of agricultural labour in the district was 25.06 (men 19.35 per cent, women 31.68 per cent). The corresponding percentage for the State was 23.80 (men 18.12 per cent, women 32.90 per cent). In 1951 the agricultural labourers, inculding earning dependants, made 21.51 per cent of the total workers in the district. The corresponding proportion in 1961 increased to 25.06 per cent. The reason may be traced in the fast growth of population in the district and the proportionate low absorbing capacity of non-agricultural sectors.

In the district, according to the 1961 census figures, the highest percentage of agricultural labour (34.09) was found in the Warora tahsil while Chandrapur tahsil was ranked last having 19.78 per cent agricultural labourers. The larger proportion of agricultural labourers in Warora tahsil was mainly due to its cotton and oil-seeds crops. In Chandrapur tahsil on the other hand the bulk of the labourers was absorbed in mining, quarrying, forestry, live-stock, etc.

TABLE No. 36

AVERAGE AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT FOR 1957-58, 1960-61 AND 1963-64

(In Rupees and paise)

Year	Months	Carpenters	Blacksmiths	Cobblers	Field Labour	Other Agricultural Labour	Herdsmen
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1957-58	July	2·69	2·69	2·00	1·19	1·19	1·06
	August	2·69	2·69	2·00	1·19	1·19	1·06
	September	2·81	2·50	1·81	1·06	1·00	1·12
	October	2·62	2·31	1·69	1·12	1·06	1·12
	November	2·69	2·37	1·81	1·12	1·12	1·12
	December	2·81	2·69	2·00	1·12	1·12	1·19
	January	2·69	2·50	2·12	1·12	1·12	1·00
	February	2·81	2·62	2·12	1·12	1·12	1·31
	March	2·81	2·62	2·19	1·12	1·12	1·00
	April	2·69	2·50	2·12	1·19	1·12	1·31
	May	2·69	2·50	2·12	1·19	1·12	1·31
	June	2·69	2·50	1·87	1·25	1·12	1·31

TABLE No. 36—*contd.*

Year	Months	Carpenters	Blacksmiths	Cobblers	Field Labour	Other Agricultural Labour	Herdsmen
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1960-61	July	4·00	3·83	2·83	1·33	1·33	0·92
	August	3·50	3·25	2·67	1·25	1·17	0·87
	September	3·25	3·08	2·33	1·25	1·00	0·87
	October	3·21	3·21	2·21	1·20	1·12	0·87
	November	3·50	3·50	2·00	1·37	1·17	0·92
	December	3·66	3·25	2·37	1·37	1·08	0·92
	January	3·58	3·08	2·21	1·33	1·08	0·92
	February	3·58	3·08	2·50	1·33	1·08	0·92
	March	3·58	3·08	2·50	1·33	1·08	0·92
	April	3·75	3·75	2·33	1·17	1·12	0·92
	May	3·75	3·75	2·58	1·21	1·12	0·92
	June	3·83	3·67	2·33	1·17	1·08	0·92
1963-64	July	3·25	3·25	3·25	2·00	2·00	1·75
	August	3·25	3·00	3·00	2·00	2·00	1·75
	September	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·59	1·45	1·25
	October	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·55	1·45	1·25
	November	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·60	1·45	1·29
	December	3·20	3·20	2·83	1·60	1·45	1·37
	January	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·66	1·46	1·37
	February	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·66	1·46	1·46
	March	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·66	1·46	1·37
	April	3·25	3·20	2·83	1·66	1·46	1·37
	May	3·25	3·20	3·00	1·75	1·50	1·37
	June	3·25	3·20	3·00	1·75	1·46	1·37

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation.

FAMINE.

The Scarcity of 1897.

The agricultural year 1896-97 opened with the brightest prospects, and up to the end of August 1896 a bumper outturn harvest was confidently anticipated. But throughout September and October the rain held off altogether, and the crops rapidly deteriorated. The same condition of affairs continued into November and caused grave anxiety as to the fate of the spring crops. Hope was to some extent revived by a fall of rain at the end of November, but the ensuing months of the cold weather were exceedingly deficient in rainfall, and this had a disastrous effect on the *rabi* outturn. The outturns of rice, wheat and linseed, were only between one-half and one-quarter of the normal, and juari and til were the only crops which even approached the average. About the end of December 1896, reports of distress began to come in, especially from the zamindaris, where the rice crop had altogether failed, and District works were put in hand to relieve the situation. Want of water and fodder began to be felt in April and continued to increase till July. The people had sold the juari and rice straw which is usually reserved as fodder for cattle, and made no attempt to replace it by collecting leaves or storing grass. The mortality among cattle, which had been under 10,000 in 1896, rose to almost 25,000. Although the District was never officially recognised as distressed, it was for a long time on the verge of being so declared, and the situation was such as to call for measures of relief on a fairly large scale, both by the agency of the District officials and by private charity. Prices rose rapidly; in March 1897 they stood at one and a half, and in July 1897 at two and a half times their usual rates. The average price of rice during the period from October 1896 to October 1897 was 9.38 seers to the rupee, and of juari 12.48 seers. The highest prices reached at any period were 7.5 and 8.6 seers respectively. But it was not found necessary to take any special measures for the importation of grain except in Sironcha, where the cultivators had recklessly sold the whole of an excellent juari crop to traders from Hyderabad and Madras and as a result found their grain stocks entirely depleted. Even in Sironcha the importations were not on a large scale. On the other hand, exports of grain took place on such a large scale as to cause some apprehension; 59,218, maunds of grain left Warora in 1896 and 126,555 tons in 1897, as compared with an average of between 1100 and 1200 maunds in the two preceding years. Only two relief works under the management of the Public Works Department were taken in hand. These were a road from Ambagarh-Chauki in the northern zamindaris to Nandgaon, and a tank at Ambagarh-Chauki. The numbers at work on these never exceeded 2,700, and included many persons from adjoining Feudatory States. Tanks were also undertaken as local works in 20 other villages, and as loan works in 451 villages, the funds for these latter being provided by a grant of Rs. 48,000 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and by a special famine loan allotment of Rs. 1,15,000. Besides this, work on tanks to the value of Rs. 28,500 was done

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The Scarcity of 1897.

by the private enterprise of malguzars and zamindars. Gratuitous village relief, which had been commenced in the hot weather, came into full swing in July when the advent of the rains put an end to the tank work. Sixty-eight centres were formed and put in charge of non-official committees. To these centres all wanderers were sent for relief, and from them daily or weekly doles were made to indigent persons. The average number of persons thus relieved was 5836 and the maximum 8887 at the end of October. Kitchens were also established for children at various places, and the numbers attending these rose to 1652 in October 1897. Private charity was not idle and out of a sum of Rs. 55,000 contributed from this source in cash or kind, Rs. 17,500 represented subscriptions raised in the District, a larger sum than was collected in any other District of the Province. A contribution of over Rs. 30,000 from the Mansion House Fund was chiefly utilised in advances for the purchase of seed-grain, while the equally necessary provision of funds for the purchase of plough bullocks was secured by advances amounting to over Rs. 14,000 under the Agricultural Loans Act. Malguzars were induced to sell grain to their tenants at favourable rates, and cheap grain shops were opened at each tahsil headquarters and at three villages in the Lower Talukas of Sironcha. But the most far-reaching measures, and that which undoubtedly prevented the distress from becoming terribly acute in the zamindaris and in Sironcha, was the throwing open of the forests for the collection and removal of edible roots and fruit, grass and fuel. In this matter, and also in the initiation of tank work, an excellent example was set by Gangsha Bapu, the zamindar of Palasgarh, whose lead was followed by all the other zamindars. No remissions or suspensions of revenue were granted by Government, and the area under cultivation not only did not contract but actually expanded by some 34,000 acres. In spite of the undoubted distress that prevailed, the statistics of mortality were not high, and were actually lower than in the preceding year of comparative prosperity. But it may be doubted whether the official returns on this head are reliable. Certain it is that there was a very general impression that the gravity of the distress was consistently minimised, and that specially in the more remote tracts, the distress was very acute.

The interval between the famines.

The monsoon of 1897 broke late, and the situation up to the second week of July was critical in the extreme. But the rain came in time to avert disaster, and having once made a commencement, continued to fall seasonably so that both the autumn and spring crops were excellent, giving a combined outturn of 109 throughout the District. The year 1898-99 was not quite so favourable. There was an unusually heavy and continuous fall of 21 inches in July, which retarded weeding operations, but in September the rain ceased abruptly, and deficient rainfalls in October and November, followed by a rainless cold weather, were prejudicial to the spring crops. The combined outturn of the year was 73 per cent of the normal.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. Early History.

Chandrapur has, unhappily for itself, a long record of famine or scarcity, and the rice tract has been particularly unfortunate. There are no authentic records of famines prior to the 19th century, but the opening years of that century were one unbroken series of disasters. This was the period of the Pindari incursions when every village had its fort and men tilled and reaped with weapons girth at their side. Chandrapur lay in the full sweep of the Pindari raids of devastation, and suffered accordingly. Two years stand out as the worst of the series, *viz.*, 1804 and 1818. The latter was the year of the sack of Chanda by the British, when the general confusion was heightened and perpetuated by the confiscation of enormous numbers of cattle by the invaders. Of organised famine relief in these years there was none; it may rather be said that such organisation as there was in the unhappy country was directed towards accentuating the misery of its inhabitants. So great was the exhaustion of the countryside that it is said that in 1822 the population of Chandrapur was only half of what it had been in 1802.

The famine of 1832.

The next year of famine was 1832, and the cause was excessive rain accompanied by insect pests. A certain amount of relief was administered by the Maratha Government, which was still imbued with the traditions of the British Protectorate. The Government granaries were thrown open to the poor, and the local Banias were ordered to sell their stocks, the State undertaking to recoup them at the end of the famine.

The famine of 1868-69.

Chandrapur was one of the first Districts to feel the stress of the famine of 1868-69. In 1868, the monsoon broke unusually early and the ground became so saturated that the dahia method of cultivation which then prevailed through half the area of the District became impracticable. June and July were months of heavy rainfall, but were followed by three weeks of dry weather which ruined much of the rice and seemed about to compass the destruction of every kind of crop when the heavens once more opened, and for the next six weeks the weather was all that could be wished. But then ensued another rainless fortnight, and by September it became clear that the damage to rice was irremediable, and that the outturn of the other crops was not sufficient to counter-balance its failure. The wild roots, too, to which the poorer classes resort in default of more palatable food were this year unusually scanty, and a panic, accompanied by general outburst of crime, began to set in. The distress most acute in the north-east of the District which is the ch rice area, and emigration began to take place from this pa Relief works were, however, opportunely taken in hand, an checked this tendency. In September 1868, there were six suc works, but in April 1869 the number was increased to nine, fiv of which were directed to repairing tanks, and the other four t the construction of roads. The cost of these works wa Rs. 13,644 and was met out of a Pandhari grant. Advances t

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. The famine of 1868-69.

he amount of Rs. 5,500 were made to traders for the importa- on of grain, and storehouses were established at which grain as sold at cost price. Although emaciation was general, there ere only two recorded instances of death from actual starvation, nd there was not, as might have been expected, any unusual pidemic mortality. Nor did any large area drop out of cultiva- on. But it is said that the memory of this famine lingers in the ickname 'sixty-niner' which is still applied to anyone who wolfs' his food.

Bad years 1892—1895.

The District appears to have enjoyed immunity from scarcity henceforward until the early nineties. With the monsoon of 891, commenced the cycle of lean years which culminated in he famines of 1897 and 1900. Floods, followed by a rainless old weather, reduced the total outturn of the year 1891-92 to 0 per cent of the normal. The price of rice went up slightly and f juari by 4½ seers the rupee, but no distress was felt except mong the jungle tribes of Sironcha, who were relieved by the tep taken of throwing open to them forest blocks for the collec- ion of edible products. Road-work was commenced in certain ther distressed tracts, but did not attract many workers. In 892-93, the autumn crops, with the exception of kodon, fared oderately well, but heavy rains in the latter part of the cold weather induced rust in wheat and linseed, and the total outturn of the year was but 61 per cent of the normal. Prices, however, emained steady. The monsoon of 1893 was characterised by a ong break which seriously impeded the transplantation of rice, nd was followed by a continuous downpour, the consequence f which was that the rice plants were attacked by the disease known as *gad*, and the transplanted crop was almost entirely uined. Cloudy weather in the cold season brought about rust among the spring crops, and the total outturn of the year was only 53. Some anxiety was felt as to the situation in 1894, but prices still ruled steady and road-works, started as an experiment to ascertain the gravity of the distress, failed to attract labourers in any numbers. With the early rice harvest in October, all apprehension was set at rest. Nevertheless, the death rate of 1894 which rose to nearly 34 as compared with 27½ in 1893, and was accompanied by a stationary birth rate, indicated that the prolonged deficiency of harvests was beginning to tell on the population. The year 1894-95, though not quite so unfavourable as its predecessors, was not free from misfortunes; continuous rain in the early monsoon damaged juari and cotton, which subsequently suffered still further from a plague of caterpillars; linseed was much affected by rust, while the wheat plants were unhealthy and their ears failed to fill out satisfactorily. Rice however did well. The total outturn for all crops was 64 per cent.

The year 1895-96.

The following year, 1895-96, was a very fair one and an average outturn of 77 per cent of the normal enabled the agriculturist, if not to recoup the losses he had suffered of recent years, at any rate to maintain his position.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. The famine of 1900.

The hot weather of 1899 was characterised by abnormal showers which were read as an omen of disaster. The monsoon was rather late and very weak, less than two inches of rain being registered in July. In August there was a general and most welcome rainfall, which for a time improved prospects, but with September the rain practically ceased, and famine became assured. The total rainfall of the year was only 20 inches. Cotton did fairly well, but the rice failed almost entirely, and the total outturn for all crops was only 27 per cent of the normal. Prices went up with a rush in October 1899, and at Chanda reached in that month the high figure of 7 seers per rupee for rice and 9½ for juari, as compared with normal rates of 14 and 24 respectively. The Banias held up their stocks in the hopes of a further tightening of the market, but they were promptly countered by extensive importations by Government of Bengal rice. Over half a million maunds of food-grains were imported during the famine by rail alone, while it is impossible to say how much more came into the District by other means of transit. This policy eased the markets till May, when, owing to the expected advent of the rains which would render transport a matter of the greatest difficulty, prices again rose and thenceforward continued at a high level until the new rice harvest was assured. In the interior of the District, prices were still more stringent, and in some of the more remote parts never went below 5 seers to the rupee for rice during June and July 1900.

The official duration of the famine was from September 1899 to October 1900, but relief operations in this District continued till the end of the year. The scarcity was most intense in the trans-Wainganga tract. The Brahmapuri tahsil as a whole, depending as it does almost entirely upon the rice crop, was very severely hit, but Warora was less seriously affected, while true famine conditions can scarcely be said to have existed in Sironcha. Before the commencement of relief operations, the refusal of the Banias to sell their grain stocks provoked several grain riots, especially in the vicinity of Talodhi, but this tendency was promptly checked by the police. Want of water and fodder began to be felt in January, and by April nearly all wells were dry. Fortunately, the net-work of nullahs which covers the District provided a solution of the difficulty, so far as drinking water for human beings was concerned, and this was obtainable throughout the hot weather by digging holes in their beds. In the early part of 1900, some consolation was afforded by the unprecedented flowering of the bamboos which gave an unexpected supply of food to the poorer classes, and by the fair promise of the mahua crop. The numbers on relief fluctuated between 60,000 and 80,000 up to April, when suddenly the mahua crop absolutely failed, a wholly unforeseen calamity, the intensity of which cannot be exaggerated when it is considered to what an extent the large jungly population of this District depends on the products of the mahua for its food supply. The numbers on relief immediately rose with a bound, until at the

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. The famine of 1900.

end of May they stood at over 180,000. The sufferings of the cattle, meanwhile, were dreadful, as it was impossible to provide water for them. But the flood of disaster had not yet exhausted itself. In the middle of June, cholera broke out and raged furiously, and immediately over 40,000 people stampeded from the relief camps carrying the disease to the four corners of the District. Mr. Coxon, the Deputy Commissioner, wrote of this period:—'By the end of June every element of destruction appeared to have combined against the people of this District, and with the rains holding off, the prospects were of the gloomiest. The heat was something that had never before been experienced, and men were dropping daily from sunstroke. Cholera was raging to such an extent that it was found impossible to collect people together in any one place, even for the distribution of the money which was so urgently required for the purchase of food, while fires were sweeping villages off the face of the earth wholesale'. At length the monsoon broke, though late, dissipating the cholera epidemic, but even then, owing to the general poverty and the scarcity of seed-grain, pressure did not relax, and the numbers on kitchen relief went on increasing, until in September they rose to over 227,000. The nullahs were, with the advent of the monsoon, transformed from a blessing into a curse, constituting a most formidable barrier against the transit of grain, and rendering relief operations a matter of the greatest difficulty. About the middle of September, the numbers on relief began to decline, at first slowly, but in the early part of October by 5,000 or 6,000 a day, until by the end of that month they stood at only 77,000. Nevertheless, owing to the backwardness of the *kharif* harvest, the famine lingered on for a period not paralleled in the rest of the Province; mortality continued high and prices obstinately refused to fall. Whereas elsewhere famine relief practically ceased after the middle of November, in this District kitchens continued to the end of that month, and the village relief list was not finally closed till the end of the year.

Mortality.

The mortality from September 1899 to October 1900 was, according to the official returns, 51,663 deaths or 89.75 per mille of the population, and for the calendar year 1900 the rate of mortality was 96.62. The highest mortality for any one month was 17 per mille in June, when cholera was at its height. Over 43 per cent of the casualties took place among children under 10 years of age, and infant mortality was, owing to an abnormal number of births in the preceding year, especially heavy. Cholera accounted for 8,000 deaths, fever for 19,000 and bowel complaints for nearly 5,500. These latter are supposed to have been largely induced by the use of Bengal rice. Only one death was actually attributed to starvation, but an immense amount of the mortality from other causes must of course have been due to the reduced condition of the persons attacked.

Condition of the cattle.

If the condition of the people was pitiable, the fate of their cattle was still more appalling. Something was done towards

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. Condition of the cattle.

providing them with fodder, but the water difficulty was insuperable, and they died like flies from thirst. The exorbitant rates prevailing for cart-hire were the death of many a poor beast, driven till he dropped dead from sheer exhaustion. The sides of the road from Warora to Chandrapur were strewn along its whole length with corpses of animals which had perished thus, and the scenes at the river-crossings were too ghastly for description. The privation of water was not confined to domestic animals. Tigers were shot or stoned to death in village wells. One officer, adapting himself to the circumstances of the time, sat over a trough of water in place of the usual buffalo, thus securing on one occasion two tigers in one beat. Strangest of all, during well-deepening operations in Alapalli in the month of May, there were simultaneously found alive in one well seven monkeys, one nilgai, three sambhar, and five bison, a collection which was the makings of no mean menagerie. When the rains came, and the starving survivors of the cattle fell upon the young grass, the mortality caused by the surfeit of food acting on their impaired digestive organs was something frightful. Altogether it was estimated by Mr. Coxon that at least 120,000 or 25 to 30 per cent of the entire stock of cattle must have perished. Plough cattle alone, which would naturally have been most carefully preserved and earliest replaced, decreased by 20,000 in the year.

The measures of relief taken to combat the situation were admirably organised and worthy of its gravity. In the words of one of those who were relieved 'it was all very wonderful, and the Sarkar regarded money as *gitti*, so long as the people were kept alive'. The direct expenditure on the several heads of famine relief amounted to 23 lakhs, and out of this expenditure 30¾ million day units were relieved at an incidence per diem of 1.19 annas per unit. Suspensions of land revenue amounted to 2.15 lakhs, while the value of forest concessions was 1.62 lakhs. The amount of land revenue suspended represents 74 per cent of the total demand, and in fact the only sums collected were those due from non-rice villages. Besides this, Government distributed 3.65 lakhs in taccavi loans to enable the cultivators to complete their sowings for 1900-01, while 1.86 lakhs were distributed in free gifts for the same purpose to the poorer cultivators out of the Charitable Relief Fund. Within the District itself, a sum of over Rs. 68,000 was collected by private subscription on the understanding that it should be all disbursed locally. Nearly Rs. 30,000 of it was utilised in buying clothes from local weavers and was thus made to serve twice over for purposes of relief.

Measures of relief.

No poor houses or pauper wards were established. Kitchens were organised at the commencement of the famine, but were discontinued for a time in the *khalsa* when the camps opened, although in the zamindaris they were always a main feature. Relief camps under the management of the Public Works Department were opened in October, and formed the backbone

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. Measures of relief.

of the operations until well on in the hot weather. The total number of Public Works charges opened was sixteen, and the maximum open at any one time was fifteen. The largest number of workers on relief at any time was 80,895 on the 12th of May, or over 72 per cent of the total numbers on famine relief at that time. The Forest Department, besides forming camps for the construction of two roads, with tank works annexed, took in hand extensive fodder operations for the supply of Wardha and the Bombay Presidency; 26 grass depots were established and 7,109 tons of grass collected. The maximum number relieved by forest works was rather over 9,000 towards the end of May. Other fodder operations in the zamindari forests of the north were put in charge of the Manager of the Court of Wards, and, though not financially successful, gave useful relief to the neighbouring population. Tank schemes involving an expenditure of 3¼ lakhs were drawn up, and numerous tanks were taken in hands as village works. At the close of the hot weather 179 such works were in operation and the number of workers on them was over 26,000. In April, the failure of the mahua crop necessitated special measures, and an enormous impetus was given to kitchen relief. A special staff had to be engaged, as it was no longer possible to manage the kitchens by the agency of volunteers. With the opening of the rains, the relief policy had to be modified to suit the altered conditions. Relief camps became unsuitable, as the one great object was to make the people go back to their villages, and let them work in the fields, in the meanwhile feeding them and keeping them in health. Village relief now became the order of the day, and the form which it took was chiefly the extension of the kitchen system. In July, the rush was so great that 200 subsidiary kitchens were started and put in charge of *mukaddams*. The highest number of kitchens simultaneously at work at any one time was 239, with 161,443 inmates. All inmates were required to do some service in return for their food, and gratuitous relief was confined to cripples, blind persons, and the dependants of kotwars. Relief in return for work in village (B list relief) was found especially necessary in the case of cultivators of small means, and was more freely resorted to than in any other District of the Province. The workers were mainly employed in carrying grain to kitchens and depots. The numbers on B list relief reached a maximum of over 54,000 about the middle of September. The maximum number of persons on relief of all kinds at any one time was 180,673 during the open season and 224,799 during the rains. This latter figure represented 32 per cent of the total population.

Famine works

Of the sixteen roads taken in hand by the Public Works Department, none were actually brought to completion although earth and *murum* were laid along 32 miles of the road from Warora to Chimur. Nineteen tanks were, however, constructed as annexes to these roads, and notably four very fine tanks were built at Naotalla. The Forest Department constructed an

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE.

excellent second-class road 18 miles in length from Chandrapur to Moharli and another 5½ miles in length from Alapalli to Ahiri, besides some tanks. Altogether, as village or forest works, 4 new tanks were constructed, and 238 existing tanks were restored or improved, while seven new roads were taken in hand, of which five were completed. Ten wells were also sunk.

Attitude of the people.

Crime naturally received an impetus during the progress of the famine, especially in Brahmapuri, where the number of thefts and house-breakings increased by over 600. But the attitude of the people as a whole, except for the grain riots in the early days of the distress, was one of complete apathy or fatalism. Mr. Coxon describes it as one of 'absolute indifference combined with a perfect confidence in the Sarkar'. As to their appreciation of the efforts made by Government to alleviate their misery, the prevailing impression at the time seems to have been that real gratitude was conspicuous by its absence, although lip-gratitude, especially in acknowledgment of gifts of clothing, was fairly common. Doles and wages were usually grumbled at as insufficient and the usual cry in the kitchens was for more or for a different kind of food, or a gift of clothing. But it is admitted that it is very difficult to gauge the real feelings of the people by their actions or expressions, and it is certain that the indelible impression left by the famine is always coupled in the minds of all with a profound conviction of the immense efforts made by Government to cope with an unparalleled disaster.

Casualties of the Famine staff.

Thirty officials, all natives, lost their lives in conducting the campaign against the famine, while many others were invalided.

The year 1900-01.

The monsoon of 1900 commenced late, and the period of suspense during which it was awaited was the most trying period of the whole famine. However, rain at length fell heavily, and enabled agricultural operations to commence. But in spite of all that loans from Government and private charity could do, such was the general poverty and so great had been the wastage in agricultural stock that it was impossible to avert an enormous shrinkage of the area under *kharif* cultivation which fell by 112,000 acres. Extensive *rabi* sowings, however, adjusted the shortage. The monsoon ceased abruptly at the end of September to the general detriment of broadcast rice, but cotton gave an outturn of 80 and juari and transplanted rice were 90 each, so that the autumn harvest was on the whole fair. But the spring crops suffered not only from a contraction of the area under cultivation but also from the entire absence of rain from October to December, followed, when the crops were ripening, by the setting in of wet and cloudy weather accompanied by a visitation of insects. Wheat gave an outturn of only 45, gram of 30, and linseed of 22. The outturn of all crops combined amounted only to 46. In April 1901 the situation looked gloomy, and preparations were in hand for further relief operations, when suddenly the peril of famine was averted by an unexpected windfall. The mahua crop which, owing to the unseasonable

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weather, had been considered foredoomed to failure, flowered with extraordinary abundance long after the normal season, and the poor were thus provided with a stock of food to tide them over the rains. No relief was necessary and the works already opened were at once closed. Prices fell in the case of juari by 6 seers below the preceding year's figures, and in the case of rice by 1½ seers. But the effects of the famine were clearly visible in a reduced birth rate of 21 per mille during 1901.

The year 1900-01.

Succeeding years.

The year 1901-02 was marked by the prevalence of insect pests, and though the cotton crop was good and the rice fair, the combined outturn of the year was only 59, so that the process of recovery was again retarded. The monsoon of 1902 was a weak one, but, in spite of an almost total failure of the rice crop, the total outturn amounted to 78, and the condition of the District gave no cause for anxiety. Next year, 1903-04, was a much better one, and of the important crops, cotton alone gave an outturn of less than 80 per cent. The condition of the agricultural classes continued to improve, but the progress made was slow in the rice tracts, where there was a strong tendency to await the announcement of the new settlement before making really strenuous exertions to retrieve past losses. The monsoon of 1904 followed the example of most of its recent predecessors in causing grave anxiety for a period, but plentiful September rains came to the rescue, and the outturn of the year was 91. The year was a good one for cotton, and the open field tracts, and those tracts with mixed or intermediate cultivation which lie near the best markets and trade routes may be said by this time to have fully re-established their prosperity, but the rice and the more remote intermediate tracts continued in a condition of instability. The history of the year 1905-06 much resembles that of 1904-05: juari, cotton and tur all did well, but rice was again only 75. Hailstorms early in 1906 necessitated some local suspensions and remissions, but the total outturn was as high as 93. The year 1906-07 was also a good one. The current year has witnessed a check to this comparative prosperity, but the District has cause for congratulation as compared with most of the rest of the Provinces, and suspensions will be necessary only on a very limited scale[1]".

Famine of 1957-58.*

The district was affected by scarcity conditions in 1957-58. As a result there was acute unemployment among the agriculturists and labourers. During the year, the total rainfall received was below average and was not evenly distributed. The monsoon set in by the middle of June 1957. In the beginning of July 1957 there was rainfall throughout the district. The *kharif* crops were sown after the first showers, but subsequent rainfall after July 1957 was very conducive to the germination and growth of the crops. However, in September 1957, there

1. *Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda district*, Vol. A, pp. 288—303

* Information for the period between 1909 and 1957 is not available.

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was no appreciable rainfall. Both paddy and jowar crops all over the district, therefore, suffered severe damage. Though the area was not declared a scarcity area, near scarcity conditions prevailed in those 54 villages* and affected 37,351 persons in an area of 2,34,981 acres spread over the Chandrapur, Brahmapuri, Warora and Sironcha tahsils.

There was no industrial employment of any significance in the affected part of the district. The *rabi* sowing which is generally done in the middle of September was also delayed by the drought. Sowings of *rabi* jowar, linseed, udid and mug were started as late as in the third week of September 1957. However, the lack of moisture in the soil affected the growth of the crops. The sowing of wheat and gram was also carried out late. During the year, about 50 per cent of these crops of light soil were damaged. The *annewari* in the affected area was below six annas. The scarcity conditions were not, however, very grave, as there was no complete failure of crops. The petty agriculturists and agricultural labourers were the victims of the scarcity.

The land revenue suspension and remission were as follows:—

Tahsil (1)	Land Revenue Suspension (2)	Land Revenue Remission (3)
Chandrapur	22,803	..
Sironcha		
Gadhchiroli		
Warora	..	668
Chandrapur	..	93

Test scarcity works were started in the above stated tahsils where conditions akin to scarcity were prevailing. There were six such works and were started under the agency of the then Public Works Department. These included repairs to tanks at Werwat and Kelzar in Chandrapur tahsil and Permili, Dechlipeta and Tamantala in Sironcha tahsil. The construction of roads at Nagri to Madheli and Warora to Madheli in Warora tahsil was also undertaken. These works were continued till June 1958.

* The number of villages affected in each tahsil was as under :—

Tahsil (1)	No. of villages (2)
Chandrapur	23
Warora	6
Brahmapuri	4
Sironcha	21
	54

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. Famine of 1957-58.

The total expenditure on all these test scarcity works till 30th June 1958 was as follows:—

	Rs.
Repairs to tanks	37,727·00
Construction of roads	21,856·00

About 1,339 labourers were employed on these works. All the test works were executed on piece-work basis. Minimum wages of 108 paise for a man, 79 paise for a woman and 41 paise for children per day were paid.

Tagai loans under normal course were distributed as follows:—

Item (1)	Amount (2)
	Rs.
For purchase of bullocks	2,65,627·00
For purchase of seeds	63,674·22
For purchase of oil engines	7,900·00
For construction of wells	74,925·00
Other items	2,67,182·25

In addition tagai loans under Land Improvement Act and Agricultural Loans Act were also advanced, to the tenants including affected persons as under:—

	Rs.
Land Improvement Loans Act	2,72,378·00
Agricultural Loans Act	4,06,930·47

Famine of 1959-60.

The heavy rains on 12th and 13th September 1959 and the subsequent floods up to 18th September 1959 all over the district caused severe damage to houses, cattle, crops, agricultural implements, seeds, fodder and foodgrains. Especially the floods of Wardha, Pranhita, Penganga and Godavari affected the surrounding area to a great extent. Four towns, *viz.*, Chandrapur, Ballarpur, Rajura and Warora and 865 villages from Chandrapur, Sironcha, Warora and Rajura tahsils comprising area of about 48,895 acres, a population of about 92,291 were affected. One human life and 2,381 cattle were lost. The loss was estimated at Rs. 1,16,820. About 9,985 houses were damaged and 3,441 collapsed. The loss in this case was Rs. 8,77,029 and Rs. 3,82,442, respectively. About 31,052 acres of agricultural land was either washed away or damaged. The loss due to this amounted to Rs. 23,10,457. The artisans were also hit hard. They lost property valued at Rs. 14,500. The loss to shopkeepers was valued at Rs. 22,400. The damage caused to semi-Government buildings, roads, etc., and that to Government buildings, bridges, railway lines, etc., was estimated at Rs. 20,300 and Rs. 1,61,500 respectively. Thus the total estimated loss due to the excess of rains in 1959-60 came to about Rs. 69,91,582.

Of the total allotment of Rs. 6,35,000, Rs. 2,54,336 were distributed to flood sufferers, Rs. 4,366 were spent for the clearance of debris, Rs. 1,82,669 were distributed as ordinary tagai loans.

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FAMINE.

Famine of 1959-60.

Non-agricultural loans amounting to Rs. 4,750 were also sanctioned. *Ballis* costing Rs. 48,770 were purchased from the Forest Department. 244 tons of G. C. I. sheets were also released. Wheat, jowar and gram seed was distributed to the agriculturists as follows:—

Wheat	..	..	..	756 maunds.
Jowar	..	..	..	995 maunds.
Gram	..	..	..	250 maunds.

Measures were also taken to change the village sites at Chandrapur, Ballarpur and Visapur. Cattle belonging to flood sufferers were allowed to graze free in the adjoining forest land. Timely distribution of foodgrains in the flood affected area saved people from starvation. 400 maunds of wheat valued at Rs. 4,380 and 2450 maunds of rice valued at Rs. 44,100 were distributed to flood sufferers.

Private agencies also came forward and extended help in kind to the sufferers. People from Chandrapur and Ballarpur supplied cooked food of the value of Rs. 15,452, foodgrains of the value of Rs. 11,300, and clothes of the value of Rs. 250. They also provided temporary shelters to the victims of floods. A mission at Chandrapur donated 600 tins of milk powder. Cash donations given by the private agencies amounted to Rs. 17,871.

Three relief works consisting of earth works on the roads for providing employment to the labourers and cultivators in Sironcha tahsil were taken up. However, two works were given up for lack of response from the villagers. About 225 labourers were employed on the remaining works. Male labourer was paid between Rs. 1 and 1.25 while a female labourer between 62 and 82 paise.

Famine of 1965-66.

Scarcity conditions prevailed in 1,120 villages from Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils in 1965-66. The Government declared scarcity in these villages from 7th January 1966 to 13th September 1966. The scarcity was the result of scanty and erratic rainfall. The irrigation facilities also could not be made available as most of the tanks were dry due to scanty rainfall. Of the total area of 525,272 acres under paddy, 182,211 acres failed to produce a good crop. The *annewari* in these villages was noted below 6 annas. Of the 1,120 villages, 695 villages were below 4 annas and 425 villages were between 4 and 6 annas. The area and population of the affected villages was 49,339 acres and 3,40,000, respectively. Most of the poor agriculturists belonging to the backward classes were affected. The degree of distress was acute in Gadhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils.

All the relief measures such as distribution of gratuitous relief in cash and also in kind were undertaken through the block agency under the Zilla Parishad, Chandrapur. Skim milk powder was distributed to the expectant and nursing mothers and to

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FAMINE.

Famine of 1965-66.

children below 14 years of age. Gratuitous relief both in cash and in kind was given to infirm and old persons, etc. The quantity of relief given to such affected persons was as under:—

		Rs.
1.	Gratuitous relief in cash	10,000
2.	Gratuitous relief in kind—	

	Tons	Kg.	Gms.
Wheat	111	514	178
Atta	22	574	554
Dried peas	10	395	..
Skim Milk Powder ..	117	353	663

To provide employment to the affected agricultural labourers, the Collector of the district sanctioned 26 scarcity works. Of these, however, only 12 works were actually started through the Zilla Parishad. The following table No. 37 shows the dates on which they were started, the closing dates of the same and the expenditure incurred thereon.

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TABLE No. 37

STATEMENT REGARDING THE SCARCITY WORKS STARTED DURING 1965-66 IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Particulars of scarcity Test scarcity works sanctioned by Collector	Date on which started	Estimated cost	Actual expenditure incurred up to the date of closure of work	Date on which the work is closed	Average labour attendance per day	Remarks
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Tank Works		Rs.	Rs.			
Repairs and renovation to ex-Malguzari tank at Chikmara.	10-2-66 ..	21,310	15,970·87	14-8-66 ..	35	Completed.
Repairs and renovation to ex-Malguzari tank at Armori	2-2-66 ..	24,859	17,675·57	31-3-66 ..	60	Completed.
	Total ..	46,169	33,646·44		95	
Road Works						
Morezaon to Gunjewahi (10 miles)	12-2-66 ..	81,180	24,491·72	21-6-66 ..	40	Completed.
Saoli to Haramba (14 miles)	4-3-66 ..	3,50,000	28,631·57	26-8-66 ..	90	Completed.
Asarali to Somnur (6 miles)	25-2-66 ..	1,47,370	5,235·62	11-6-66 ..	15	Completed.
Sironcha to Asarali (20 miles)	25-2-66 ..	10,000	4,125·53	11-6-66 ..	10	Completed.
Chimur to Bhisi (10 miles)	17-3-66 ..	2,50,000	33,935·00	30-9-66 ..	44	Completed.
Karoli to Usarpar (6 miles)	8-7-66 ..	1,50,000	6,764·89	21-7-66 ..	50	Completed.
Armori to Palora (2 miles)	5-5-66 ..	50,000	10,230·02	17-7-66 ..	30	Completed.
Armori to Ramara (2 miles)	8-6-66 ..	19,109	2,256·60	17-7-66 ..	60	Completed.
Wairagad to Karadi (3 miles)	24-5-66 ..	75,000	3,685·79	29-6-66 ..	20	Completed.
Taki to Ramara (93 miles)	8-6-66 ..	75,000	..	17-7-66 ..	20	Completed.
	Total ..	12,07,659	1,19,356·65		379	
	Grand Total ..	12,53,828	1,53,003·09		474	

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINE. Famine of 1965-66.

The remissions and suspensions of land revenue were as follows:—

	Rs.
Full suspension granted	88,041·38
Half suspension granted	42,951·38

In addition no amount by way of tagai loans and other Government advances was recovered from the affected agriculturists. Recovery of Government dues was also postponed in view of the scarcity conditions. Arrangements to distribute foodgrains through fair price shops were made in the scarcity affected areas.

The economy of Chandrapur district was adversely affected by drought conditions for three consecutive years from 1969 to 1972, the intensity of drought being more severe during 1972. Inadequate rains affected the paddy as well as jowar and cotton crops which resulted in a poor harvest in 1972-73. The water storage in the irrigation tanks are very poor due to lack of rains. The Zilla Parishad and Government authorities fought the drought conditions by starting relief works and improving the conditions of irrigation tanks. This programme included repairs to old tanks, construction of new tanks and feeder channels, increase in length of canals and desilting of tanks and canals. The improvement work of Savamara Khairi, Rajoli, Sadhabhoi (Naleshwar), Gadmoushi, Kaladoha (Mul) tanks and their feeder channels was completed in 1972, which benefitted an area of 1,700 hectares of paddy crop. The improvement of the Asolamendha tank and its canal of 22 km. was a great boon as it assured water-supply even in this year of scarcity. Desilting of 100 old tanks has been undertaken, while the work on 114 more tanks has been proposed in the district.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

If agriculture is to provide means of livelihood to the growing population renovation in its technique is essential. This can be achieved by adopting a scientific approach towards the agriculture and agricultural research assumes significance in this connection. In fact the gist of the present agricultural development programme revolves round the central idea that there should be a close liaison between the research centres and the actual field of operation. The problems faced by the cultivators in the field are to be carried to the research centres where experiments are carried out. The results and the remedies suggested by these centres are again to be brought to the cultivators and put in practice. It is with this intention that the staff of extension workers including official as well as non-official personnel is engaged at various levels in the administrative set up of the panchayat samitis, zilla parishads, etc. This process of two way exchange between agricultural research centres and the cultivators, if properly worked out, will no doubt produce great achievements in the field.

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AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

It is with this view that some research activities in the agricultural sector are carried out in the district. At Sindewahi in Brahmapuri tahsil for instance pioneering work in this behalf is being done since 1957-58. This centre has an area of 85.923 hectares (212.32 acres). Its main research is on the paddy crop. A seed and demonstration farm is also attached to it. At first this centre was started at Lamandi, a village in the Raipur district of the old Madhya Pradesh. This was then shifted to Sindewahi in 1957-58 as the improved strains of various crops produced at Lamandi were not found suitable for the Vidarbha tract. At Sindewahi the activities of the centre, in addition to those regarding the evolving of improved strains of seeds have been extended so as to facilitate the training of the gramsevaks, gramsevikas and the extension officer for agriculture.

Besides this, nine Tahsil seed multiplication farms have been established in the district covering all the tahsils of the district. The object behind the establishment of these farms is mainly to multiply the foundation seed and their consequent distribution to the progressive cultivators or registered seed growers for doubling the supply of improved varieties of seeds.

Of the combined area of 244.572 hectares (604.35 acres) of all the seed farms an area of 76.890 hectares (190 acres) was brought under irrigation during 1966-67. Out of this 160 acres were under tanks, channels, and *bodi* irrigation and the remaining 12.140 hectares (30 acres) under well irrigation. The production of seeds in *kharif* and *rabi* seasons at these farms and their distribution in 1966-67 was as under:—

	Production	Distribution
	Qtls.	Qtls.
Paddy	1,278·68	987·00
Kharif Jowar	30·45	29·50
Mug	5·75	5·00
Cotton	24·25	..
Hybrid Jowar—		
(Male)	9·56	..
(Female)	16·73	..

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES

CHAPTER 5. Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

THE ECONOMIC WELLBEING OF A PARTICULAR AREA DEPENDS UPON the pace of industrial development that has taken place therein. Greater the industrial development, greater is the scope of employment. Though the industries alone cannot provide employment to all the working force in the area, they provide the maximum. The district of Chandrapur cannot be said to be industrially advanced. With the district abounding in mineral wealth and forests there are only four large-scale industries located in the district which manufacture paper, glass, pottery and oil. The general pattern of non-agricultural employment, however, leans heavily towards small-scale and household industries. Of the total number of persons employed in industries, 79 per cent are employed in household industries and the remaining 21 per cent in non-household industries. The total number of workers employed in registered factories in 1962 was 2,555 which is only 6.48 per cent of all the workers engaged in industries. It gives a ratio of only two factory workers per thousand of total population as against the average of 20 per thousand for the State as a whole.

Land, labour and capital are the factors of production upon the availability of which depends the industrial growth of a particular region. Land that stands for natural resources abounds in the district as also labour. However, the industrial growth is hampered by the lack of skilled labour and capital coupled with the atmosphere that is chilly, and damp throughout the rainy season. The district is industrially backward and the wheels of industrial activity in the district whirl round small-scale industries. The district with abundant forest and mineral resources has a great potential for the development of the following new industries.

(1) Pig iron by low shaft furnace technique,

(2) Cast iron pipes,

(3) Ceramic industries, and

(4) Hardboards and chip-boards.

The following tables show the number of persons deriving their livelihood from different industries according to the Censuses of 1951 and 1961.

TABLE No. 1

NUMBER OF PERSONS DERIVING THEIR LIVELIHOOD FROM INDUSTRIES, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT—1951 CENSUS

..	Persons	Males	Females
Mining and quarrying	4,063	3,853	210
Coal mining	3,924	3,717	207
Manganese mining	106	106	..
Stone quarrying, clay and sand pits	33	30	3
Processing and Manufacture—Food-stuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof.	11,991	11,194	797
Food industries otherwise unclassified	134	94	40
Grains and pulses	827	561	266
Vegetable oil and dairy products	239	231	8
Beverages	190	188	2
Tobacco	390	380	10
Cotton textiles	6,310	6,109	201
Wearing apparel (except footwear) and made-up textile goods.	1,618	1,458	160
Textile industries otherwise unclassified ..	114	73	41
Leather, leather products and footwear ..	2,169	2,100	69
Processing and Manufacture—metals, chemicals and products thereof.	2,641	2,589	52
Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified.	2,383	2,354	27
Non-ferrous metals	2	..	2
Transport equipment	15	12	3
Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies.	1	1	..
Machinery (other than electrical machinery) including Engineering workshops.	114	114	..
Basic Industrial Chemicals and Power Alcohol	4	4	..
Medical and Pharmaceutical preparations ..	9	9	..
Manufacture of chemical products otherwise unclassified.	113	95	18
Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified.	8,869	8,104	765
Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified	1,511	1,491	20
Bricks, tiles and other structural clay products ..	220	218	2
Cement pipes and other cement products ..	11	11	..

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

..	Persons	Males	Females
Non-metallic mineral products	1,497	1,398	99
Rubber products	14	..	14
Wood and wooden products other than furniture and fixtures.	5,554	4,927	627
Furniture and fixtures	23	22	1
Paper and paper products	32	32	..
Printing and allied industries	17	15	2

TABLE No. 2

NUMBER OF PERSONS DERIVING THEIR LIVELIHOOD FROM INDUSTRIES, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT—1961 CENSUS

..	Persons	Males	Females
Mining and quarrying—	6,325	5,909	416
Mining of coal	6,011	5,708	303
Mining of iron ores	3	3	..
Mining of gold and silver ores	7	7	..
Quarrying of stone including slate clay, sand, gravel, limestone.	304	191	113
Manufacturing—	38,590	28,041	10,549
Food-stuffs	2,683	2,015	668
Beverages	98	94	4
Tobacco products	647	492	155
Textile—cotton	6,113	3,189	2,924
Textile—jute	272	101	171
Textile—wool	1,576	432	1,144
Textile—silk	44	20	24
Textile—Miscellaneous	3,570	3,122	44
Wood and wooden products	9,788	6,936	2,852
Paper and paper products	1,905	1,765	140
Printing and publishing	73	72	1
Leather and leather products	2,734	2,502	232
Rubber, petroleum and coal products ..	34	17	17

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

..	Persons	Males	Females
Chemicals and chemical products	123	95	28
Non-metallic mineral products other than petroleum and coal and manufacture of earthen ware and earthen pottery.	3,872	2,322	1,550
Basic materials and their products except machinery and transport products.	3,064	2,902	162
Machinery of all kinds other than transport and electrical equipment.	72	72	..
Transport equipment	336	336	..
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries ..	1,586	1,554	32

Mining and quarrying and manufacturing industries employed 44,915 persons according to 1961 Census as against 23,521 as per the Census of 1951. It shows a net increase of 91.12 per cent over 1951.

SECTION 1—LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES

LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

There are only four large-scale factories in the district that employ more than 50 workers and use power. These industries are, the Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mills, Ltd., Ballarpur; the Swastik Glass Works, Chandrapur; the Dadabhoy Potteries, Ballarpur and the Bashir Oil Mills, Warora.

Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board mills Ltd.

The Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mills Ltd., is located at Ballarpur in Chanda tahsil. It has a production capacity of 35 tons per day. It has plans for expansion up to 120 tons per day in stages. This factory consumes as raw material bamboos worth Rs. 30,000 annually. These bamboos are locally available and at times are imported from the nearby Bhandara district. An amount of Rs. 208.58 lakhs as on 30th June 1965 is invested in the industry of which Rs. 161.32 lakhs have been contributed by the shareholders and Rs. 47.26 lakhs reinvested from the profits retained in the business.

The production of paper was about five thousand tons in 1953-54. It had risen to about 30 thousand tons by 1964-65, i.e., by about 600 per cent within the span of 11 years. During 1957-58 the sales were to the extent of 200 lakhs of rupees with gross profits of about Rs. 60 lakhs. During 1964-65 the sales went up to the tune of Rs. 570 lakhs and gross profits to about Rs. 90 lakhs. Gross profit represented profit after providing for all expenses including interest but before providing for depreciation and development rebate. The increase in production in 1964-65 was attributed to the satisfactory running that year of the M.G. and M.F. machines, the commissioning and smooth running of which was delayed by the non-availability and frequent interruption of power supply. It was also due to the satisfactory working of the pulp mill. Exercise books worth over Rs. 25 lakhs were exported to Burma in face of stiff competition from Japan and other countries during 1964-65. The exports were made at the international prices which were substantially below those prevailing in the country, as exports were imperative because of the acute balance of payments position of the country.

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Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mills Ltd.

Swastik Glass Works.

The Swastik Glass Works was established at Chandrapur in the year 1948. It undertakes the manufacture of glass and glassware, such as, chimneys, jars, bottles, etc. It is a perennial factory working for about 300 days in a year. Blowing, annealing, cutting, melting, grinding and packing are some of the stages in the process of production.

In 1964-65, the industry had the fixed capital of Rs. 2,19,384 composed of land and buildings, Rs. 1,37,765; plant and machinery, Rs. 72,882 and furniture, fixtures, fittings, vehicles, patents, trademarks, etc., Rs. 8,737.

The factory provides employment to about 120 skilled and 310 unskilled labourers. The aggregate wage bill of workers including bonus was Rs. 2,86,383.53 in 1964-65.

During 1964-65, the factory spent Rs. 1,51,606.24 on fuel and power. The expenditure on essential raw materials during the same period was Rs. 1,91,960 composed of soda by carb, Rs. 1,36,800; sand, Rs. 42,000; lime, Rs. 2,160; felspar, Rs. 3,000 and borax, Rs. 8,000.

The productive capacity of the factory was put at goods worth about Rs. 15 to 16 lakhs. Their products are sold throughout India and are also exported to Ceylon.

The factory received Government help in the form of a grant of foreign exchange to the tune of Rs. 3,000.

The main difficulties encountered by the factory are the non-availability of railway wagons for carrying goods coupled with the shortage of skilled labour.

Dadabhoy Potteries.

The Dadabhoy Potteries was purchased by Messrs. Vasant Industries, Ballarpur. The factory manufactures pottery and earthenware, such as, Mangalore tiles, ridges, pipes and other fittings. It is a perennial factory working for about 300 days in a year.

During 1964-65, the company had fixed capital of Rs. 3,23,912 composed of land and buildings, Rs. 1,74,850; plant and machinery, Rs. 1,07,000 and furniture, fixtures, etc., Rs. 42,062. The company had working capital of Rs. 90,291.46.

The factory provided employment to 120 workers on an average including 25 skilled workers. Besides these workers, there were about 50 persons engaged in office and other duties.

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Dadabhoy Potteries.

They were paid wages at rates varying between Rs. 1.90 and Rs. 3.25 per day.

The essential raw materials consumed by the factory during the same period were clay, kerosene oil and grease oil worth Rs. 17,984-97, Rs. 3,672 and Rs. 3,396, respectively. During that period the factory produced tiles, pipes and fittings worth Rs. 2,24,090.57. The products were marketed mainly in the State.

The main difficulties, which the factory faced, were shortage of railway wagons and of other transport facilities.

Bashir Oil Mills.

The Bashir Oil Mills, one of the modern oil mills in the district located at Warora was established in the year 1945. It is a seasonal industry that works for about 220 days in a year from November to June.

During 1964-65, the fixed capital of the factory stood at Rs. 15,00,000 composed of land and buildings, Rs. 6,00,000 and plants and machinery, Rs. 9,00,000. During the same year it had working capital of Rs. 90 lakhs. It provided employment to 42 persons of whom 10 were skilled and 32 unskilled. The average yearly wage bill of the factory came to Rs. 2,58,000.

In the same year the factory spent Rs. 1,01,000 on fuel of which an amount of Rs. 85,000 was spent on electricity and Rs. 16,000 on steam coal.

The expenditure of the factory on essential raw materials during the same year was Rs. 64,17,219 comprising sesamum, Rs. 21,85,995 ; linseed, Rs. 2,33,705 ; cottonseed, Rs. 39,59,369 and groundnut, Rs. 38,150. The raw material was mostly obtained from Chandrapur, Warora, Wani, Pandharkawda, Yeotmal and Adilabad.

During the year under consideration the factory produced linseed oil and cake worth Rs. 73,284 ; sesamum oil and cake, Rs. 27,09,003 ; cottonseed oil and cake, Rs. 41,48,344 and groundnut oil, Rs. 28,056. The total value of all the products was Rs. 69,58,687. Groundnut oil, linseed oil and sesamum oil were mostly sold in the local market, while cottonseed oil and sesamum oil were exported to Chandrapur, Nagpur, Calcutta, Delhi, etc. The shortage of raw materials is the major difficulty faced by the factory.

Other Industries.

Besides the major industrial units described so far, there are many categories of medium industries scattered over the district. These have been described below after grouping them together.

Oil Mills.

Oilseed pressing is an age-old occupation. Formerly every village used to have an oil-man and a *ghani* for crushing oilseeds when the village was considered a self-sufficient unit. With the growing complex nature of economic development and keen

competition from the oil mills, the business of the village artisans working on *ghanis* has dwindled considerably and only a few now remain to carry on their more or less hereditary occupation.

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Oil Mills.

All the reporting oil mills were established between 1947 and 1960 and were mostly perennial in character. They were engaged in crushing linseed, sesamum, cotton seed, etc.

The aggregate fixed capital of five reporting units was about two lakh rupees and was mainly composed of land and buildings, plants and machinery, and furniture and fixtures. The working capital required by three units was about Rs. 14,00,000. Each of the units on an average provided employment to about seven persons and their total wage bill inclusive of the bonus varied between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 30,000 per year.

On an average every unit spent Rs. 900 on electricity and coal. They purchased about 4 to 5 thousand bags of seed valued at Rs. 110 per bag in a year.

In many cases the products were marketed in local markets while in some cases the products were exported to Bombay and other surrounding areas.

Saw Mills.

There were as many as eight saw mills reporting for the district having abundant forest areas. All these units were established between 1952 and 1961. Of these, five were perennial and three closed for the rainy season. The average fixed capital invested in land and buildings, plants and machinery and furniture and fixtures per unit was Rs. 40,000. The plants and machinery mainly consisted of bend saw machines and shaping machines. The average working capital of every factory was Rs. 25,000.

These saw mills provided employment to 70 persons in the aggregate including 24 skilled workers and 10 employees other than workers giving an average of 10 employees per unit. Annually an average amount of Rs. 40,000 was spent towards wages.

Their average annual expenditure on power and fuel was placed at about Rs. 2,000. Electric energy was mainly consumed for the purpose. The main raw materials consisted of *sag*, *bija* and other local varieties of wood and the average expenditure of a saw mill on raw materials was Rs. 7,800 per year.

Though the product had a local demand, it was also exported to Bombay, Poona, Nagpur, Calcutta, Madras, Gujarat, etc.

Only two units reported Government assistance in the form of subsidy on electric bill. The main difficulties faced by the mills were shortage of capital and non-availability of skilled labour. Shortage of banking and warehousing facilities was also reported.

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Rice Mills.

This district with a large rice growing area has naturally many paddy processing industrial units. In 1961 as also in 1963 there were 12 such units in the district, and the employment in these factories was 3.67 per cent of the total employment in factories in the district. A survey of all the twelve factories in the district was conducted during 1965-66. The following account of the industry is based upon the findings of the survey.

Of these, six units were established in 1932, 1934, 1945, 1954, 1956 and 1959, respectively and of the remaining, three were established in 1952 and three in 1958. Three of these units only worked during the season while the remaining nine worked throughout the year. However, even those units that worked throughout the year had a considerable slackening of their business for about three to four months in a year. Almost all these units were engaged in the processing of paddy into rice.

The average investment in fixed capital of a unit came to Rs. 78,000 of which an amount of Rs. 32,000 was invested in land and buildings, Rs. 38,000 in plant and machinery and Rs. 8,000 in furniture and fixtures. The machinery mostly consisted of automatic rice milling plant, hullar for polishing and electric motors. A few of them had oil engines too.

These units provided employment to about 80 workers and 30 employees other than workers. Each unit had generally one skilled worker. The average daily earning of a skilled worker amounted to Rs. 5 and that of an unskilled worker to Rs. 3.

All the units mostly worked on electricity. Besides electric power, they also used mobil oil and crude oil. The average annual expenditure on fuel and power per unit came to Rs. 7,800.

On an average, a unit processed paddy worth about Rs. 10,000 annually.

With the introduction of monopoly procurement programme for paddy and of curbs on dehusking of rice, the rice mills are required to obtain licences from the proper authority and have to report from time to time that authority in regard to their turnover, etc. The main difficulties of the industry were in regard to the supply of electricity and shortage of mobil oil.

Cotton Ginning.

The area under cultivation of cotton in the district was 26,806 hectares (66,245 acres) in 1962-63 and 26,984 hectares (66,681 acres) in 1961-62 as compared to 25,212 hectares (62,301 acres) in 1960-61. With so much area under cultivation of cotton, the district has a few cotton ginning units.

The number of cotton ginning factories which was only one in 1961, rose to three in 1962 and again decreased to two in 1963. The variation was also noticed in the number of persons employed daily in the factories. The number of average daily

workers employed in 1962 was 75. It decreased to 54 in 1963. By the end of 1963-64, the employment in these factories was 1.85 per cent of the total employment in the district.

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Cotton Ginning.

The following account of the cotton ginning factories is based upon the survey of four such factories conducted in 1965-66. Of these, one was established as early as 1915, one in 1946, one in 1947 and one in 1964. All these were seasonal factories mainly undertaking ginning of cotton. They normally worked for about 150 days in a year from November to April.

The average fixed capital investment per unit was about Rs. 98,000 composed of land and building, Rs. 61,000 : plant and machinery, Rs. 36,000 and furniture and fixtures, Rs. 1,000. These factories provided employment to 124 workers including skilled ones and 36 other employees and paid them Rs. 56,600 by way of wages including Rs. 44,000 paid to workers towards wages and bonus. Thus, the average employment provided by a unit came to 31 workers and 9 other staff and the unit paid wages of about Rs. 14,000 including Rs. 11,000 paid to workers.

Their average annual expenditure on fuel was Rs. 6,900. Most of them worked on electricity. They also consumed coal besides mobil oil and crude oil. A unit on an average ginned raw cotton worth about Rs. two lakhs a year and it was mostly obtained from Warora and other villages in the district. The cotton bales were mostly exported to Bombay and Nagpur.

Tile Manufacturing.

There were two tile manufacturing units in the district located at Ballarshah and Chandrapur established in 1951 and 1955, respectively. Both were seasonal, working from October to June. The average fixed capital invested by a unit was Rs. 48,000 of which Rs. 25,000 were invested in land and building and Rs. 13,000 in plant and machinery. The average working capital required by a unit was about Rs. 15,000.

Both the units provided employment to 40 workers each and paid them about Rs. 24,000 by way of wages and bonus. A unit spent about Rs. 10,000 per year on fuel comprising mostly coal and oil.

The basic raw material required for the industry was clay and the average expenditure was about Rs. 8,000 a year on the same. The products consisting of tiles and pipes were mostly marketed in the district.

The main difficulties encountered by the industry were shortage of clay and non-availability of skilled labour.

Bidi Manufacture.

Tendu leaves that serve as a basic raw material for the bidi industry are found in abundance in the thick forests of the district. The number of bidi factories which was constant at 3 during 1961 and 1962 rose to 4 in 1963. During 1962, these factories provided employment to 384 workers daily on an average

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Soap Industry.

which decreased to 288 in 1963. These factories provided employment to 9.89 per cent of the total factory employees of the district in 1963.

The small survey of a unit manufacturing soap revealed the following. The factory established in 1925 worked for about 290 days in a year. The unit had invested a fixed capital of Rs. 9,000 in plant and machinery. It provided employment to eight persons, seven of them being workers and paid them Rs. 6,600 as wages annually.

The main raw materials required for the industry are non-edible oils, caustic soda, scent, etc. The unit consumed raw materials worth Rs. 1,03,600 during 1965-66. The main difficulties faced by the industry were lack of transport facility and credit facility from banks.

Poha Mills.

With rice as a staple food of the district there were many rice mills and *poha* mills in the district. A small survey of a unit was conducted in 1965-66. The mill engaged in the manufacture of *poha* was established in 1959 and it worked for about 320 days in a year. The fixed capital invested was Rs. 52,000 of which Rs. 30,000 were invested in land and buildings, Rs. 15,000 in *poha* plant and Rs. 7,000 in furniture or fixtures.

It provided employment to 19 persons including 15 workers and paid them about Rs. 16,800 by way of wages. The fuel required was composed of mobil oil, crude oil and coal and an amount of about Rs. 10,000 was spent on the same. The product was mainly marketed in the district.

Mining Industry.

The district abounds in mineral wealth and it is the richest of the mineraliy important districts in the State, with large reserves of high grade iron ore and coal. The coal bearing areas of the district are considered to be next in importance to Jharia, Raniganj and Madhya Pradesh coal fields. The deposits of iron ore, manganese, mica, ochres, clay, etc., are reported to have been found in the hilly and forest areas of the tahsils of Sironcha, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli. The copper ore had recently been discovered at Thanewasha in Chandrapur tahsil. Besides, fine clay, pottery clay and china clay are also available in the district.

Mining and quarrying is an old industry in the district and the Gazetteer of Chanda district published in the year 1909 gives the following information about the same.

"*Coal. The Mayo Colliery.*— The remarkable mineral wealth of the district has so far been exploited on a commercial scale in only one direction, namely, the development of its coal deposits. The west side of the district as far south as the Third Barrier of the Godavari lies within the Wardha Valley Coalfield, an area, the natural geological limits of which indicate a total extent of 1,600 square miles, and which towards the north runs up to within 16 miles of the important cotton mart of Hinganghat. The first

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Mining Industry.

traces of coal in this district* were discovered in October 1865 when some pieces of carbonaceous shale were picked up in the bed of the Wardha river; these were followed up, and were found to have been washed from the Chanda bank of the river to the west of Ghugus, a village lying due west of Chanda. A pit was thereupon sunk in that village, and coal was struck at a depth of 30 feet. The search for further deposits was vigorously prosecuted and outcrops were discovered at Ballalpur and Lathi. In 1869, Mr. Fryar, a Mining Engineer, was deputed by Government to make a systematic enquiry into the value and extent of the coalfield. Proper boring instruments were provided, and it was proved that the Ghugus seam was thicker and more constant than had at first been supposed. A working pit sunk within 300 yards of the river struck an upper seam 4 feet thick at 80 feet below the surface and a lower seam 33 feet thick at 95 feet down. Although the coal was of variable quality a thickness of at least 20 feet was composed of good coal. By 1870 the Ghugus pit had been brought into thorough working order with regular galleries, two cages, and a gin worked by hand power which raised 10 or 15 tons of coal a day. It was considered of sufficient importance of merit the patronage of a Viceroy, and in 1870 it was formally declared open by Lord Mayo, thenceforward assuming the name of the Mayo Colliery. It remained in steady working till the following year, about 70 tons being raised each month; the coal was partly consumed by the steam borer, while the rest was taken by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The composition of the coal was somewhat uneven, but as a whole it was good enough for steam service in dry weather; in rainy weather, however, it was found to be incapable of standing exposure, and this defect made it necessary to search for a more suitable material. An average sample of Ghugus coal gave the following analysis;—

Carbon	...	45.61 per cent.
Volatile Matter (Including water).	...	33.49 per cent.
Ash	...	20.90 per cent.

"*Warora Colliery.*— Many indications pointed to the probable existence of coal to the north roundabout Warora within easy reach of the Hinganghat cotton market, and search was naturally directed towards that locality when the desirability of abandoning the Mayo Colliery had become obvious. The first coal was proved in 1870 by a boring 102 feet in depth about half a mile east of Warora. Other borings were made to ascertain the dip of the strata, and, to sum up the result of these investigations, the existence was proved of a slightly broken coalfield extending from Ghugus to Warora, distance of 22 miles, the quality of the coal being found to improve in the vicinity of Warora: it was also deemed probable that the coal extended well to the east of Warora. These preliminary operations were in the hands of

*The valueless coal discovered in 1848 at Kotal may be left out of consideration.

Mr. Fryar. The year 1871 witnessed the actual commencement of work at the Warora Colliery. Many difficulties had to be overcome, the chief of which was the extraordinary influx of water, with which the pumps at first provided were not adequate to cope. The railway was as yet not in existence, and frequent changes of management still further militated against good progress. In 1873, however, on the appointment of Mr. Ness, an Engineer of considerable experience in England, the sinking of the pits was successfully completed. In all, seven pits were sunk, with a depth varying from 140 to 240 feet. An unlooked for addition to the mineral wealth of the area was given by the discovery of a second seam of superior coal below the first. Both the upper and the lower seam were worked; the former was known as No. 2 and was from 12 to 15 feet in thickness, the latter, or No. 3 seam, was between 10 and 11 feet thick, and the two seams were divided by a band of shale about 6 feet thick. Trials made by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in 1874 gave satisfactory results, and it was found that the consumption per ton mile only exceeded that of English coal by 13 per cent. Two systems of working were at first in vogue: the 'bord and pillar' and the 'long wall' system, but the friability of the coal proved unsuitable to the latter method and it was abandoned in 1877. Under the 'bord and pillar' system which thenceforth obtained along the seams are cut into pillars by means of galleries and subsequently the pillars are themselves extracted. From the beginning, the presence of iron pyrites in the coal rendered it susceptible to spontaneous combustion and led to frequent underground fires which were a source of constant anxiety and danger, to say nothing of the expense attendant on the work of keeping them under control and providing for the safety of the workers; towards the end there were underground fires in all the pits, which were combated by surrounding them with brick walls. It was realised that the mine would have to close down about the end of 1906; the end, however, came sooner than had been expected. On the 28th March 1906, a large subsidence took place fortunately unattended by loss of life, and an influx of water followed which the machinery of the mine was unable to pump out. A considerable area of coal was lost, and, as the remainder was not sufficient to allow of the colliery being worked at a profit, it was finally closed down on the 30th April 1906. The causes which led to the subsidence are fully set forth by Mr. Pickering, the Chief Inspector of Mines, in his report for the year 1906. The radical and fatal mistake lay in the working of both seams simultaneously, instead of working the top seam first and allowing the strata to subside before touching the bottom seam. The loss of coal due to this defective system of working was enormous. According to Mr. Pickering, a reasonable estimate of the coal in the area worked would be 12,000,000 tons. Of this 3,086,220 tons or only 25 per cent, had been raised. If the mine had been properly laid out and worked from the beginning, perhaps, 75 per cent would have been recovered.

The additional six million tons would have prolonged the life of the colliery by about forty years*.

As mentioned above over three million tons of coal were raised from the mine during its existence, the largest output in any one year being 1,53,336 tons in 1902. About half the coal raised was sold to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and the remainder to various mills, gins and presses between Nagpur and Bhusawal; the demand from these latter had towards the end completely outgrown the supply. The selling rate at the pit's mouth was Rs. 5 per ton. Until 1882 the colliery was worked at a loss, but thenceforward with a temporary and only partial check from 1892 to 1895 it paid very well indeed. The capital outlay in 1894 stood at 20.65 lakhs: by 1906 this had been written down to 12.84 lakhs by means of a sinking fund. The net profits during the whole life of the mine amounted to 30.86 lakhs, and the highest rate of interest paid in any year was just over 17 per cent in 1902. During the busy season about 1,200 people in all were employed, rather more than half of these being underground workers. Most of the coal-cutters came from the United Provinces; they were all paid by piece-work, and earned on an average from 6 to 12 annas a day; unskilled labourers were paid 4 or 5 annas a day. Fire-clay was also worked; it was found on top of the coal. Fire-bricks, floor and roofing tiles were made in large quantities and were a source of considerable profit. The following is a fairly accurate analysis of the coal:—

Fixed carbon	...	45.4 per cent.
Volatile matter	...	26.5 per cent.
Moisture	...	13.9 per cent.
Ash	...	14.2 per cent.

The underground working extended from the Nagpur-Chandrapur road between miles 67 and 68 to the town of Warora where the coal thins out and disappears. The boundary on the north was a fault running a little to the north of No. 2 pit to the middle of the town tank; the south boundary was also a fault which ran nearly east and west from the village of Ekarjuna.

"Ballarpur Colliery.—The existence of coal at Bal'arpur, some ten miles south of Chandrapur, had been suspected as early as 1871. In that year the Public Works Department of Hyderabad had discovered coal on the opposite bank of the Wardha near the village of Sasti. This discovery caused boring work to be taken in hand at Ballalpur at a spot opposite Sasti, but, after several unsuccessful attempts it was concluded that the bulk of the coalfield lay across the river, and work was stopped. In 1900, however, it became imperative to find a substitute for the

*It is but justice to add that the evil was done in the early years of the colliery, and that the management of the later years of the mine was entirely exculpated.

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Warora Colliery which was known to be approaching exhaus tion, and a visit was paid to Ballalpur which resulted in the dis covery of favourable indications. A small sum of money wa sanctioned for exploration work, and, coal having been prove in two bore-holes in the bed of the river, more bore-holes were in spite of considerable local criticism, commenced to the east and as a consequence coal was proved at a depth of 550 feet mile from the river. More boring was then undertaken neare the village of Ballalpur. As all boring had been done by hanc progress had hitherto been very slow. A trial pit was com menced in 1903 in order to get out samples of coal for trial pur poses. The work laboured under severe difficulties; there wa no road to Chanda and all machinery and boilers had to b drawn by bullocks over a rough country track; firewood had t be used for fuel and whenever the supply failed water rose up i the pit and stopped work: added to this, work was impossibl during the rains. When coal was reached at a depth of 200 feet it was decided to commence a second pit and begin to open ou a new colliery. This second pit was sunk in 1906 to a depth o 257 feet, and the seam of coal was found to be 50 feet thick an of better quality than Warora coal. The actual output of coa remained insignificant until 1907, but in that year the railwa reached Ballalpur and considerably assisted the work of openin out the mine. In January 1908, the daily output of coal reache 140 tons. Ballalpur is now a prosperous mining village, and th colliery has a great future before it. The capital outlay on th mine amounts to about nine lakhs, five lakhs of which repre sents the book value of stores and machinery transferred to i from the Warora Colliery. The colliery is connected with th station at Ballalpur by a line about a mile long with numerou sidings.

This extensive discovery of coal at Ballalpur is a matter o considerable interest. So far from the bulk of the coalfield lyin on the Hyderabad side of the river, as was previously supposed indications at present point to the outer edge only being acros stream and the main body seems to extend a great distance int the Chanda District. All the collieries hitherto described ar the property of Government. Of private enterprise there is littl to record; a prospecting licence was granted to Messrs. J. and N Tata of Bombay over an area of 2 square miles in the village o Dudholi near Ballalpur, and they sank several borings and trial pit, but operations were abandoned when it was decide that the iron resources of the District were unsuitable to forr the basis of an iron and steel industry. Coal has also been pro ed at several other sites mostly in the riverain tract along th banks of the Wardha in the Warora and Chanda tahsil Mr. Theodore Hughes' paper on the Wardha Valley Coalfield i Volume XIII, part I of the Memoirs of the Geological Survey o India, gives an exhaustive account of the researches conducte and conclusions arrived at by him. In his opinion, the greate store of coal in the District is probably to the east of the town o

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Chanda, but the seams are, he supposes, too low down to be worth working. Outside the riverain tract, three seams with a total thickness of 38 feet have been proved at Bandar, and Mr. Hughes estimated the area of readily workable coal to be at least 6 square miles. This field is advantageously situated in respect of the iron ores of Lohara and Pipalgaon, but as there now seems no prospect of these latter being worked on a commercial scale, this fact now has not the importance previously attached to it. Some coal of poor quality exists at Kotah, north of Sironcha, where boring operations were undertaken as far back as 1848. A little slaty coal and lignite has also been observed elsewhere in the Sironcha tahsil, but there does not appear to be any deposit of value.

"*Iron.*—The iron ores of Chanda have long excited the interest of investigators, and, situated as they are in close proximity to the coal and limestone in and about Warora, the question of exploiting them according to modern commercial methods has frequently been mooted. The first detailed examination of the local iron deposits was made by Mr. Theodore Hughes of the Geological Survey of India in 1873, whose paper on the subject will be found in Volume XIII, part I of the Memoirs of that body. He formed an extremely high estimate of the value of the iron deposits of Chanda. In 1875, Mr. Ness conducted experiments with the view of testing the practicability of smelting the local iron with the local coal, but the latter was found to be unsuitable for the blast furnace, although moderately good results were obtained with a reverbatory furnace. In 1881, Herr Ritter von Schwartz, an expert of great mining experience in Austria, made a survey of the local iron deposits and formed a highly sanguine opinion of the prospects of an industry on modern lines with headquarters to be placed at Durgapur. He contemplated an annual outturn of no less than 260,000 tons of iron and steel, and was of opinion that Chanda could not only supply the whole requirements of India in iron and steel, but would also be able to compete with the Continent in importing ferromanganese and Brescian steel into England. Subsequent investigations have shown that these anticipations were very highly coloured. In 1900, Major Mahon, R.E., was specially deputed by the Government of India to investigate and report on the prospect of an Indian iron and steel industry, and among other localities visited this District. His opinion of its natural resources was a high one, but difficulties of fuel and communication led him to place Chanda only third on the list of possible sites for a modern iron industry. In 1902 the same authority drew up a 'Note on the Chanda Iron Deposits' which gives a complete account of the iron resources of the District. When Messrs. J. and N. Tata conceived the scheme of the Iron and Steel Syndicate in 1907 to be floated by them, this District was the first locality selected by them for investigation. The results of this investigation were disappointing; not only was it found that the amount of ore available had been greatly over-estimated

but there were also insuperable difficulties as to fuel and water-supply. The local coals are non-coking, and, though there was at one time some hope of overcoming this drawback by the aid of certain German and American processes, Messrs. Tata were finally induced under the advice of their experts to leave inferior coals alone and go direct to the good coking coals of Bengal. Thus, for some years to come at any rate, the hope of seeing Chanda the Middlesborough of India must be abandoned.

The most common forms in which iron occurs in this District are those of the anhydrous ferric oxides ($Fe_2 O_3$), specular ore and red haematite. Magnetic oxide and limonite also occur. In the former, iron is found in the form of ferrous and ferric oxide combined while the latter is anhydrated ferric oxide. Laterite, an impure variety of limonite, is very common. Titaniferous iron ore is found in the sand of many streams. Except in the extreme west the ore is widely distributed, but Major Mahon distinguishes five principal deposits, *viz.*, Lohara, Pipalgaon, Gunjewahi, Dewalgaon and Ratnapur, which have been visited and partially explored, and four other deposits which are, as far as is known at present, of less importance at Bhisi, Metapur, Ogulpet and Bhanpur. Undoubtedly the most interesting deposit in the District is the so-called iron hill of Lohara which was designated by Mr. Hughes as one of the wonders of the Indian mineral world. As a matter of fact, the hill is not an iron hill, but consists in the main of a massive outcrop of quartzite, through which, however, runs a lode of iron-stone of extraordinary richness which in places approaches a breadth of 30 or 40 yards. Major Mahon, in his detailed description of the hill says that he has never seen anything to equal the massive richness of the pure black specular ore heaped up in huge rocks which constitute the lode. The lode disappears underground after a certain distance, and it was at one time supposed that it extended for several miles. Had this supposition been borne out by the facts, Lohara would have boasted a concentrated wealth of iron not to be exceeded elsewhere in the world, but Messrs. Tata's researches have revealed that the mineral wealth of Lohara has been very much exaggerated, and, according to their estimate, the five principal deposits of the District mentioned by Major Mahon do not collectively contain more than one and a half million tons of ore. If the quantity of the ore is disappointing, there is at least no doubt as to its quality, and samples taken from Lohara, Pipalgaon, Gunjewahi, and Dewalgaon and analysed by Major Mahon gave extraordinarily rich results, the usual percentage of iron being as high as 68. Local ore is exceptionally free from sulphur and phosphorus, and therefore, is eminently qualified for the manufacture both of iron and steel.

Smelting was once extensively practised by the aboriginal inhabitants of the District, but of late years this industry has been greatly on the decline."

"*Limestone.*—In addition to coal and iron, the third main essential for an iron industry, *viz.*, limestone is also found in close proximity to the two others. Rock limestone can be obtained from Vindhyan and Lameta beds, the former yielding a purer variety of fairly uniform composition. Vindhyan limestones occur at Kandara, six miles north of Warora, and at Nilijha eight miles west of that town. Lameta limestone is exposed two miles south of Warora at Karamgohan, and in the Wardha river at Mardha and elsewhere. Lime is also procurable in the neighbourhood of Warora and Bhandak in the form of the surface deposit called *kankar* which often contains a high percentage of carbonate of lime. It has already been mentioned that fire-clay was extracted from the Warora mine, and this too would have been of service for a modern iron industry."

Minerals of less importance.—Diamonds and rubies have been found in alluvial deposits and in laterite near Wairagarh, but are not regularly worked. Gold in minute quantities is found in the sands of the Wainganga, Indravati and Godavari rivers, and is washed by a wandering people called Sonjharis, who, however, make but a bare living out of the business. Gold washing is unpopular not only because it is not lucrative but also by reason of a superstition that those who practise it will be childless. Auriferous sands are found in several other streams in the metamorphic area of the east, and major Lucie Smith wrote that the rocks in the south-east are undoubtedly auriferous, but no serious attempt has yet been made to ascertain their gold-bearing value. Abandoned copper workings may be seen at Thanwasana in the Chanda tahsil, and at Govindpur in the Bramhapuri tahsil; another mine is said to have been worked at Tanbagarhi Mendha near Rajoli. The story is that all these mines were closed by the Maratha Government about the middle of the 18th century in consequence of a belief that digging copper ore would bring evil to the country. A prospecting licence has recently been granted for some of these old mines. A limited quantity of manganese occurs in botryoidal masses in the red clays at Malagarh Hill, but the content of manganese is only 44.6 per cent as against an average standard of from 50 to 55 per cent in other parts of the Province. An application for a prospecting licence for manganese was received in 1907. Dark-green serpentine used to be extensively quarried at Jambulghata by Raja Raghuji III of Nagpur, but after his death the excavation was allowed to silt up. A quarry of black soapstone is found at the same place, and this material has been fairly extensively used for the manufacture of household vessels but the quarry is at present closed for lack of a lessee. Mica is found in small quantities in the Ahiri Zamindari. Talc and saltpetre also occur.

"*Building Stone.*—The sandstones of the Kamthi group provide excellent building stones of every hue and texture. The city walls of Chandrapur were built out of these. Isapur produces a

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pink sandstone beautifully adapted for fine tracery work. The Vindhyans also furnish good building material, which in the north of the District is at present being extensively used in the construction of railway bridges. Quartzite and quartz give good road metal. Laterite is frequently used for wells and culverts. Hornblende schist, though soft, can be used in the dry climate of these parts, and the ease with which it can be quarried and dressed causes it to be sometimes employed in construction. Granite of all varieties occurs in unlimited quantities in the east of the District, and the coarser varieties would be suitable in ornamental work. Variegated sandstones with a singularly pleasing range of colours also occur in the Sironcha tahsil. It will be seen that the District can boast a goodly store of excellent building material, but unfortunately much of it is for the present locked up by distance and lack of communications."

Present Position.—The following statements show the number of persons engaged in mining as per 1951 and 1961 Censuses :—

MINING AND QUARRYING, 1951

..	Persons	Males	Females
Mining and Quarrying	4,063	3,853	210
Coal Mining—Mines primarily engaged in the extraction of anthracite and of soft coals such as bitumenous, sub-bitumenous and legnite.	3,924	3,717	207
Manganese	106	106	..
Stone-quarrying, clay and sand pits. Extraction from the earth of stone, clay, sand and other Materials used in building of manufacture of cement.	33	30	3

MINING AND QUARRYING, 1961

..	Persons	Males	Females
Mining and Quarrying	6,325	5,909	416
Mining coal	6,011	5,708	303
Mining of iron ores	3	3	..
Mining of gold and silver ores	7	7	..
Quarrying of stone (including slate) clay, sand, gravel, lime stone.	304	191	113

Coal Mining.—The coal fields in the district are located at Bendar, Warora, Majri, Ghugus and Ballarpur. These deposits are considered second grade and of a non-coking variety. The reserves in these collieries have been estimated at 2,306 million tons.

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Though mining operations have not yet commenced, an area covering twelve square miles, 25 miles to the west of Tempa railway station is estimated to contain coal deposits to the extent of 1,080 lakh tons. Coal deposits around Warora estimated at about 90 lakh tons are spread over an area of two square miles. Every year about 500 tons of coal is extracted from the collieries around Majri. The coal deposits found around Ghugus are considered to be of a high quality. The deposits in Ghugus and Tilawasa collieries are estimated at about ten lakh tons. There are about three collieries around Chandrapur which are estimated to contain coal deposits of about ten lakh tons. New machinery and plants have recently been erected in the third colliery. The estimated coal deposits around Ballarpur are 20 lakh tons.

Mining leases for extraction of coal from 4,160.686 hectares (10,281.27 acres) were given to seven colliery companies in 1961 and 6.07 lakh metric tons of coal valued at Rs. 132.96 lakhs was extracted during the year. This figure further went up in 1962 and 1963 when 8.3 lakh tons and 8.4 lakh tons of coal respectively was extracted.

Iron Ores.—The main deposits of iron in the district are located at Lohara, Asola, Deolgaon, Pimpalgaon, Fuser, Ratnapur and Bhisi. Occurrences of deposits are reported at Maseli, Surajagad, Moregaon, Vithalgaon and in Government forest at Sindewahi. Red Oxide of iron occurs at Babupeth near Chandrapur. These deposits are estimated at 21.61 million tons.

The deposits at Lohara are spread in an area admeasuring 3 to 8 miles in length, 200 yards in breadth and 150 to 200 feet deep. The deposits are estimated at 200 lakh tons. Iron contents are estimated to be 69 per cent. At Asola the deposits are found in 410 yards with a depth of 40 to 50 feet. The deposits are estimated at four lakh tons and percentage of iron contents varies from 65 to 99. The deposits at Deolgaon are estimated at 2,30,000 tons with iron contents varying between 61 per cent and 67 per cent. At Bhisi deposits the iron contents are 69 per cent. At Pimpalgaon the deposits are estimated to contain 71 per cent of iron contents. At Fuser, a distance of 30 miles from Mul railway station, the deposits are estimated at several lakh tons with contents of 69 per cent. Surajgad deposits are estimated at 10 lakh tons.

During 1960-61, five mining companies were given leases for exploitation of iron ore from 287.683 hectares (710.88 acres). The companies exploited iron ore to the extent of 2,837 metric tonnes with the sale value of Rs. 17,450. In 1961, iron ore of 4,675 metric tonnes was exploited. It further increased to 13,023 metric tonnes in 1962 but fell to 3,322.14 metric tonnes in 1963.

Clay.—The deposits of white clay occur at Kothari, Isapur, Ballarpur, Junara and Warora reserve forest and Bhadravati in Warora tahsil. The quantity of clay varies from deposits to

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Mining Industry

deposits as also the colour which varies from pure white to various tints of brown and red. The clay is used for local pottery works.

Leases for exploitation of clay from 62.828 hectares (155.25 acres) were granted to seven companies in 1960-61. The output of clay was 9,271 metric tonnes during 1961 and 3,323.16 metric tonnes during 1963.

Miscellaneous.—Lime stone is found at Nigi, Borai, Purkepar, Kandla and Mardha exploitation of which has not been undertaken so far. Two companies were given leases in 1960-61 for exploitation of yellow ochres from 11.837 hectares (29.25 acres) in the Government forests of Chandrapur range. Copper deposits are known to occur at Govindpur and Thanewasne in Chandrapur tahsil. It is a promising copper bearing area. The district is also bestowed with the deposits of mica and other minerals like building stones, brick, earth, etc. Deposits of basium sulphate used in the manufacture of colours is traced at Mahadvadi in Chandrapur tahsil. Besides the possibility of finding deposits of diamonds, gold and manganese is also not ruled out.

With so much mineral wealth the district is bound to advance from its present backwardness towards a sound economy in the near future, as a systematic survey of these areas may reveal many new deposits and may afford new opportunities.

Electricity Generation.

Electricity is supplied to the district by the Maharashtra State Electricity Board through the Ballarpur thermal power station 10 miles from Chandrapur. The Ballarpur thermal power station was commissioned during the First Five Year Plan. Important places like Wardha, Amravati, Yeotmal, Arvi, Karanja and Akola are connected with the grid supply from this power station. Places in Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils of the district are connected with the grid system from the thermal power station at Khaperkheda near Nagpur.

By the end of March 1964, there were 50 electrified villages and towns in the district.

The following table taken from the 1961 Census Handbook gives the list of towns and villages electrified in the district :—

TABLE No. 3

Tahsil (1)	Villages Electrified (2)	Towns Electrified (3)
Brahmapuri	Aher-Nawargaon ..	..
	Pimpalgaon	
	Brahmapuri	
	Sindewahi	
	Naghbir	
	Talodhi	
	Udapur	
	Maldongri	
	Lohwahi Tola	

CHAPTER 5. Industries. LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES. Electricity Generation.

Tahsil (1)	Villages Electrified (2)	Towns Electrified (3)
Warora	Bhadrawati	Warora
	Majari	
Gadhchiroli	Desaiganj	..
	Wadsa	
	Konsari	
Chandrapur	Mul	Chandrapur
	Ghugus	Ballarpur
	Rajoli	
	Saoli	
	Ghugus Colliery (I)	
	Ghugus Colliery (II)	
Rajura	..	Rajura
		Sasti

Electricity to the tune of 12,52,000 K. W. H. was consumed for domestic purposes in 1961-62. The consumption increased by 6.47 per cent in 1962-63 and decreased by 0.03 per cent in 1963-64. The consumption of electricity per person in areas served with electricity worked out to nearly 6 K. W. H. during 1963-64.

Consumption of power for industrial purposes in the district is very high. During 1961-62, 2,77,42,000 K. W. H. of electricity was consumed for industrial purposes. It increased by 8.20 per cent in 1962-63 and by 32.88 per cent in 1963-64 over that in 1961-62. In 1963-64 the consumption worked out to 272 K.W.H. per worker. The rates charged for consumption differed with the purpose for which it was consumed. As regards industrial power, the rate was 15 paise per unit up to the consumption of 200 units and for consumption above 200 units the rate was 13 paise per unit.

The following table taken from the Chanda District Census Handbook, 1961 gives the district consumption of electricity on different items for the period from 1953 to 1957-58.

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Electricity Generation.

TABLE No. 4

ELECTRICAL ENERGY GENERATED, PURCHASED AND CONSUMED

(In thousands of K. W. H.)

Year	K. W. H. Generated	K. W. H. Purchased	K. W. H. Sold to Public					K. W. H. Consumed			
			Commercial light and small power	Industrial power	Public Lighting	Other purposes	Total	Domestic consumption	Commercial light and small power	Industrial power	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(4)			
1953	..	504	50	87	88	9	420	186			
1954	..	599	25	160	49	..	499	265			
1955	..	566	37	126	57	..	444	224			
1956	..	591	38	130	57	..	483	258			
1957-58	85,136	810	625	3,138	581	4,366	10,899	2,189			

Note : Figures for the year 1957-58 pertain to 15 months.

Source : Reports of Central Water and Power Commission.

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Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

SECTION II — COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Besides the large and small industries described hitherto, there are many traditional crafts conducted on household and cottage industries scale. They mostly comprise processing and servicing establishments catering to the requirements of the local population. The main industries that form this group are handloom weaving, handicrafts and professions like carpentry, bricks and tiles making, pottery, cane and bamboo works, oil *ghanis* and tasar silk weaving.

Cotton Weaving (Handloom)

The cotton weaving industry is a very old industry in the district. The old Gazetteer of Chandrapur district, published in 1909 has the following to say about it:—

"The cotton fabrics of Chandrapur formerly possessed a wide reputation for excellence and durability: they used to be largely exported to western India, and Sir R. Jenkins mentions that prior to 1802 A.D. coarse cloth made at Chandrapur found their way as far a field as Arabia. White cotton *selas* for loin-cloths, white cotton *dorias* and *param*, a coarse white cotton fabric used the native saddle-cloths, horse clothing, etc., are the articles singled out by Sir R. Jenkins as the special products of Chandrapur; but none of these are said to be made now. The same authority also wrote that 'the chintzes of Chandrapur are much worn in Gondwana and Berar by the women'. Much of this glory has now departed, although the *saris* of Chandrapur still possess a more or less extended reputation, and certain amount of local cotton cloth is exported to Amraoti and Akola in Berar. The anticipations of Major Lucie Smith, who was confident that Chandrapur, thanks to its possession of coal and cotton in close juxtaposition, would ere long command the markets of Central India with its piece-goods, have fallen very wide of the mark. So far from commanding other markets, the piece-goods of Chandrapur have to a large extent been elbowed out of their own: according to the estimates of local cloth merchants of the town, the annual cloth transactions of Chandrapur city amount to five lakhs: of this three lakhs represent the value of cloth imported from outside, while of the remaining two lakhs worth, which is produced locally, only one half is consumed locally, the other half being exported; this is of course avowedly only a very rough estimate. The mills of Hinganghat and Nagpur are easily able to flood the local market with cheap cloth: a common cotton *sari* with a red and blue check made by Momins of Nagpur and sold at Chandrapur for Rs. 1.10 easily undersells any similar article of local manufacture. In spite of these facts, there is still an extensive manufacture of coarse cotton cloths in nearly every village. Dhers or Mahars are usually the weavers. They turn out coarse *dhotis* which sell at Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 the pair, and *saris* at a similar price, and these garments are largely worn by the lower classes. The counts of thread employed are coarse, never higher than 20's and usually

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not above 12's or 16's, and this thread is now practically all obtained from local mills. After manufacture, the cloth is often dyed or printed in colours by local Chhipas or Rangaris. Mahars also prepare a coarse red cloth called *toshak* which is stuffed with raw cotton and sold in the form of a quilt for about Rs. 1-8. Probably there are at least 250 families of Dhers in Chandrapur alone who are engaged in the manufacture of cotton cloths, and a proportionate number would be found in most of the larger villages".

The census report for 1921 for Central Provinces and Berar states that weaving was almost universal and was reported to have received some impetus from the non-co-operation movement in favour of Khadi or country cloth but this was purely a temporary phenomenon. The industry had also been assisted by the high prices of machine made cloth during the war. During 1920 the makers generally dealt directly with their customers at the weekly bazar. The weavers generally used old fashioned looms.

However, the conditions changed during the decade. The census report of Central Provinces and Berar for 1931 has to say the following about the same:—

"The weavers cannot readily produce goods of more modern pattern to keep pace with changing fashions. Only those weavers who turn out finer and more artistic fabrics which cannot be manufactured in factories could hold their own in the industry. The competition of factory made piece-goods continued to hit the rest hard during the decade. The condition of the vast mass of handloom weavers engaged in the manufacture of ordinary *sarees* and *dhotis* is thus deteriorating still further.

The industry subsequently thrived on account of the shortage of cotton and high prices of mill made cloth resulting from the Second World War. The position of the industry, however, did not remain the same as it was in the past and now it can no longer be regarded as a profitable and prospective business".

As per 1961 Census, the number of drawers and weavers in the district is placed at 5,006. There were 8,013 cotton and 62 non-cotton handlooms in the district by the end of May 1961. The handloom workers are mostly the weavers of *sarees, dhotis, phetas* (turban), *shelas* of finer counts and coarse cotton cloth known for its texture and designs. Some times the cloth produced is a mixture of silk and cotton threads at times mixed with gold and silver thread borders. Chandrapur town is famous for such quality of cloth. The cotton fabrics of Chandrapur which formerly possessed a wide reputation for excellence and durability and which were largely exported to Western India and as far as Arabia are not much in demand now though wearing them is still considered a mark of distinction on ceremonial occasions. The large number of persons still engaged in the handloom industry shows that these weavers are still tenaciously holding their own against the mechanised production perhaps on the patronage of those who still prefer the unique feature of this cloth and of wearing it.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Cotton Weaving (Handloom). Tasar Silk Industry.

Tasar silk industry occupies an important place among the cottage industries in the district. About the industry, the old District Gazetteer of Chanda has the following to say—

"The tasar silk industry has for some years attracted the attention of Government as a valuable and interesting cottage industry capable of considerable development. It divides itself naturally into three branches, the first being concerned with the rearing of the silk cocoons, the second with the spinning of yarn from the cocoons, and the third with the weaving of the yarn into the finished article. Chandrapur is more famous for its spinning industry than for the other two departments".

"Rearing of tasar silk worms.—The rearing of the tasar silk worm is conducted in the forests of the Bramhapuri, Garhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils. This branch of the industry is entirely in the hands of Dhimars, except in Sironcha, where, curiously enough, the Bhois or local Dhimars absolutely refuse to have anything to do with the rearing of worms, and this task falls to the Gonds and a few Naiks. The operation is hedged about with countless superstitions and, while engaged upon it, the Dhimar entirely cuts himself off from all intercourse with his family and lives a life apart. In this District, seed cocoons are invariably wild, and this is an advantage as the cocoons deteriorate under the influence of domestication. On the other hand, they are small and of poor quality even in their wild state, while the domesticated Chanda cocoon is the worst in the whole Province. This dependence on wild cocoons has another drawback. Each rearer is only able to collect a few cocoons, and he has therefore to breed the preliminary crops merely with a view of increasing his stock so that it is only when he has raised a third crop that he is able to sell to the spinner. The disadvantage of this is that the worms, which are heirs to countless dangers, are exposed to those dangers for a much longer period than is usual elsewhere, and, in addition to this, the third or *jadni* crop on which the breeder solely relies comes at the beginning of the cold weather at a period when the worms are subject to a particularly great risk of disease. Frequently, especially in the last few years, crops have been entirely lost from this cause. The worms are always reared out of doors, generally on the *saj* or *yen* tree (*Terminalia tomentosa*) which is roughly pollarded for the purpose. The risks to be faced come not only from birds, against which the worms can be more or less guarded, but also from the uncontrollable forces of wind and weather. Long drought, severe cold, storms or continuous wet weather are all in different ways fatal: heavy rain after protracted drought induces the much dreaded disease known as grasserie. Cocoons are sold to

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Tasar Silk Industry.

the Koshti spinners at rates varying from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per 1,000, the latter rate, however, is only approached for superior cocoons or in bad years when the supply is short. An average crop for one breeder would be about 5,000 cocoons. Tasar-worm rearers are not usually welcome guests to the Forest Officer, as their operations bring in no revenue to speak of and are destructive to the jungle. The policy of Government has therefore been in the direction of placing the rearers under the wing of the revenue officials, by setting aside areas of suitable B class forest and handing over the management of these to the revenue authorities. Twenty acres of forest, worked in rotation for periods of four years, were laid down as a sufficient allowance for the support of one Dhimar family. The main object in view in these proceedings was to increase the supply of cocoons, as it was held that the demand for tasar silk was ample, and that the great want was an increased *outturn of cocoons*: it is doubtful, however, if this view is well founded. The average area set aside for rearing the tasar worm in Government forest during the last three years is 1882 acres.

"*Tasar silk spinning.*—The spinning industry is conducted by Koshtis or Koskatis, who prepare the cocoons for reeling off by boiling them in an infusion of water and castor seeds or the ashes of the *agra* plant. Probably there are about 200 families of tasar spinners in the whole District, and they are for the most part concentrated in Saoli, Chamursi, Garhchiroli, Armori, and Nagbhir. Nagbhir is the most famous centre of the industry, and before the famine there used to be 100 families of spinners in this place alone. The Nagbhir spinners make a very uniform and high class yarn in the preparation of which they reject the inferior surface fibre and frequently mix the native cocoons with superior cocoons imported from Bengal. One person can reel from 25 to 75 cocoons per diem, the average number being 50 or 60. According to the statistics collected by Mr. Mukerji, 10,000 cocoons yield from 30 to 37½ tolas of silk: the yarn is sold in bundles called *punjas* and 100 *punjas*, weighing from 40 to 55 tolas, sell at rates varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8, according to the quality and the demand. Thread is made of various strengths from 3-ply up to 12-ply. There is much room for improvement in the methods of reeling, which are of a very primitive kind: the spinning machine is, however, of a superior type to that used in adjoining Districts.

Imitation silk made in Germany of cellulose has of late years reduced prices and to some extent threatened the industry. But there is a good demand for Chanda yarn at Umrer, Paoni and Nagpur, and the spinning industry is fairly flourishing.

"*Tasar Weaving.*—In the weaving of tasar silk this district does not excel and weavers are but few in number. Four families at Armori and six at Chamursi appear to exhaust the roll: these do their own spinning as well as weaving. The material produced

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES. Tasar Silk Industry.

is coarse in texture and is not for a moment to be compared with the products of Sambalpur: it has, however, good wearing qualities, and for this reason is more popular than the more delicate fabrics of that District. At Armori, *saris* are made with ornamental *ruiphuli* borders, but at Chamursi plain *saris* or at most *saris* with a plain border were till lately all that could be produced. These were of a dirty white colour—the colour of widow's weeds, and no woman would wear them. In 1903, however, Government deputed a weaver from Sambalpur to show the weavers of Chamursi how to dye thread and to weave the ornamental pattern which takes its name from the village of Barpali. A few of the weavers succeeded in learning the desired lesson: but as they are unable to produce a *sari* of this type for less than Rs. 30 or Rs. 35 and as they received no orders the experiment has not been an unqualified success. It is doubtful whether even from the artistic standpoint much is to be gained from the introduction of this pattern. The texture of the local fabric is so rough that the pattern, graceful on the more delicate fabric of Sambalpur, here loses much of its effect. *Pagris* or *phetas*, *saris* and *dhotis*[1] are the principal articles turned out, and Mr. Mukerji mentions with approbation one very neat pattern of the latter which he saw at Armori; it was, however, very highly priced as compared with similar articles made in Bengal. Tasar silk as well as ordinary floss silk is looked on with favour by natives as particularly pure and suitable for ceremonial purposes: it is not polluted, like cotton, by the touch of an unholy thing. A piece of finished tasar 9 yards long by 24 inches broad fetches Rs. 4 at Chamursi and Rs. 5 at Chandrapur, but superior pieces may run to Rs. 6; these prices fluctuate with the supply of silk, in bad years as much as Rs. 8 or Rs. 9 being charged.

Formerly there was a fair export trade in tasar yarn silk from about Dabha to the Nizam's dominions, but this has now altogether declined under the competition of German imitation silk. All branches of the tasar industry suffered heavily during the famines, but have since to some extent recovered".

The census report for Central Provinces and Berar for 1931 states "The silk and tasar industry decayed still further and now exists on a small scale only in the Bilaspur, Chanda, Bhandara and Nagpur districts. The bulk of the yarn used is foreign or locally spun from cocoons imported from Bihar and Orissa and Bengal". About the same industry the earlier census report stated 'There is a little silk and tasar weaving in Chandrapur, Nagpur, Bhandara and Raipur, but the industry is unimportant'.

Recently the Government have undertaken measures for the improvement of tasar silk industry. Under the scheme of improvement of tasar silk industry one research and production centre has been set up at Armori (1962-63 and 1963-64) in the

[1] *Dhoti*, a flowing cloth bound round the waist and legs. It is generally bordered with purple or red, blue or green like the *toga proetexta*, and in Mysore the *dhoti* is called *togataru*.—(Birdwood).

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

district and 75 tasar reeling machines have been supplied. It also provides for the training facilities in tasar silk weaving. Advice and assistance are also given to those who are engaged in tasar silk weaving.

Bidi Industry.

Bidi industry is an important cottage industry and provides a subsidiary source of livelihood to agricultural labourers in the post-harvest period. The industry is suitable for such casual work because it neither requires much capital investment nor demands special skill. As tendu leaves required for making bidies are available in abundance in the district, bidi making has become a prosperous industry. According to the Census of 1951, 312 persons including 4 women were engaged in the manufacture of bidis. As per the 1961 Census, the bidi industry engaged 571 workers.

The census report for Central Provinces and Berar, 1931, states "In spite of the large number of women and children engaged in the industry no special facilities for women and children are provided at work places..... The hours of work for women and children vary from 8 to 10 hours per day alongwith men and manufacture of bidis is rarely carried on at night but where it is done the lighting arrangements are reported to be sufficient ..... Employees generally take leaves to their homes to cut them into proper shape at night for making bidis the next day, but the actual manufacture is carried on at the employer's place in halls or big shades or open varandahs, of various sizes. Decided overcrowding is reported from most centres but lighting and ventilation are generally said to be satisfactory".

These conditions underwent a radical change in post-Independence period with the Government undertaking various schemes and making endeavours towards improving the conditions of the workers.

During the Census of 1931 for the Central Provinces and Berar it was revealed that Chanda district had two units manufacturing bidis employing 15 men, 10 women and 5 children. The same census report states "There is no doubt that the Swadeshi movement which started during the first decade of the present century gave the industry a very great impetus. The present boycott movement has also further increased the demand for biris and this trade is certainly not affected by the prevailing economic depression".

Generally workers are employed on piece rate basis whose wages are fixed around Rs. 1.75 per thousand bidis in municipal areas and around Rs. 1.25 in the non-municipal areas. They are supplied with all the necessary material like tobacco, leaves, thread, etc. The contractors generally act as agents between the factory owners and these workers. The contractors give the owner a fixed number of bidis against the fixed quota of raw material given to them. The contractors are paid an agreed rate of commission for their services.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Basket Making.

Basket making is a hereditary occupation of the Burud community. The census of 1951 gives the figure of 2,490 persons including 575 women as engaged in basket making besides 34 including 9 women engaged in other industries of wooden materials including leaves, but not including furniture or fixtures. According to the 1961 census, 5,466 persons were engaged in the manufacture of material from cane leaves, bamboo, etc. These are mostly the basket weavers and mat weavers who use the raw material of cane, bamboo and grass abundantly available from the forests of the district. The number of persons with occupation as basket weavers was quite considerable in the district.

Besides baskets, they manufacture *sup* (winnowing fans), *topalis*, *duradis*, *rovalis* and *karandis*. The tools required are a sickle (*koyata*) and a knife. Bamboo strips are taken out with a sickle and wetted. Moistening the strip makes the weaving of the baskets easy. The products are mostly sold locally.

The profit margin that these artisans got was very low as was evident from the cost of production and the selling prices. The sieve (*duradi*) was sold at 0.62 p. the cost of production of which was 0.44 p. Similarly in case of winnowing fan (*sup*), *hara* and *karandi* also the selling prices were Re. 0.50; Rs. 2.00 and Re. 0.75 against the cost of production of Re. 0.30; Re. 1.00 and Re. 0.50. Their earnings from the occupation were too meagre to allow them moderate living standards.

Carpenters.

Carpenters are engaged in making and repairing furniture of daily use such as chairs, cupboards, benches, cradles, agricultural implements, handlooms and warping frames. They also manufacture, fix or repair doors and door frames, wooden roof beams, etc.

According to the census of 1951, 2,616 persons including 2,587 men and 29 women were engaged as carpenters, turners and jointers. The 1961 census records a rise by about 35.7 per cent and gives the figure of 3,511 engaged as carpenters, jointers, cabinet makers, etc. A carpenter's tools are saw, plaining machine, foot rule, hammer, nails, screws, chisel etc. Some of the artisans are engaged by the contractors and *karkhandars* on wage basis, the wages depending upon their skill and the type of work they are required to do.

Pottery Making.

The 1951 census enumerated 1,154 persons composed of 1,078 men and 76 women as potters and makers of earthenware. The 1961 census gives the figure of 2,911 persons as engaged in making earthen pottery. According to the 1961 census handbook of Chanda district these are mostly village potters, a majority of whom still work on the traditional *baluta* system under which they get a fixed quantity of foodgrains at the harvest time for supply of earthenware during the year.

The potters still use traditional equipment. It consists of potter's wheel, moulds, pick axes, *ghamelas* and kiln to bake the

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

pots. The main raw materials required are horse dung, clay and coal ash with fallen dry leaves of banyan and pipal trees used for baking. The potters prepare *madkas, ranjan, thalis* and *gadgis*.

Pottery Making.

The process of making these articles is a curious one. The rotating potter's wheel gives the material the proper shape with the potter's hand synchronising with the movement of the wheel. The pots are baked in kiln after drying them in the sun. The pots are then glazed and polished. Some of the potters also make earthen toys. In spite of the age old techniques of production, the industry is flourishing as the machine made products cannot easily replace the indigenous ones.

Industries getting assistance from Khadi and Gramodyog Mandal.

The policy of the Government is to help the cottage industries so as to provide employment to the rural population. Government gives impetus to the formation of co-operatives of artisans for the purpose. This assistance is given through the Maharashtra State Khadi and Gramodyog Mandal which provides financial help to oil crushing, pottery, tiles, palm-gur making, making of non-edible oils and soaps, leather products, limestone industry and rope making (*wakh*). The following paras give a short description of these industries for the year 1966.

Oil Crushing.

Two co-operative societies of the artisans engaged in oil crushing are provided with financial assistance by the Mandal. The people of the district are mostly habituated to consuming linseed oil and the Mandal provides the oilman necessary finances to store linseed for extraction. The individual crushers from Nanhori, Navegaon, Pandav, Chandrapur, Pamurna and Mul have been rendered assistance through service co-operatives.

The Mandal proposes to establish the industry in a few more villages as the products of the industry have a wide demand in the local market. The industry provides employment to 83 persons who are paid Rs. 75,760 as wages.

Pottery and Tiles.

The industry is popularly known as *Kumbhar* industry. The Mandal has provided financial assistance to nine societies of artisans engaged in this industry. Of these societies, one is engaged in the production of glazed earthenware and the other one in the manufacture of Mangalore tiles. The main raw material required for the industry is clay which is abundantly available in the district.

The sale of Mangalore tiles produced by the society fetched Rs. 1,36,720 during the year. It provided employment to 121 persons and an amount of Rs. 12,106 was distributed by way of wages. The production of glazed pottery provided employment to 14 persons. They were paid about Rs. 13,860 by way of wages. An amount of Rs. 74,561 was realised through the sale of pottery. The Mangalore tiles as also the glazed pottery were exported outside the district.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Palm-gur Industry.

Of the six societies formed for the manufacture of palm-gur, no society had started production. Of these, five are engaged in the sale of neera. During the year the production of neera was 1,05,764 litres of which a quantity of 99,920.500 litres was consumed and the remaining was destroyed. It provided employment to 79 persons who were paid Rs. 23,700 as wages.

Non-edible Oil and Soap Industry.

The production of soap has not yet commenced in both the soap producing centres in the district. Ten centres have been established for the collection of non-edible oil-seeds. The work is mostly entrusted to the forest workers' societies. It provides employment to about 300 persons during the season.

Leather Industry.

In the district, there are 11 co-operative societies engaged in leather tanning and manufacturing leather products. During the year their production was valued at Rs. 12,494 and they realised an approximate amount of Rs. 12,000 through its sale. The industry provided employment to 106 persons to whom an amount of about Rs. 2,370 was distributed as wages. The Mandal also provided an aid of Rs. 1,455 to 66 road-side cobblers by way of supplying them with implements.

Limestone.

The district has huge deposits of limestone. Recently a society has been formed and has been given an amount of Rs. 5,000 as loan and Rs. 1,000 as assistance by the Mandal. Kilns have been constructed and they are expected to start production soon.

Rope Making.

Refugee women from East Pakistan have been given training in rope making and their co-operative society has been formed. The society has been given a loan of Rs. 20,900 and an assistance of Rs. 4,890.

Besides assisting the industries mentioned earlier, the Mandal started a training centre at Sironcha for the adivasis. At the centre they are trained in making fanciful articles and also palm-gur and other things from palm trees as the region abounds in them. The Mandal also helps in the rehabilitation of the refugees from East Pakistan. Accordingly training centres have been opened for them at refugee camps at Chandrapur, Babupeth and Bhadravati where training is imparted in carpentry, pottery, leather work, rope making, etc. The district offers ample scope for starting various village industries based on forest produce like gum, honey, katechu, bamboos, etc.

SECTION III—LABOUR ORGANISATION.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

During 1961 about 4,063 labourers were engaged in the factories of the district. The number rose to 9,220 in 1962 and 9,942 in 1963 corresponding to the increase in the number of factories from 38 in 1961 to 40 in 1962 and 45 in 1963.

The following statement shows the distribution of factories according to the size of factories and average daily employment:—

Size of Factories	1961		1962		1963	
	No. of working factories	Average number of workers employed daily	No. of working factories	Average number of workers employed daily	No. of working factories	Average number of workers employed daily
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1. Factories employing less than 50 workers.	6	23	9	10	3	60
2. Factories employing more than 50 workers.	32	1,073	31	2,961	42	2,854
Total ..	38	1,096	40	2,971	45	2,914

On March 31, 1964, there were 12 trade unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Of these, the details regarding three trade unions were not available. Of the remaining nine trade unions, only the mining and quarrying industry had two trade unions while the non-metallic mining and quarrying industry, bidi industry, paper and paper products industry, banks, educational institutions, weaving industry and local bodies had an union each.

The following statement gives the detailed information in regard to trade unions in Chandrapur district:—

Name of the Union in Chandrapur District	Registration No. and Date	Membership as on 31-3-64	Income 1963-64	Expenditure	Assets 1963-64
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Colliery Mazdoor Seva Mandal, Chandrapur.	2463 29-3-57	205	818	593	225
Bombay Pradesh Mine Workers' Union C/o. H. K. Haldankar, Ballarpur Colliery.	2987 17-2-58	Information not available			
Sasti Collieries Workers' Union, Ballarpur.	3362 13-4-59	489	1,222	1,160	94
Ghugus Khadan Mazdoor Sangh.	3949 22-2-61	Information not available			

Name of the Union in Chandrapur District	Registration No. and Date	Membership as on 31-3-64	Income 1963-64	Expenditure	Assets 1963-64
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Maharashtra Colliery Workers' Union.	4041 25-7-61	501	6,584	4,844	4,723
Desaiganj Bidi Mazdoor Sangh, Desaiganj.	2612 29-3-57	106	299	299	133
Ballarpur Paper Mill Mazdoor Sabha, Ballarpur, Paper Mill Colony, Ballarpur.	2542 29-3-57	896	2,660	2,554	1,572
Rashtriya Ballarpur Paper Mill Mazdoor Sangh.	2548 29-3-57	Information not available.			..
Chanda District Central Co-operative Bank Employees Union, Chandrapur.	4524 16-10-63	47	22	100	..
Nagarpalika Prathmik Shikshak Sangh, Chandrapur, Kotwali Ward, Chandrapur.	4377 31-1-63	171	1,063	241	3,582
Octroi Karmachari Sangh, Nagarpalika, Chandrapur.	4564 19-12-63	62	129	44	120
Shri Anne Company Winkar Kamgar Sangh, Naginabag Ward, Chandrapur.	4647 2-3-64	74	222	..	15

Industrial Disputes.

During the period from 1956 to 1963 for which years information was available the highest number of industrial disputes *viz*; seven had taken place in 1960 all concerning miscellaneous industries. The disputes involved 6,018 workers and 83,065 mandays were lost in the process. One dispute was regarding wages, five were concerning personnel and one was due to miscellaneous causes. Of these, one was successful, in case of one, compromise was reached, two were unsuccessful and in the case of three no decision was taken.

During 1958, three such disputes took place of which one concerned wages, and two occurred due to miscellaneous causes. Of these, one ended without success while in case of the remaining no understanding was reached. The dispute involved 1,297 workers and in the process 5,455 mandays were lost.

and its participation in various spheres of economic activity. The Small Savings drive initiated by the Government to mobilise the savings of persons of small means is an illustration in point.

Money-lenders were perhaps the only financial purveyors existing at the time when the old District Gazetteer of Chandrapur was published. But even in case of money-lending, the business was not very well developed over the larger part of the district except Chandrapur and Brahmapuri owing to the difficulties of communications. It was often found difficult by the money-lenders to make recoveries of loans or to make sound investments in land to turn it into a profitable proposition. The money-lending system as a whole was, therefore, much less developed in Chandrapur district than anywhere else. Wherever it was practised, it was carried out mainly in kind and not in cash. As already noted above, Chandrapur, Brahmapuri and Sironcha were the only important centres of the money-lending business at that time.

Grain was ordinarily borrowed for both harvests, except in Sironcha where borrowing was confined to seed for the spring crop of *juari*. Grain loans were often taken for mere subsistence by the poorer classes, in which case they were known as *porga*; the rates did not differ from those charged for loans of seed-grain. The system of borrowing known as *lawani* was said to be common in Brahmapuri. It was also found in the rice tract of the Chandrapur tahsil. It owed its existence in both tahsils to a succession of bad rice harvests. Under this system, the lender used to make an advance of cash stipulating for its repayment in grain at a fixed rate at harvest. This fixed rate was always considerably lower than the market rate likely to prevail at the time, so that the borrower was at a great disadvantage, especially when the harvest was poor. But even in the remote parts of Gadhchiroli the rising prices of produce opened the eyes of the people to the drawbacks of this system. The system was, therefore, adopted rarely; it was resorted generally by the most helpless of the tenants.

In Sironcha a pernicious system of borrowing had reduced the tenancy to a state of absolute and abject dependence on their *Sahukars*, who in this part were usually Komti shopkeepers from Madras. The Komtis doled out everything the tenant required. Each cultivator had a running account for food, seed, clothes, and small sums of money: even money for rent came from this source. To recoup themselves the Komtis took possession of the borrower's crop before it had been removed from the threshing floor. The crop was then valued at a rate fixed by agreement amongst the Komtis, and credit was given to the cultivator at that rate. This was known as the *Sahukar's* rate. It was considerably below a just tariff. Not content with such rate, the Komtis privily swelled their gains by illicit recourse to a *Sahukar's* measure, a vessel with a generous capacity for all

incomings. The helpless tenant was thus robbed and defrauded in every way.

There were two classes of money-lenders existing in the district at that time *viz.*, the village *Sahukars* and those staying in urban areas.

About the village money-lenders there is no better account than is given in the Settlement Report of Mr. Hemingway which is summarised below. The village *Sahukars* of the district fell into two classes (i) the *Sahukar* class pure and simple, with a hereditary profession of money-lending, (ii) cultivating classes who supplemented their farming with a little *Sahukari*. The first class was more or less the same in their caste, manners and methods of cultivation as was obtained elsewhere in India. The large number of money-lenders belonging to this class were Komtis, immigrants from Madras or Gujarat Brahmins. Maratha Brahmins, Hindusthani Brahmins and a few Muhammedens came next in importance or extent of their business. Of these, the business of Gujrath Brahmins was never straightforward and they were often sharpers. They invented a number of sharp practices such as the *machla* system or the production of forged resignations of land and leases reserving *sir* rights. As opposed to this the treatment of Komti money-lenders (towards their clients) residing, mostly in Chandrapur town was generally moderate. But when they got possession of a village it took only a few years for them to get a mortgage on nearly every holding. Luckily the true *Sahukar* classes in this district had not yet obtained much land. In the north of Brahmapuri, both Buti and Chitnavis of Nagpur were rapidly increasing their clientele. In the distant parts of their sphere of influence they lent little money to tenants, but confined to the Malguzar classes, or small grain loans.

The second class of village *Sahukar*, the cultivator who supplemented his farming with little trade was found in all parts of the district. The Malguzars of this type were Kunbis, Kohlis, Gandlis and a few Gurdis. As village *Sahukars* these men with very few exceptions were extremely lenient to their clients and never deteriorated their village. They lent grain and only very small sums of money, and these loans were repaid regularly. Luckily the greater part of the district was financed by men of this type. The most oppressive indigenous *Sahukar* was the Mahar who had taken to lending money; his low caste seemed to assist him in resisting all attempts to oust him, when once a plot was leased for debt to him, and he had reaped the debt several times over from its produce.

Between *Sahukars* themselves, the ordinary rate for loans was Re. 0-7-9 per mensem or Rs. 5-13-0 per annum.

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Money-lenders.

In the absence of any rules or regulations as regards the money-lender or his business anyone who could lay by some amount could follow the business of money-lending. Most of the money-lenders were, however, Gujrat or Marwar *wanis* who often combined the business of money-lending with that of shop-keeping and had an opportunity to exploit the borrowers as customers.

The money-lenders during those days followed all sorts of malpractices with a view to extracting as much as they could from the debtors who were mostly tenants or tenant-cultivators and whose need for loans was very imperative. Most of them usually kept a Journal or daybook called *kirdvahi* and a ledger called *khatawani*. Sometimes there were two journals, a rough one and a fair one. Those who advanced petty loans to cultivators kept only one book. Accounts were finally settled every year after harvest. The money-lenders followed a number of other malpractices such as *girah-kholai* (purse opening), demand for advanced interest, insertion in written documents of sums considerably in excess of money actually lent, etc., and put the debtors to considerable molestation and trouble.

It was with a view to redressing the grievances of the debtors and putting a stop to the malpractices of money-lenders that legal enactment was felt necessary. An Act known as the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934, was, therefore, passed by the then State Government and made applicable to all the persons who intended to carry on money-lending business. The Act was in operation till the reorganisation of States in 1956. After reorganisation, the Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946 was made applicable to Chandrapur district which then formed a part of Maharashtra.

According to this Act, the State Government is authorised to appoint Registrar-General, Registrar and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders for the purposes of this Act, and to define the areas of their duties. Every Registrar is to maintain a register of money-lenders in his jurisdiction. Money-lenders cannot carry on their business except for area under licence and except in accordance with terms of licence. They are further required to keep and maintain a cash-book and a ledger in a prescribed form and manner. They are also compelled to deliver a clear statement to their debtor about the language, amount, security, etc., of their transactions. By this Act molestation of a debtor by the creditor in recovery of loans is treated as an offence and is to be penalised.

The Act was subsequently amended, the important amendments being in regard to the introduction of 4-A and 5-A forms and the "Pass Book" system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a

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Money-lenders.

cognisable offence. In 1956, special measures were adopted to protect Backward Class people. The Registrars and the Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking the accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with Backward Class people.

From 5th July 1952, the structure of interest rates was revised. Accordingly, the maximum rates of interest were raised from 6 to 9 per cent per annum on secured loans and from 9 to 12 per cent per annum on unsecured loans. The money-lenders were also allowed to charge a minimum interest of rupee one per debtor per year, if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of the loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee.

Since the Act came into operation, it has been possible to keep proper check and supervision over the money-lending business in the district. Most of the money-lenders have been complying with the provisions of the Act. The system of *Savai* and *Duni* is nowhere to be found, nor is there any trace of the usurious practices as were followed by the money-lenders before.

From 1st February, 1960, the Co-operative Department was entrusted with the work of the administration of the Money-lenders' Act and the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies worked as Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders.

The following table gives the tahsil-wise distribution of money-lenders who were either given new licences or whose licences were renewed from 1st February 1960 to 31st July 1964. Prior to this period 222 money-lenders had already been issued licences by the Sub-Registrar's office under the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders' Act.

TABLE No. 1

TAHSIL-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF MONEY-LENDERS HOLDING VALID LICENCES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Tahsil	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Chandrapur	186	200	204	204
Warora	126	109	125	97
Brahmapuri	98	94	104	97
Gadhchiroli	72	74	71	58
Sironcha	16	15	89	7
Rajura	.. ..	2	2	2

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Money-lenders.

From the table it is clear that Chandrapur tahsil has the highest number of money-lenders in the district and Warora comes next, whereas Rajura has only two money-lenders possessing valid licences. It is possible that in Chandrapur district, which is economically very backward, a number of money-lenders might still be carrying on the money-lending business without holding valid licences. The district is inhabited by a large number of *Adiwasi* people whose ignorance may be exploited by the money-lenders. The *Adiwasis* are being pursuaded to approach the co-operative societies rather than to go to money-lenders for meeting their credit and other needs. The co-operative department, on its side also is keeping a close watch on the activities of the money-lenders and trying to safeguard the interests of the debtors and seeing that they are not put to any harassment or molestation by the money-lenders while effecting their recoveries.

The total advances made by the money-lenders to traders and non-traders in the district from 1st August 1939 to 31st July 1964 is given in table No. 2.

TABLE No. 2

TOTAL ADVANCES BY MONEY-LENDERS TO TRADERS AND NON-TRADERS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT (1959-60 TO 1963-64).

Period (1)	Traders (Rs.) (2)	Non-traders (Rs.) (3)	Total (Rs.) (4)
1-8-1959 to 31-7-1960	27,82,156	23,78,589	51,60,745
1-8-1960 to 31-7-1961	17,50,798	89,69,556	97,20,354
1-8-1961 to 31-7-1962	14,92,869	26,65,907	41,58,776
1-8-1962 to 31-7-1963	6,38,570	18,82,340	25,20,910
1-8-1963 to 31-7-1964	9,35,458	21,24,780	30,60,238
Total ..	75,99,851	1,80,21,172	2,56,21,023

Co-operative Societies.

In India the co-operative movement was started at the beginning of the present century. It was the result of the economic distress caused to the peasants during this period. Although the idea of forming co-operative societies was first suggested by Frederik Nicholson to solve the problem of rural indebtedness, a real beginning of the co-operative movement was made when the Co-operative Societies Act was passed in 1904. This was done with a view to encouraging thrift, self-help and co-operation amongst agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means. Societies formed under the Act were given legal status and were authorised to raise funds and carry on business in a

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Co-operative Societies.

corporate capacity. They were classified as rural and urban; rural societies were bound to accept the principle of unlimited liability. This Act, however, was deficient in many respects.

The Act of 1912 was, therefore, passed to make good these deficiencies. It regularised certain practices of doubtful legal validity and made provision for further expansion under proper safeguards. The distinction between rural and urban societies was removed and a more scientific classification based on limited or unlimited liability was adopted. Co-operative societies other than credit were allowed to be formed. Registration of unions and federal bodies like central banks was expressly legalised and a number of minor improvements were introduced. The simplicity and elasticity of the old Act were at the same time retained and a wide rule-making power was left to provinces to develop on their own lines.

Owing to its backwardness Chandrapur district made little progress in the co-operative field before Independence. The first society to get registered was, of course, the agricultural co-operative credit society in the district. Other type of societies came up later. By June 1966, there were thus 1,619 Co-operative Credit Societies in the district including the co-operative industrial estate. The break-up of these societies into various types is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 3

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT AS ON 30TH JUNE 1966.

Type (1)	No. (2)
Agricultural Credit Societies	1,204
Non-agricultural Credit Societies ..	26
District Central Co-operative Bank ..	1
Primary Land Development Bank ..	1
Grain Banks or societies	27
Co-operative Marketing Societies ..	18
Dairy Society	1
Pottery Society	1
Cattle-breeding Societies	2
Co-operative Farming Societies ..	35
Irrigation Societies	3
Cotton Ginning and Pressing Society	1

TABLE No. 3—*cont.*

Type (1)	No. (2)
Agricultural Processing Societies ..	17
Labour Contract Societies	33
Forest Labourers Societies	31
Co-operative Printing Press	1
Co-operative Consumers Stores ..	29
Co-operative Housing Societies ..	43
Weavers' Co-operative Societies ..	14
Other Industrial Societies	56
Co-operative Industrial Estate ..	1
Co-operative Fisheries Societies ..	33
Co-operative Supervising Unions ..	18
District Co-operative Board	1
Co-operative Federations	2
Total ..	1,619

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.—The Agricultural Credit Societies among those mentioned above are the most important, covering 97 per cent of the villages in the district. They constitute the bulk of the co-operative societies. By 1966, there were 1,204 societies of this type in the district. They included 177 Primary Credit Societies, 28 large sized societies and 999 Service Co-operatives. The primaries meet only the essential credit needs of the cultivators and have little scope for their operation. Each of the other types of societies progressively cater to the larger credit requirements and offer a wider range of service to the peasant population by meeting its non-credit requirements also. There is, therefore, a growing tendency to convert the primaries or large sized societies into multi-purpose or *Seva* (Service) societies. By doing so these societies become viable and economically sound units on a village level with multifarious activities including supply of seeds and manures, distribution of foodgrains, supply of domestic requirements such as foodgrains, cloth, etc., and supply of agricultural implements. Their main function, however, is to advance money for agricultural purpose and redemption of old debt—short-term and medium-term (*i.e.*, not exceeding five years) loans—to farmers within the area of their operation which is usually a village.

The following table gives the statistics and working of all the Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies in the district during the years 1964-65 and 1965-66.

TABLE No. 4.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of Societies	1,272	1,204
Number of members	76,592	81,178
	Rs.	(Rs.)
Paid-up share capital	58,08,172	57,39,501
Government's share capital	2,92,500	2,92,500
Statutory and other reserves	9,30,471	10,09,449
Deposits	6,80,951	7,59,539
Other borrowings	1,85,02,687	2,15,67,084
Working Capital	2,52,22,181	2,90,75,537
Loans advanced	1,58,18,547	1,43,03,252
Loans recovered	1,36,19,116	1,14,66,963
Loans outstanding	2,05,65,759	2,34,02,048
Overdues	64,92,597	1,00,11,810
Profit	4,37,080	4,69,530
Loss	1,50,088	4,22,233

All these societies have been affiliated to the District Central Co-operative Bank, Chandrapur, through which provision of finance is made. Recently some of these societies have also undertaken distribution and marketing activities. The value of the produce marketed by them was Rs. 36,52,247 and the value of the requisites distributed (including consumers' goods) was Rs. 29,17,946 during 1965-66.

Grain Banks.—Grain banks were organised to facilitate easy credit of grains to the agriculturists who used to borrow grains for productive and consumption purposes from local money-lenders. These banks flourished during the period of control on foodgrains and the levy system. After 1956 these controls were removed and a number of grain banks were found either defunct or dormant. There is, therefore, a move to liquidate them. By 1965, 27 grain banks with 621 members were working in the

district. The following statement gives the details of their working:—

Details (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capita	25,852	30,211
Reserve and other funds	2,410	2,178
Deposits	1,553	1,971
Working Capital	29,815	34,360
Loans advanced in kind	590	680
Loans recovered in kind	351	455
Profits earned	10,903	5,190
Loss incurred	201	75

Land Development Bank.—There is only one Land Development Bank in this district situated at Chandrapur. It caters to the long term credit needs of the agriculturists by granting them loans for purchase of oil engines and for the construction of new wells and repairs to old wells. By 1965-66, it had 8 societies, and 5,158 individuals as its members. The statistics about the working of this bank is given below:—

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capital	3,14,690	4,97,000
Statutory and other reserves	2,550	2,550
Deposits	1,56,100	96,800
Borrowings	24,66,100	42,02,000
Working capital	29,39,400	47,98,350
Loans advanced	7,36,500	16,03,400
Loans recovered	2,25,200	2,67,000
Loans outstanding	27,28,650	40,49,300
Of which overdues	70,600	1,28,300
Profit	..	..
Loss	16,100	52,600

Non-agricultural Co-operative Societies.—These are mainly urban banks or societies formed by traders, salary-earners or factory-workers residing in towns which is usually their area of operations. Their membership is open to all those residing in this area. The liability of members is, however, limited. The societies advance loans to their members either on personal security or on mortgage of property. In 1965-66 there were in all 26 non-agricultural credit societies in the district which included an Urban Co-operative Bank situated in Chandrapur, an Urban Credit Society, a mill-hand society at Ballarpur and three Thrift Credit Societies. The progress of these societies can be gauged from the following table:—

TABLE No. 5

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of Societies	24	26
Number of Members	3,789	3,734
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capital	1,87,740	2,08,411
Statutory and other reserves	22,894	47,622
Deposits	2,61,152	3,11,129
Borrowings	2,04,909	1,99,749
Working Capital	6,77,695	7,66,911
Loans advanced	2,74,017	7,61,546
Loans recovered	1,57,019	6,44,912
Loans outstanding	6,04,816	6,21,451
Overdues	..	..
Profits	23,636	18,851
Loss	9,017	5,180

Of the above societies, the salary-earners' societies form a bulk. Their account is given separately below:—

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of Societies	18	20
Number of members	2,876	1,478
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capital	1,26,150	86,911
Deposits	2,22,827	1,20,328
Borrowings	75,009	74,390
Statutory and other Reserves	18,466	11,266
Working capital	3,47,970	2,92,891
Loans advanced	89,702	2,34,404
Loans recovered	43,093	3,22,462
Loans outstanding	3,32,733	2,44,675
Profits	19,398	3,714
Loss	4,289	1,592

Chandrapur District Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd..—This Central Co-operative Bank is the central financing agency as almost all the finance required by the various co-operative institutions in the district is channelised through it. To finance the agricultural co-operative credit societies in the district is the main function of the bank. But it also undertakes such banking business as collection and discounting of bills, opening up of current accounts, purchase and sale of securities, issue of cheques and drafts, etc. The bank also makes advances to co-operative societies in the form of cash credit (clean, hypothecation and pledge) medium-term loans to industrial societies and loans for agricultural purposes, especially for crops. In places where multi-purpose or sale societies cannot be organised or worked efficiently, the Central Co-operative Bank makes arrangements for the sale of agricultural produce especially of those cultivators who come within the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act and those who are allowed to become members for obtaining crop finance. The following table gives the details of operation of the bank:—

TABLE No. 6.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE DISTRICT CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BANK, CHANDRAPUR.

Serial No. (1)	Particulars (2)	1964-65 (3)	1965-66* (4)
1	Number of branches	23	23
2	Number of members—		
	Societies	1,301	1,348
	Individuals	501	498
		Rs.	Rs.
3	Paid-up Share Capital	40,39,768	40,99,314
4	Government's Share	16,50,000	16,50,000
5	Reserve Fund	4,14,262	4,53,045
6	Other Funds	5,13,457	6,66,538
7	Deposits	98,84,155	1,42,19,650
8	Borrowing	1,10,58,000	1,01,14,000
9	Working Capital	3,84,68,000	2,95,53,000
10	Cash on hand	1,98,000	9,52,000
11	Balance with the Bank	34,75,000	34,55,000
12	Investments	24,80,000	26,23,000
13	Loans advanced	2,60,54,000	1,51,02,000
14	Loans recovered	2,42,31,000	12,11,4,000
15	Loans outstanding	1,95,08,000	2,13,43,000
16	Profits	1,77,000	4,05,000

* There were 25 branches in 1970.

Co-operative Marketing Societies.—Marketing of agricultural produce is one of the important problems that an agriculturist has to face. Unless the cultivator gets a profitable price for his produce there will be no incentive for him to produce more. The orderly marketing of the produce after each harvest at remunerative or profitable prices is, therefore, very important from the point of view of production and the welfare of the cultivators. Co-operative marketing to a very great extent fills this gap by providing the cultivator all the marketing facilities and obtaining for him better prices and returns. As such, these societies even supply to their members such agricultural requisites as fertilisers, improved seeds, farm implements, etc. These societies form a bridge between the primary credit societies and the District Central Co-operative Bank and are, therefore, utilised for implementing the scheme of the supply of credit in kind and recovery of loans from the members through the sale-proceeds of the produce. The marketing societies are thus playing a very useful role in strengthening the bargaining position of the cultivators and linking credit with marketing. In the Co-operative Development Plan Scheme, the development of co-operative marketing is, therefore, given a very high priority. A programme of enrolling the service co-operative societies (which were not members) as members of primary marketing societies was envisaged. It was also made compulsory for each agricultural credit society to invest at least 2 per cent of its own share capital in the shares of the marketing society to which it is affiliated. With a view to building up the share capital base of the Apex Marketing Society a condition was made that each marketing and processing society should invest five per cent of the share capital sanctioned for it in the share capital of the Apex Marketing Society.

The District Purchase and Sale Society.—For the first time a District Marketing Society, *viz.*, the Chandrapur Zilla Sahakari Kharedi Vikri Sangh Ltd., Chandrapur, was organised in the district on 28th February 1965. By June 1966, the society had a membership of 90. The paid-up share capital as well as the working capital amounted to Rs. 1,49,000 out of which Rs. 1,00,000 was Government paid-up capital sanctioned in 1965-66.

Primary Marketing Societies.—By 1966, there were 16 Primary Marketing Societies working in the district. The following

table gives the working and statistics of these societies in the district:—

TABLE No. 7

STATISTICS REGARDING THE WORKING OF THE PRIMARY PURCHASE AND SALE SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of societies	16	16
Number of members	4,459	4,806
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capital	6,56,368	7,22,637
Government's Share	5,24,350	5,74,390
Deposits	56,658	98,675
Reserve and other funds	2,28,065	2,85,753
Borrowings	10,25,206	13,04,709
Working capital	19,66,297	24,11,774
Purchases—		
	Rs.	Rs.
Agricultural produce	11,14,879	16,06,344
Agricultural requisites	12,11,025	20,16,241
Consumers' goods	1,32,74,352	36,77,198
Sales—	Rs.	Rs.
Agricultural produce	40,66,972	19,88,462
Agricultural requisites	13,55,734	11,03,614
Consumers' goods	1,47,92,271	2,06,04,806
Profits	1,06,745	2,89,012
Loss	31,840	7,821

Consumers' Co-operatives.—Consumers' co-operatives were primarily formed in urban areas. They are essentially the product of the post-war period when the essential consumers' goods became scarce and their prices rose steeply. The consumers' co-operatives work in the spirit of service. Their main function is to make a proper distribution of consumers goods at reasonable prices and undertake similar activities through which they can to a certain extent check the rising trend of prices and their fluctuations.

By 1965-66, there was one wholesale consumers' store and 28 Primary Consumers Stores in the district. Of these the former used to sell to the latter a number of commodities including

articles of daily use through its branches or through affiliated primary societies. The following table gives the progress made by these societies in the district:—

TABLE No. 8

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	Wholesale Consumers' Stores 1964-65 (2)	Wholesale Consumers' Stores 1965-66 (3)	Primary Consumers' Stores 1964-65 (4)	Primary Consumers' Stores 1965-66 (5)
Number of stores	1	1	26	28
Number of members	511	518	3,575	3,302
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up capital	1,15,480	90,700	39,904	42,601
Reserve and other funds	561	3,321	99,112	1,11,884
Borrowings	67,168	1,40,024	79,453	1,00,416
Working capital	1,83,209	2,34,045	2,18,469	2,54,901
Stock held at the end of the year ..	4,166	1,43,838	1,53,606	1,68,730
Purchases	65,559	25,51,338	7,78,300	9,14,743
Sales	69,095	24,51,415	8,55,003	5,51,538
Number of stores in profit	..	1	11	14
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Amount of profit	..	3,502	22,934	25,353
Number of stores in loss	1	..	8	4
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Amount of loss	6,089	..	9,207	6,676

Agricultural Processing Societies.—These societies undertake the work of processing agricultural produce which formerly was the monopoly of private firms and individuals. By doing so they not only derive more profit but also establish a co-operative link between production and distribution. The Government encourages their formation and offers incentives for undertaking processing work. By June 1966 there were 18 societies of this type in the district. Out of them 16 were rice mills, one was a cotton ginning and processing society and the other a *poha*-making society. Of the 16 rice mills, 9 rice mills were established during 1965-66 and were given share capital by the Government to the tune of Rs. 1,80,000. The following table gives the

details of the working of all the agricultural processing societies in the district as on 30-6-1966:—

TABLE No. 9

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE AGRICULTURAL PROCESSING SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	Cotton Ginning and Processing Societies (2)	Rice Mills (3)	Hand-pounding of Rice (*Pohe*) (4)
Number of societies	1	16	1
Societies in production	1	3	..
Number of members	261	2,641	66
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Share capital	1,73,125	8,47,045	550
Government's share	83,550	4,10,783	..
Working capital	3,35,094	9,64,475	1,897
	Quintals	Quintals	Quintals
Installed capacity	60·8	440	..
Quantity processed	..	48,558	..
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Sales of processed goods	..	53,694	..
Income from processing of ginning ..	37,844	69,853	..

Tobacco Marketing Society.—There was only one Tobacco Marketing Society at Ankisa in Sironcha tahsil of this district in 1965-66. It had a membership of 74 during this year and its paid-up and working capital amounted to Rs. 47,325 and Rs. 58,465, respectively. Its other funds were Rs. 3,792 during this period.

Co-operative Farming Societies.—The idea to organise co-operative farming societies was mooted in 1946—48 to rehabilitate the ex-soldiers and to decide the allied land tenure and land utilisation problems. To-day the main objects of the farming scheme are to increase agricultural production, create opportunities for gainful employment and rehabilitate landless labour on Government land. The farming societies, however, can also achieve consolidation of scattered and fragmented holdings and bring about improvement of fallow and waste lands through soil conservation, reclamation and development.

There were 35 co-operative farming societies in Chandrapur district during 1965-66. Of these 32 were Collective Farming Societies and the rest Joint Farming Societies. The following

table indicates the position of all the co-operative farming societies in Chanda district during 1965-66:—

TABLE No. 10

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Particulars (1)	Joint Farming Societies (2)	Collective Farming Societies (3)
Number of societies	3	32
Number of members	166	769
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up share capital	12,980	70,805
Working capital	55,980	8,52,648
	Acres	Acres
Area under command	299	8,504
Area under cultivation	235	1,660
Cropped area	235	1,660
Area under foodgrains	114	1,629
	Rs.	Rs.
Value of production	20,867	1,03,059
Value of sales	19,589	92,137
Number of societies in profit	1	16
Amount of profit	3,347	13,582
Number of societies in loss	2	16
Amount of loss	982	11,357

During 1965-66 these societies received Rs. 1,100 from the Government as contribution towards their share capital. The total financial assistance rendered by the Government to these societies is given below:—

Type of societies (1)	Assistance by way of			
	Loan (2)	Subsidy (3)	Share Capital (4)	Total (5)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Farming societies in pilot areas ..	24,000	2,459	600	27,059
Farming societies outside pilot areas.	49,000	1,860	500	51,360
Total ..	73,000	4,319	1,100	78,419

Out of Rs. 24,000 given as loans to farming societies in pilot area, Rs. 22,250 were given for construction of new wells or repairs to old wells, and out of the Rs. 49,000 given to the societies outside the pilot areas, Rs. 45,000 were given for the same purpose.

Lift Irrigation Societies.—There were three Lift Irrigation Societies in this district during 1965-66. They had a membership of 132. Their paid-up and working capital during that year were Rs. 15,615 and Rs. 16,585, respectively. These societies had not started their working till June 1966.

Dairy Societies.—Dairy serves as a subsidiary means of livelihood to a number of agriculturists. In Chandrapur district there was only one dairy society at Brahmapuri prior to 1965. It went into liquidation in 1965-66. During the same year, however, a new dairy society at Rajura was organised. It had 11 members and its paid-up and working capital were Rs. 600 and Rs. 611, respectively. The society being a new one did not start its work.

Cattle-Breeding Societies.—There were only two cattle-breeding societies in the district by 1965-66. They had a membership of 46 and their paid-up and working capital were Rs. 1,550 and Rs. 1,573, respectively. Both the societies, however, were found dormant during the year.

Poultry Societies.—Poultry, like dairy, is a good subsidiary business especially for those agriculturists, whose income is very limited. The State Government is, therefore, giving all the encouragement to the farmers to establish co-operative poultry societies. In Chandrapur district the development of poultry societies was not very significant. By 1965-66 there was only one poultry co-operative society in the district registered at Wandhali in Warora tahsil with 17 members, Rs. 1,100 as paid-up capital and Rs. 1,117 as working capital. As the society was newly organised then, it had nothing to report for work.

Industrial Co-operatives.—With large and very rich forests in which it abounds, the district possesses great potentialities for industrial growth. There are, however, very few industries in the district. The main industry in the district is forestry followed by mining and weaving. Since Independence the Government has evinced a keen interest in the growth and prosperity of these industries and has chalked out a number of schemes whereby establishment of industrial societies is encouraged and they are accorded all assistance including extension of credit facilities. A number of societies, therefore, came up after Independence. By 1965-66 there were in all 160 industrial co-operatives in the district consisting of 14 weavers' societies, 55 other Industrial societies, 37 forest labourers' societies, 53 labour contract societies and one District Industrial Co-operative Association.

Handloom Weavers' Societies.—The Handloom Weavers' Societies numbered 14 in 1965-66. Of them the Society at Nagbhid had also undertaken powerloom work. The following table indicates the progress of these societies in the district during 1965-66:—

TABLE No. 11

Particulars (1)	Position (2)
Number of societies	14
Societies in working condition	9
Share capital (Rs.)	1,73,944
Working capital (Rs.)	6,66,978
Production (Rs.)	5,34,883
Purchases (Rs.)	4,40,162
Sales (Rs.)	9,11,722
Number of looms	1,894
Working looms	982
Number of societies in profit	3
Number of societies in loss	11
Amount of profit (Rs.)	2,400
Amount of loss (Rs.)	33,933

Labour Contract Societies.—By 1965-66 there were 53 Labour Contract Societies in the district. The statistics about the working of these societies is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 12

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE LABOUR CONTRACT SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of societies	41	53
Number of members	1,180	1,396
Share capital (Rs.)	43,915	58,500
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	5,578	9,207
Working capital (Rs.)	84,508	1,36,818
Value of works executed (Rs.)	3,86,327	3,71,642
Wages paid (Rs.)	2,12,328	2,45,414
Number of societies in profit	18	21
Number of societies in loss	45,699	33,435
Amount of loss (Rs.)	19	19

Forest Labourers' Societies.—As there are very large forests in Chandrapur district, there is a great scope for the working of the forest labourers' societies in this district. By June 1966 there were in all 37 forest labourers' societies. The statistics about their working is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 13

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
Number of societies	20	37
Number of members	1,345	2,247
Share capital (Rs.)..	65,211	1,08,099
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	13,852	28,066
Working capital (Rs.)	1,25,602	1,80,889
Value of works executed (Rs.)	8,83,823	13,57,709
Wages paid (Rs.)	1,17,771	3,17,413
Number of societies in profit	13	18
Amount of profit (Rs.)	79,755	3,39,059
Number of societies in loss	1	14
Amount of loss (Rs.)	5,523	4,247

The formation of forest labourers' societies was given an impetus by the late Shri B. G. Kher, the then Chief Minister of Maharashtra, when he announced the scheme of organising Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies (of *Adivasis*) with the help of Social Workers and the policy of the Government to hand over coupes to them on reasonable terms as part of a comprehensive programme for the all-round advancement of the *Adivasi* people. The ideas underlying this scheme were to stop the exploitation of the forest workers, to improve their standard and to achieve their social, moral and educational uplift.

The forest labourers' societies have been mostly sponsored by recognised agencies working for their benefit. The societies are allotted forest coupes and given contracts in respect of minor forest produce. The working of coupes is done through the societies according to a specific formula under which the societies get certain percentage in the net profits on sliding scale basis depending upon the period for which the society is in existence. The societies are also given financial and other help by the Government to facilitate their operations.

Other Industrial Societies.—Of the 55 other types of Industrial Societies in the district in 1965-66, seven were village pottery societies, 3 village oil ghanis, 6 neera societies, 5 carpentry and Blacksmithy Societies, 4 Cane and Bamboo Workers' Societies, one hand-printing and dyeing society, 3 *Kosa Utpadak* societies, 2 soap-making societies, 18 footwear making societies, 8 bricks and tiles-making societies, one lime-making society and 7 miscellaneous societies. Of the miscellaneous type 3 were women's societies, and one each of tailoring, bidi-making, metal-working and aeronautics and medicinal plant societies. The financial position of these societies during 1966 is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 14

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE MISCELLANEOUS TYPE OF SOCIETIES.

Type of Society (1)	No. of societies (2)	No. of members (3)	Paid-up capital (4)	Working capital (5)
			Rs.	Rs.
Pottery societies	7	199	13,787	93,610
Oil Ghanis	3	59	1,064	6,641
Neera societies	6	99	5,715	9,526
Blacksmithy and Carpentry ..	5	74	4,300	10,466
Cane and bamboo workers societies	4	74	1,100	1,131
Hand-printing and dyeing	1	11	500	2,311
Kosa Utpadak (Tasar) societies ..	3	475	6,755	7,082
Soap-making societies	2	50	3,425	36,939
Footwear making societies	18	136	8,850	28,188
Bricks and tiles making societies ..	8	135	10,722	30,257
Lime-making societies	1	20	1,000	1,000
Miscellaneous societies	7	359	18,230	22,328

Fisheries Societies.—A general shortage of foodgrains in the country after the World War II persuaded the Government to seek alternate sources of food. Fish being a good nourishing food constitutes a working substitute for, or complementary to, the principal dietary. The State Government, therefore, has laid much emphasis in their planning schemes on the growth and development of fisheries. Chandrapur being an interior district, offers as a rule little prospects for fisheries development. There are, however, various inland expanses of water where fisheries can be grown. The co-operative societies of fishermen serve an important purpose from this point of view. By 1965-66, there were 32 fisheries societies in the district. The following table

indicates the progress made by these societies in 1964-65 and 1965-66:—

TABLE No. 15

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE FISHERIES SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars (1)	1964-65 (2)	1965-66 (3)
1. Number of fisheries societies	32	33
2. Number of members	2,276	2,659
3. Paid-up share capital (Rs.)	85,477	1,22,379
4. Government's share in (3) above (Rs.)	50,000	83,000
5. Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	7,276	14,829
6. Borrowings (Rs.)	2,912	14,134
7. Working capital (Rs.)	95,665	1,51,342
8. Catch value of fish (Rs.)	59,309	76,328
9. Sales value of— (*a*) Fish/Fish products (Rs.)	59,309	76,328
(*b*) Others (Rs.)	..	29,535
10. Number of societies in profit	22	14
11. Amount of profit (Rs.)	53,467	25,428
12. Number of societies in loss	9	10
13. Amount of loss (Rs.)	2,538	6,059

District Industrial Co-operative Association.—The District Industrial Co-operative Association is formed to provide technical assistance to the co-operative societies and to make available to them services of trained staff to work as secretaries, accountants, etc. They can also supervise the working of affiliated societies, undertake to supply raw materials at reasonable rates or cater for marketing facilities for the disposal of finished goods of the societies and thereby bring about co-ordination. In 1965-66, there was one Industrial Co-operative Association at Chandrapur with a membership of 79. Its paid-up share capital during that year was Rs. 20,175 and its working capital Rs. 29,082. The Association during the year had effected the sales of Rs. 1,09,818 and earned a profit of Rs. 26,800.

Supervising Union.—There was at least one Supervising Union in each of the 18 blocks in the district by 1965-66. The agricultural co-operative credit societies in the district were affiliated to this union. The total income of all the supervising unions during the year was Rs. 3,59,089 whereas their expenditure was Rs. 3,56,067.

District Co-operative Board.—This board is situated at Chandrapur, the district headquarters. Its membership during 1965-66 was 824 of which 788 were society members. The board carries out propaganda for the spread of co-operative movement. For this purpose it organises agricultural shows and displays various exhibits to rural folk to impress upon them the importance of co-operation. During 1965-66 the income of the board was Rs. 8,388 against its expenditure of Rs. 12,090 during the same year.

Housing Societies.—There were three types of Co-operative Housing Societies organised in the district, *viz.*, the Backward Class Housing Societies, the Low Income Group Housing Societies and the Flood Affected Housing Societies. By June 1966, there were 17 societies belonging to the first type, five to the second and the remaining 21 to the third type, respectively.

The scheme for backward class was launched in 1948 with a view to helping backward class people in the construction of houses. Under the scheme the Government makes a grant of land or subsidy for the purchase of land. In addition, interest-free loan at 25 per cent of the estimated cost of construction is also given to the extent of Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 4,000 in industrial areas, Rs. 2,000 in municipal areas and less than Rs. 1,500 in the remaining areas. During 1965-66 the societies (for scheduled tribes) received Rs. 10,250 as loans from the Government.

The Low Income Group Housing Scheme is launched by the Government of India under which provision is made for the sanction of loan to the maximum of Rs. 8,000 to an individual whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 6,000. The grant of loan is made through the Co-operative Department or through the co-operative societies.

Besides these two principal schemes, loans were also granted to people affected by floods in the district.

The following table gives the statistics and working of all the housing societies in the district:—

TABLE No. 16

STATISTICS OF HOUSING SOCIETIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Particulars	1966
Number of societies	43
Number of members	1,481
Share capital (Rs.)	41,280
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	1,046
Borrowings (Rs.)	3,49,176
Working capital (Rs.)	3,91,502
Houses constructed (in 1965-66)	10
Number of societies in profit	17
Amount of profit (Rs.)	4,094
Number of societies in loss	19
Amount of loss (Rs.)	13,214

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Societies.

Besides the organisation of the various types of co-operative societies, federations of some of them, too, have come up in the district during the past few years. A federation of Jungle Kamgar Co-operative Societies was, for example, registered in 1964, to protect the common interest of the societies and promote co-operation between society and society. The membership of the society was 33, out of which 26 were society members and seven individual members.

Another Federation was organised at Chandrapur in 1963. It had a membership of 15 by 1966. The federation had employed one supervisor.

Joint Stock Banks.

At the time of publication of the Chanda District Gazetteer of 1909 there was not a single banking company in the district. The financial activities were mainly monopolised by the money-lenders or their firms. At certain places co-operative societies were also formed but their scope was too limited either to relieve the strain on debtors, particularly the agriculturists, or to make finance available to others. The main reason why the establishment of a banking company in the district was delayed was the backward economy of the district inhabited by the aborigins of the forest areas. The commercial banks were doubtful of any returns for their investment and dared not establish a branch in the district. It was only after Independence that the Allahabad Bank first opened its branch at Chandrapur in 1953. Later, other banks including the State Bank of India also established their branches at various places in the district. By 1961 there were seven banks functioning in the district.* Their number, location and the date of their opening are given below:—

Place (1)	Name of the Bank (2)	No. of offices (3)	Date of Opening (4)
Brahmapuri	State Bank of India	1	29-12-58
Chandrapur	Allahabad Bank	1	2-11-53
	Bank of Baroda	1	29-4-61
	Bank of Maharashtra	1	27-3-61
	State Bank of India	1	1-7-55
Warora	State Bank of India	1	30-3-59
	Bank of Maharashtra	1	31-3-61

Except the State Bank of India all other banks are engaged in commercial banking only. The main function of these banks is to accept deposits from the people and to lend them money at stipulated rates of interest. They thus assist the mobilisation of savings and at the same time encourage habits of banking in the district.

State Bank of India.—The State Bank has the largest number of branches, *viz.*, three, in the district. It conducts all banking and Government business. Besides banking facilities, it provides free remittance facility to local scheduled banks and co-operative banks. It also offers cheque book facilities on savings bank accounts in order to encourage banking habits amongst middle

*In 1970 there were 15 branches of commercial banks and 25 of the District Central Co-operative Bank. The deposits and bank credit of the commercial banks stood at Rs. 205 lakhs and Rs. 277 lakhs, respectively, on 1st January 1968.

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class and lower class people. Moreover, it makes advances against gold ornaments, Government securities, pledge or hypothecation of produce, and so on. Recently, in accordance with the Government policy, the State Bank is taking active part in financing small-scale industries on very liberal terms and conditions. The rates of interest charged by the bank against gold ornaments are from 7 to 8¼ per cent, against Government securities, from 5½ per cent to 6½ per cent, against pledge of produce and warehousing receipts from 6½ per cent to 7½ per cent and against hypothecation 6½ per cent per annum.

Allahabad Bank, Ltd.—The next important bank is the Allahabad Bank, Ltd. It has only one branch in the district, *i.e.*, at Chandrapur. The branch was established in 1953 as the pay-office of the bank but was elevated to its full-fledged stature in 1957. As it is centrally situated at the district headquarters, it has been rendering healthy commercial services to industry, especially to the Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mills Ltd., of which it is the sole banker. It holds accounts of general traders, coal mines and personal accounts, and transacts all commercial business and undertakes duties of trustees, etc. It also extends foreign exchange facilities to its customers. The securities against which it makes short-term or medium-term loans are seasonal commodities, paper and paper products, general merchandise, fixed deposits and so on. The rate of interest charged on fixed deposits varies from 8 per cent to 10 per cent per annum.

Bank of Baroda and Bank of Maharashtra.—The Bank of Baroda and the Bank of Maharashtra have opened their branches later in the district and as such do smaller business. The advances of all the above banks in the district are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 17

ADVANCES OF BANKS AS ON 24-12-1964

Type of Security (1)	Number of Accounts (2)	Amount (3)	Percentage to total advances (4)
		Rs.	
I. Secured Advances—			
Government and Trustee Securities ..	251	14,93,000	6·5
Shares and debentures of Joint Stock Companies.	3	48,000	0·2
Gold and Silver Bullion and Gold and Silver Ornaments.	86	86,000	0·4
Merchandise—	30	3,02,000	1·3
Agricultural Commodities	40	1,88,16,000	82·0
Non-Agricultural commodities ..	..	..	..
Real Estate	89	2,79,000	1·2
Fixed Deposits	47	4,30,000	1·9
Other Secured Advances			
Total ..	546	2,14,54,000	93·5
II. Unsecured Advances	19	15,15,000	6·5
Total of I and II ..	565	2,29,69,000	100·00

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Insurance.

Although insurance was started in India as far back as 1870, it could hardly make any progress in Chandrapur district till the nationalisation of the life insurance business. With nationalisation, the Life Insurance Corporation became the sole agency for carrying out life insurance business in India. The Life Insurance Corporation or the LIC, as it is popularly known, was established on 1st September 1966, under a special ordinance under which the management and control over the life insurance business in India was transferred to the Central Government. This business included the foreign business of Indian Insurers and the Indian business of foreign insurers. The general insurance including fire, marine, accident and other insurance which was, however, kept open to private enterprise was nationalised in May 1971.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the Corporation, Chandrapur district comes under the territorial jurisdiction of the Nagpur division of the western zone.

Since the nationalisation, the Life Insurance Corporation has turned out considerable business. The total business proposed and completed since 1st September 1956 is given below:—

Period	Business Proposed		Completed	
	Number of proposals	Sum proposed	Number of policies	Sum Assured
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.		Rs.
1-9-1956 to 31-12-1956 ..	95	2,66,000	56	1,32,000
1957	988	27,42,283	844	19,23,750
1958	1,570	43,78,875	1,331	35,58,750
1959	1,772	48,02,750	1,354	34,57,000
1960	2,402	60,80,000	1,881	46,46,000
1961	2,680	76,96,975	2,269	68,29,250
1962/63	3,613	1,04,01,000	2,817	83,12,500
1963-64	3,120	90,93,250	2,540	84,04,000
1964-65	2,979	99,79,500	2,722	90,73,750

The number of agents in the district on 31st March 1965, was 143. The total number of policies assured during the same period was 15,758 while the sum assured was Rs. 462.05 lakhs.

State-aid to Agriculture.

One of the main reasons for the backwardness of agriculture in this district is the incapacity of the agriculturists to finance the agricultural production by himself. Under ordinary circumstances it was a common practice for him to borrow funds from the village *sahukar* or money-lender and satisfy his needs. But the rates of interest charged by the money-lender were very high. His system of recovery of loans was also exacting. The only other alternative for him, therefore, was to get financial assistance from the Government. The Government used to advance loans to the needy cultivators under two Acts, the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agriculturists' Loans Act. As a rule applicants were very eager to take these loans from the Government although in a few remote parts, a little persuation was needed to induce aboriginal tenants to do so. The joint responsibility system which was usually enforced at any rate for agricultural loans was not, however, very popular, but was submitted to as a necessary condition for obtaining the amount.

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State-aid to Agriculture.

The Land Improvement Loans Act was passed in 1883. Under this Act loans are granted to cultivators for carrying out works of improvement on land such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation or protection of it from erosion. The old Gazetteer of Chanda states, "of recent years a fair number of these loans have been taken under the grant-in-aid system. It is comparatively rare to find money taken ostensibly for one of these purposes misapplied, but from time to time cases occur in which the borrower diverts the loan to such uses as paying off his debts or to a marriage ceremony."*

Loan transactions were very small during the periods when there were no famines: during the famines they were naturally very heavy and subsequently they have been generally on a larger-scale. Altogether from 1874 to 1905, 3.42 lakhs of rupees were advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act.

The Agriculturists' Loans Act was passed in 1884. Under this Act loans were granted to holders of arable lands for (a) purchase of seed, fodder, cattle, agricultural stock and implements, (b) rebuilding houses destroyed by fire, flood or due to any other calamity, (c) maintaining cultivators while engaged in sowing or tilling their lands till they get the harvests of the next crop, and (d) any other purposes not specified in the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883, connected with agriculture. Under this Act the total amount advanced from 1885 to 1905 amounted to Rs. 5.20 lakhs out of which 4.02 lakhs were recovered and Rs. 79,500 were remitted.

The allotment and disbursement of tagai loans considerably increased after the beginning of the Five Year Plans.

Assistance to Grow More Food.

After Independence and the resulting partition of the country into India and Pakistan, the former had to face the problem of food shortage. An important policy measure chalked out by the State Government in this respect was to launch a Grow More Food Campaign throughout the State. Enough financial assistance was rendered by the State for this purpose and funds were

*Chanda District Gazetteer, 1909, pp. 199-200.

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Assistance to Grow More Food.

advanced through the Collector. The Grow More Food campaign thus became an important objective for which loans under the above-mentioned two Acts were granted. The following table gives the allotment, disbursement and recovery of these amounts from 1962-63 to 1966-67.

TABLE No. 18

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act			Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act		
	Allotment	Disbursement	Recovery	Allotment	Disbursement	Recovery
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63 ..	2,000	1,000	2,05,587	48,300	20,763	82,502
1963-64 ..	..	..	1,90,074	48,800	17,869	81,333
1964-65 ..	15,000	..	1,34,959	63,800	42,781	47,492
1965-66 ..	..	..	1,04,638	1,22,500	60,757	31,612
1966-67 ..	..	..	67,707	5,67,000	1,94,958	14,861

Upon the commencement of the planning period, development of agriculture was accorded top priority and every effort was made to boost production. In addition to the assistance rendered through the Collector and the Block Development Officer, tagai loans were increasingly distributed to the agriculturists through the important agency of Land Mortgage Banks for improvement of land especially of a long-term nature.

Financial Assistance to Industries.

With its extensive forest and rich resources, Chandrapur district offers ample opportunities for development of industries. But owing to the lack of communications it remained industrially backward during the pre-Independence period.

After Independence industrial development was accorded priority in the Plans of the Government. Accordingly, the development of major industries in the district was assigned to the Central Government whereas the promotion and development of small-scale industries became a subject under the jurisdiction of the State.

The State grants financial assistance to artisans and their co-operative societies under various schemes to start new industries or to support the existing ones.

After the formation of the Zilla Parishad these schemes were transferred from the State sector to the Zilla Parishad for implementation. These schemes include:—

(1) Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives including Handicraft Societies.

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(2) Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives of Backward Classes (only subsidies).

(3) Loans to Artisans under State-aid to Industries Rules.

(4) Loans to Goldsmiths affected by the Gold Control Order for their rehabilitation.

The first two of these schemes have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad from the Co-operative Department whereas the rest were transferred from the Industries Department to the Parishad.

Under the scheme of financial assistance to industrial co-operatives (including handicraft societies), grant-in-aid for management expenses is sanctioned to industrial co-operatives during the first five years from the date of their registration. The subsidy is sanctioned only for the first three years of this period. The assistance is given at the rate of five per cent of the turnover or the actual cost of management, whichever is less. In no case, however, assistance exceeding Rs. 600 is sanctioned.

Under the scheme of Grant of Loans and Subsidies to Co-operative Societies for the purchase of tools and equipment, financial assistance is given to industrial societies for the purchase of tools and equipment. In deserving cases such assistance is rendered also to societies other than industrial co-operatives provided not less than 1/3 of their members are *bona fide* craftsmen. Out of the total assistance sanctioned more than 50 per cent is treated as loan and the balance as subsidy.

Under the 3rd scheme, *viz.*, the financial assistance for construction of sheds, godowns and workshops, an industrial society is sanctioned financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 9,000 for construction of a godown or workshop. One-fourth of the cost of construction or Rs. 3,000, whichever is less, is treated as subsidy.

Under the last scheme, *viz.*, financial assistance for organisation of handicrafts co-operatives, an industrial co-operative society formed by the handicraft workers engaged in one of the industries approved by the All-India Handicrafts Board is sanctioned for a period of three years. This subsidy is meant for management expenses only.

Loans to Individual Artisans under State-aid to Industries Rules.—Under this scheme the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad, is authorised to sanction a sum not exceeding Rs. 3,000 in the form of loans to individual artisans for promoting small-scale industries. The loans are sanctioned subject to the provisions of State-aid to Industries Act and Rules framed thereunder.

Loans to Goldsmiths affected by Gold Control Order.—This scheme aims at rehabilitating the goldsmiths affected by the Gold Control Order. The loans are also sanctioned subject to the provisions of the State-aid to Industries Act and Rules thereunder.

The amounts of loans and subsidies given under the various schemes mentioned above are given in the following statement:—

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme	Financial Assistance	
		During the 3rd Five-Year Plan	During 1966-67
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Rs.	Rs.
1	Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives	40,407	19,300
2	Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives of Backward Classes.	Nil	Nil
3	Loans to artisans under the State-aid to Industries Rules.	1,37,685	50,000
4	Loans to Goldsmiths affected by the Gold Control Order.	41,175	2,500

Under the schemes transferred from the Co-operative Department to the Zilla Parishad, amounts of loans and subsidies have been granted for various purposes as detailed above. The following tables give the figures of the financial assistance against each of these purposes and for each of the years since the schemes were transferred:—

TABLE No. 19

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE BY ZILLA PARISHAD TO INDIVIDUAL ARTISANS AS PER STATE-AID TO INDUSTRIES RULES, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT (FROM 1962-63 TO 1966-67).

Industry	1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		Total	
	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1. Brick and tile making	3	3,935	9	5,500	15	9,600	7	2,400	7	2,000	41	23,435
2. Basket making	1	1,000	1	300	..	..	7	2,550	3	1,300	12	4,950
3. Tailoring	4	2,600	21	7,150	11	3,800	29	11,700	39	14,200	104	39,450
4. Making of hair-oils ..	3	2,100	1	200	..	..	2	1,000	1	700	7	4,000
5. Tanning, shoe making ..	2	2,200	7	3,600	10	3,200	33	8,900	23	8,150	75	26,050
6. Carpentry	1	1,500	7	1,950	16	4,050	66	26,900	18	6,600	108	41,000
7. *Patravali* making	..	..	1	200	..	..	1	200	..	..	2	400
8. Making of rubber stamps ..	..	..	2	300	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	3,300
9 Ready-made garments ..	..	..	1	1,500	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1,500
10. Blacksmithy	..	..	10	3,850	5	3,000	7	2,400	10	4,100	32	13,350

TABLE No. 19—*cont.*

Industry	1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		Total	
	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned	Number of loanees	Amount sanctioned
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
11. Dyeing	..	..	2	800	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	800
12. Photo-framing	..	..	4	1,075	3	1,200	1	500	1	500	9	3,275
13. Spinning	..	..	4	575	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	575
14. *Agarbatti* making	..	..	..	..	2	1,500	..	..	..	..	2	1,500
15. Chalk-stick making	..	..	..	..	1	500	..	..	1	400	2	900
16. Making or repairing of harmoniums	..	..	..	..	1	2,000	..	..	..	..	1	2,000
17. *Newar* making	..	..	..	..	1	500	9	1,300	2	600	7	2,400
18. Printing	..	..	..	..	2	3,000	..	..	1	2,500	3	5,500
19. Khara machine	..	..	..	..	1	2,000	..	..	1	2,500	2	4,500
20. Kasa making	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	1,600	4	2,000	8	3,600
21. Mat making	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	250	..	..	1	250
2. Ink making	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	500	..	..	1	500
23. Pottery	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	700	2	700	2	700
24. Flower making	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	400	1	400	1	400
25. Blanket weaving	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	1,350	4	1,350
26. Oil *Ghanis*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	600	1	600
27. Bangles making	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	400	1	400
28. Glass bangles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	500	2	500
29. Candle making	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	500	1	500
Total ..	14	13,335	70	30,000	68	34,350	163	60,000	123	80,000	438	1,87,685

TABLE No. 20

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE UNDER VARIOUS SCHEMES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operative Societies (including those of handicraft workers)	1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		Total	
	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Loan for purchase of tools and equipment.	4	2,000	2	3,000	4	6,000	4	6,500	3	4,800	17	17,500
Loan for construction of godowns and sheds.	..	Nil	..	Nil	..	Nil	1	2,000	1	4,000	2	2,000
Subsidy for purchase of tools and equipment.	4	750	2	1,500	4	3,000	4	3,250	3	4,800	17	8,000
Subsidy for construction of godowns and sheds.	Nil	Nil	..	Nil	..	Nil	1	1,000	1	3,000	2	1,000
Subsidy for management expenses to industrial societies.	10	3,000	4	2,400	3	840	17	4,367	..	..	34	10,607
Subsidy to handicraft workers ..	..	Nil	1	800	..	Nil	..	Nil	11	2,700	12	800

TABLE No. 21

BUDGET PROVISION FOR FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES OF SCHEDULED TRIBES, SCHEDULED CASTES AND O. B. C. IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT.

Particulars	1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		Total	
	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount	Number of societies	Amount
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Scheduled Tribes		1,000	..	600	..	1,100	..	1,500	..	..	..	4,200
Scheduled Castes		3,000	..	1,200	..	1,500	..	1,500	..	..	..	7,200
Other Backward Classes		500	..	500	..	700	..	1,000	..	..	..	2,700
Vimukta Jatis		Nil	..	Nil	..	Nil	..	Nil	..	..	..	..

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Financial Assistance to Industries.

TABLE No. 22

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE BY ZILLA PARISHAD TO GOLDSMITHS AFFECTED BY THE GOLD CONTROL ORDER, DISTRICT CHANDRAPUR.

(from 1962-63 to 1966-67)

Serial No.	Purpose of loan	1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		Total	
		Number of loanees (3)	Amount sanctioned (4)	Number of loanees (5)	Amount sanctioned (6)	Number of loanees (7)	Amount sanctioned (8)	Number of loanees (9)	Amount sanctioned (10)	Number of loanees (11)	Amount sanctioned (12)	Number of loanees (13)	Amount sanctioned (14)
(1)	(2)		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1	Tailoring	..	..	43	17,275	1	500	2	1,000	2	1,000	48	19,775
2	Cycle-repairing ..	..	..	12	2,400	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	2,400
3	Welding	..	..	7	5,300	1	400	1	500	..	..	9	6,200
4	Making of spices ..	..	..	2	600	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	600
5	Silversmithy	..	..	10	5,500	5	2,500	4	2,000	3	1,500	22	11,500
6	Watch repairing ..	..	..	2	900	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	900
7	"*Papad*" preparing ..	..	..	1	200	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	200
8	Photo-framing ..	..	..	2	600	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	600
9	"*Nevcar*" making ..	..	..	..	..	1	500	..	..	..	..	1	500
10	Soda manufacturing ..	..	..	..	..	1	500	..	..	..	..	1	500
11	"*Agarbatti*" making ..	..	..	..	..	1	500	..	..	..	..	1	500
	Total ..	..	..	79	32,775	10	4,900	7	3,500	5	2,500	101	43,675

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State-aid to Fisheries.

As Chandrapur is not a coastal district, the scope of developing the fishing industry is restricted to inland fisheries. The activities of the Department of Fisheries in this district, therefore, mainly relate to stocking of inland waters with fish and other fisheries schemes.

The department grants loans and subsidies under various schemes to fishermen and their co-operative societies for various purposes like purchase of engines, mechanisation of fishing crafts, purchase or repair of fishing equipment, such as boats, nets, engines, trucks and ice plant. During 1965-66 and 1966-67, the department had granted Rs. 2,877.83 and Rs. 3,914.96, respectively, as subsidies to the fishermen.

Small Savings.

The movement for small savings was started in 1945. Its object then was to counteract the evil effects of inflation which was the aftermath of the post-war period. The object, however, underwent a change when the Planning Commission later on relied on this movement to finance its expenditure on capital schemes of the Five-Year Plans. Since the Sino-Indian War, the Small Savings Drive was looked upon as an instrument for building up the defence of the Nation.

The Small Savings Schemes include the following categories:—

(1) Post-office Savings,
(2) 12-Year National Defence Certificates,
(3) 10-Year Defence Deposit Certificates,
(4) 15-Year Annuity Certificates,
(5) Cumulative Time Deposits, and
(6) Prize Bonds.

Post Office Savings Banks.—Of all these schemes, the Post Office Savings Deposit is the most common scheme. The Post Office Savings Banks are the important sources for collection of small savings from people especially of limited means. They are also useful to people in the rural areas where there is an absence of an alternate agency. The savings banks deposits earn interest at the rate of Rs. 4 per annum. Balances in these banks can be kept up to Rs. 25,000 in case of individual accounts and up to Rs. 50,000 in case of joint accounts. By 1966-67 there were in this district 225 post-offices doing savings banks' work. They are distributed over the district as under:—

TAHSIL-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANKS

Tahsil	Number	Tahsil	Number
Chandrapur ..	50	Gadhchiroli ..	48
Warora	51	Brahmapuri ..	45
Rajura	18	Sironcha ..	13

The total number of accounts and the amount deposited in them is as follows:—

Year (1)	Number of Accounts (2)	Amount of Deposits (3)
		Rs.
1964-65	18,500	51,21,269·41
1965-66	21,525	57,37,042·93
1966-67	24,880	63,45,666·27

Figures of the number of accounts and the amounts deposited show a rising trend from 1964-65 to 1966-67.

National Savings Certificates.—Before the introduction of the Defence Deposit Certificates there were in existence National Savings Certificates of different maturities. Of these, the 12-Year National Savings Certificates were started in June 1957. The seven-year and the ten-year Savings Certificates, too, were started about the same time. The total outstanding investment in the National Savings Certificates of different maturities stood at Rs. 4,24,500.00 by 1966-67.

12-Year National Defence Certificates.—These certificates are available in denominations of Rs. 5, 10, 50, 100, 500, 1,000, 5,000 and 25,000. They can be purchased from the post-offices transacting savings bank business. They earn an interest of 4.75 per cent compound or 6.25 per cent simple interest per annum free of income-tax. The amount is returned at the end of 10 years from the date of deposit. Another person, an adult or minor may be nominated for receiving the amount of the certificate when it becomes due, in the event of death of the holder.

10-Year Defence Deposit Certificates.—These certificates issued in denominations of Rs. 50 and multiples thereof earn 4½ per cent interest annually free of income-tax and are available from all the offices of the Reserve Bank of India, branches of the State Bank of India and its subsidiary banks, Treasuries and Sub-treasuries and Head and Sub-post Offices.

These certificates have replaced the old Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued in 2 series, the one with 3½ per cent interest and the other with 4 per cent. The following statement gives the subscriptions for them received at Chandrapur and Warora in Chandrapur district from 1951-52 to 1961-62:—

3½ per cent Treasury Saving Deposit Certificates			4 per cent Treasury Saving Deposit Certificates		
Year (1)	Chandrapur (2)	Warora (3)	Year (4)	Chandrapur (5)	Warora (6)
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
1951-52 ..	..	..	1957-58 ..	28,000	..
1952-53 ..	15,000	6,000	1958-59 ..	1,04,400	..
1953-54 ..	8,600	10,000	1959-60 ..	38,500	15,000
1954-55 ..	5,500	..	1960-61 ..	1,54,850	57,500
1955-56 ..	4,600	..	1961-62 ..	1,62,000	..
1956-57 ..	5,000	..	..	..	..

By 1966-67 the total investment in these certificates amounted to Rs. 3,07,865.

15-Year Cash Annuity Certificates.—These certificates were issued from 2nd January 1958. They are sold in denominations of Rs. 1,330, Rs. 3,325, Rs. 6,650, Rs. 13,300 and Rs. 26,600 and guarantee a monthly payment of Rs. 10, Rs. 25, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 200 on them, respectively, for a period of 15 years. The return on them works out at 4.25 per cent per annum compound interest. The investments are available for a single adult, two adults jointly and a guardian on behalf of a minor. Institutions, corporations and firms cannot make investments in these Annuity Certificates.

The Government of India have now allowed to holders of 15-Year Annuity Certificates the facility of surrendering their certificates at any time after a period of one year from the date of deposits and obtaining the commutation value thereof. The holder of a certificate can also nominate a person who shall be entitled to the certificate and the payment thereon, in the event of his own death.

Since the commencement of the Annuity Deposit Scheme, amounts aggregating Rs. 13,650 were received up to 31st July 1968 at the branches of the State Bank of India in Chandrapur district towards the 15-Year Annuity Certificates.

The Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.—This scheme facilitates regular saving in an easy manner. As such, it is very simple and flexible and suits everyone's needs. Under this scheme deposits can be made in the denominations of Rs. 5. The maximum monthly deposit is Rs. 200 in a five or ten-year deposit account and Rs. 300 in a 15-year deposit account. The total deposits during the entire period of the accounts shall not exceed Rs. 54,000 or Rs. 1,08,000 in case of joint accounts. The return on these deposits is free of income-tax. The interest at maturity works out to about 3.3 per cent per annum compound on a five-year account, 3.8 per cent on a 10-year account and 4.3 per cent per annum compound on a 15-year account.

The account can be opened at any post office transacting savings bank business and operated by an adult or two adults jointly. The account can also be opened by a minor in his own name or by a guardian on behalf of the minor in which case the guardian can operate the account. Withdrawal of the deposits can be made in multiples of Rs. 10 subject to a limit of 50 per cent of the deposit once in the case of five-year account, twice in the case of a ten-year account and thrice in the case of a 15-year account after the account has been in operation for at least one year.

The scheme gives the depositor the facility of transferring one's savings from Post-office to Cumulative Time Deposit account. There is also the facility that a person can now make

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payments in the Cumulative Time Deposit account even by depositing savings stamps instead of cash. Besides, the deposits into Cumulative Time Deposit accounts count for rebate of income-tax in the same manner as contribution to Provident Fund and life insurance premium and subject to the same limits.

Small Savings.

The Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme is ideal for cultivating regular savings habit. By this scheme not only the future of an investor is made secure, but also the costs of the various projects of the Five-Year Plans are met.

In this district the total deposits collected under this scheme amounted to Rs. 5,67,038 by 1965-66.

It will be seen from the foregoing account that the Small Savings Schemes have played a very useful and important role in attracting savings of the people especially of small means. People, too, have been gradually realising the importance of savings by the Small Savings way and prefer investment to locking their capital in gold. Due to the intensive drive by the State Government, the rural areas have also been covered and a greater response is expected from them. There is all the while a growing tendency among people to deposit more and more under this scheme.

Joint Stock Companies.

The Joint Stock Companies have come up recently in this district. By 1965 there were only three companies working in the district out of which two were public limited companies and the remaining, a private one. All of them were established after the World War II, the oldest among them being the Ballarshah Timbers Syndicate, established at Ballarpur on 3rd August, 1945. The other two were (1) the Nav Hind Prakashan with registered office at Chandrapur and (2) the Namdeo Transport Company with registered office at Gadhchiroli. The details of the financial position of these companies is given below:—

Serial No.	Name of the Company	Capital		
		Authorised	Subscribed	Paid-up
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Ballarshah Timbers Syndicate ..	20,00,000	3,58,900	3,58,900
2	Nav Hind Prakashan	1,00,000	14,550	10,040
3	Namdeo Transport Company ..	20,000	16,000	..

SECTION II : TRADE AND COMMERCE.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Like development in the field of finance progress is also marked in the sphere of trade and commerce in the district. Due to difficulties of communications and the rather limited requirements of the people, trade in former times was restricted mostly

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to weekly bazars and fairs. The commodities traded at these places were generally agricultural and their prices were dependent mainly on their supply conditions rather than the demand for them. There was no stimulus for increasing production as the internal market had an inelastic demand and exports were few. Wherever the markets existed, they were unregulated and conspicuous by the absence of uniform weights and measures.

During the past sixty years or so conditions have undergone tremendous changes. Not only did trade and commerce thrive but on account of the improvement in transport and communications, it has attained considerable stability and magnitude. The main markets in the district have now been regulated by special enactment and a number of fair practices established. The introduction of standard weights and measures have brought about uniformity so essential for easy and honest dealings. The establishment of godowns and stores has increased the durability of goods and strengthened the supply position of producers. Formation of a number of marketing societies has strengthened the bargaining position of the cultivators and linked credit with marketing. The different trade associations, on the other hand, have been striving to protect the interest of traders. The following pages give an account of all the developments in the sphere of trade and commerce and bring out their importance in recent years.

History of Trade.

Under the rule of the Gonds, Chandrapur was an important trade centre, and it is said that produce used to come to it from the country to the south to a distance of nearly 250 miles. After the Maratha conquest, its importance declined as it no longer lay on the main route of traffic. Till 1868, foreign goods came to Chandrapur chiefly by the Amravati route, but the internal commerce in country produce with Nagpur and Wardha continued to be important. In 1877 the railway was extended to Warora, which thereupon assumed a paramount position as the main gate of the district which it held unchallenged for the next thirty years. Until 1861, trade suffered from a transit duty, which brought in a revenue to Government of more than half a lakh annually. The chief obstacles to trade at the time of the first settlement were the Hyderabad transit duty, which was at that time exacted from all goods crossing the frontiers save grain imports with a rigour previously unknown, and the inland customs line established in 1865. This line traversed the district longitudinally from north to south in the west, and from south to north in the centre of the district, and created a series of bewildering jurisdictions, the annoyance being aggravated by the fact that the line lay along, not across, the main routes of traffic. The customs line which practically killed the trade in salt was abolished in 1874, but the Hyderabad transit duty discouraged exports from that quarter.

Under Bhosle's rule Chandrapur was an important commercial centre, next to Nagpur. During Vyankoji Bhosle's reign it was

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History of Trade.

chiefly noted for considerable trade and industry. Merchandise consisting of cocoanuts, betel-nuts and salt were first brought to Chandrapur from the south before they were sent to Nagpur. In return cotton and cotton cloth were exported in bulk. During that time Chandrapur was inhabited by a large number of weavers most of whom were engaged in the manufacture of cloth and its export outside Chandrapur. Vairagad was another important trade centre towards the close of the last century. In his travel account Captain Blunt remarks that it was a big town visited by hordes after hordes of *Lamanis* from Chhatisgad and Northern Circar. They used to bring large quantities of cotton from Nagpur and Vidarbha and sell it to the merchants in Northern Circar. From south they used to bring with them betel-nuts, cocoanuts and salt and do a good business.

Since the turn of the last century the trade in Chandrapur district has greatly increased due firstly to World Wars and secondly to facilities it has enjoyed after Independence. The establishment of banks and improvement in communications and transport have further increased the volume of and scope of trade, internal as well as external. By 1965 almost every village, except the smallest had one or more shops providing day-to-day requirements including grains, salt, oil, chillis, sugar, spices, soap, tea, tobacco, betel-nuts etc. Besides, there were number of weekly markets or bazars which served chiefly as distributing centres. Pedlars and hawkers, too, played their significant role in boosting trade from place to place.

Trade routes.

Poverty of communications had greatly retarded the development of trade of Chandrapur district. At the time the old Gazetteer of Chanda district was published, Warora was the focus of the external trade of the district and all the produce of its interior used to find its way *via* Chandrapur to Warora. The position of Warora as a rail-head and the concentration of the export trade of the interior and the south of the district at Chandrapur, had naturally made the Chandrapur-Warora road the most important trade route in the district. In fact, till the opening of the Warora-Ballarpur extension in 1910, it formed the main artery of the district. The other important road was the Mul-Umrer road which gave an outlet to a good deal of commercial traffic from the north of Brahmapuri and the north-east of Warora towards the Nagpur market and was the only other made road connecting the district with the outer world.

At present the Delhi-Madras broad gauge line of the Central Railway passes through this disrtict and has Majari, Warora, Bhadravati, Tadali, Chandrapur, Ballarpur and Manikgad stations in its stretch in the district. Of this Majari is a junction from which a line branches off to Wani. It has considerably helped the movement of goods to and fro in the district.

Besides, there is a narrow gauge line of 243 km. running from Chanda Fort to Gondia. A narrow gauge route to Nagpur emanates from this route at Nagbhir. Its distance is 111 km.

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Trade routes.

The condition of roads was very bad. It was very difficult to build roads as the entire tract was full of forests. By 1947, the total road mileage in Chandrapur district, was 432. Chandrapur town, the district headquarters is connected by roads with the adjoining districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Yeotmal and Bhandara. But within the district there are no good roads connecting the district headquarters with the tahsil headquarters and the approaches from one tahsil to another are completely cut off during the rainy season. The eastern part of the district is a thick forest area, and the roads are, therefore, very few in Sironcha, Gadhchiroli and Brahmapuri tahsils.

Employment in Trade and Commerce

According to the 1961 Census the total number of persons engaged in trade and commerce in Chandrapur district was 13,775 out of which 9,226 or 67 per cent were in rural areas and 4,549 or 33 per cent in urban areas. The number of workers in trade and commerce accounted for 1.93 per cent of total workers in the district. About 0.36 per cent of the district total was in Chandrapur tahsil only. 5.4 per cent of the workers in trade and commerce was engaged in wholesale trade, 88.8 per cent in retail trade and 5.8 per cent in miscellaneous trade and commerce, 56 per cent of the wholesalers and 68 per cent of the retailers were in rural areas.

The number of wholesalers trading exclusively in cereals and pulses was 195. Mostly the wholesale trade in cereals and pulses was combined with wholesale trade in gur, sugar, spices, oil, tobacco, etc.

Exports.

At the time the old District Gazetteer of Chanda was published, the exports from Chandrapur district mainly consisted of purely agricultural produce and foodgrains were the chief commodities taken in Nagpur from the Northern portions of the district. Trade in good cloth was carried on on a small-scale between Nagbhir and Umrer and a little *kosa* was sent from the eastern side of the Wainganga to Nagpur and Chandrapur by either of the two main roads. Since the bulk of this trade was by road, it was not registered. The net income from octroi of the Municipalities at Chandrapur and Warora in 1906-07 was Rs. 24,820 and Rs. 14,058 respectively. According to Mr. Hemingway the average total export per year from 1894 to 1901 was 17,15,309 maunds, grain and cotton* contributing 29,563 and 11,786 maunds, respectively.

The principal exports by rail were coal, oilseeds, cotton, pulses and hides. Of these the coal traffic represented Government enterprise. The exports of raw cotton amounted to 1,09,000 maunds, valued at about Rs. 21 lakhs. Oilseeds also figured prominently in the export. The principal oilseeds were linseed and *til* which averaged 1,85,000 maunds (Rs. 8.26 lakhs) and 1,28,000 maunds (Rs. 5.92 lakhs), respectively. Other exported

*A Large portion of this cotton was comming from Berar.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Exports.

oilseeds were castor, rape and mustard seed mostly going to Bombay. Other exports included mainly rice, *pohe, bagar* (unhusked rice) and a little of wheat from Brahmapuri. Forest produce (mainly timber) and manufactured articles (mainly cloth) were also sent out of Chandrapur. Among minor exports bamboo *tatties*, shoes, leather ropes, wooden cart-wheels (*Chimur*), rengis (Brahmapuri, Armori, and Chandrapur) were the important articles. They, however, formed a very small share of the total volume of the export.

After Independence the pattern as well as the volume of export trade of the district has undergone considerable changes. The improvement in transport and communications has led to an increase in the volume of trade. A larger variety could also be seen in the quantity of articles exported. The principal exports now comprise coal, oilseeds, cotton, rice, hides, forest produce like timber, bamboos, Tendu leaves, lac, gum, *kosa*, myrobalans, Virginia tobacco, iron ore, paper, etc. Teak and *shisham* wood from the forests of the district are very famous. Allapalli teak wood is well-known and as regards quantity is considered next to Burma teak. Special Virginia tobacco from Asaralli and Ankisa is exported to foreign countries. Most of the goods are exported to Nagpur and other districts of Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh.

Imports.

Imports of Chandrapur district by the beginning of the present century chiefly constituted salt, sugar, thread, cotton piece goods, spices, provisions, foodgrains and metals. In 1905, the import of salt amounted to Rs. 3.09 lakhs, that of sugar to Rs. 4.2 lakhs and that of cotton manufacture to about Rs. 11 lakhs. Of these, about three quarters of the sugar was *gur* and came from Bangalore and Northern India, other kinds of sugar came from Mauritius and Northern India. Piece-goods came from abroad and other Indian States, thread from Bombay and country mills, gold, silver, brass and copper sheets, iron, zinc and tin from Bombay, country blankets from Hyderabad; Saris from Madras *via* Rajahmundry, matches from Bombay. Rice and kerosene oil were also imported to the tune of 60,000 and 80,000 maunds, respectively, during the quinquennium. About 6,000 cocoanuts were imported in 1906. The quinquennial (1902 to 1906) average of the total exports showed an excess of Rs. 8.52 lakhs over imports.

Salt, sugar, cotton piece-goods, spices, provisions, foodgrains and stationery still form the principal imports of the district. Their volume is, however, not known due to absence of statistical data.

Wholesale Trade.

As Chandrapur is a backward district there are very few places where wholesale trade is carried on. The chief centres of wholesale trade are Chandrapur, Warora, Gadhchiroli and Brahmapuri. The main items of wholesale trade are rice, jowar, wheat, timber, charcoal, til, tobacco, cotton, gram, etc. At the time the old district Gazetteer of Chanda was published i.e., in 1909, a large

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Wholesale Trade.

quantity of rice was imported into the district. But today rice is produced abundantly and forms, therefore, the main item of wholesale trade. By 1965-66, the total turnover of rice was estimated to be about 50,000 tons or 5 lakhs of quintals. Among grains, jowar is the next important item of the wholesale trade, with a total turnover of about 70,000 quintals. Mug, Kultha, Udid and Wheat came next with a turnover of 30,000, 30,000, 50,000 and 15,000 quintals, respectively.

Paddy is brought to the market place by cultivators on their persons. *Luchai* is the main variety of rice forming about 90 per cent of the total turnover of trade. Mul, Desaiganj, Gadhchiroli and Sindewahi are the important places of wholesale trade. In 1965, over two lakh quintals of rice was exported by Government from the district. Almost all the tahsil places or major villages are having rice mills in the district.

Til and til oil are mostly exported outside the district to Delhi and other places. The main market places for til are Chandrapur and Warora. In 1965, til was valued at Rs. 165 per quintal and til oil at Rs. 300 per quintal.

For linseed, the important market places are Chandrapur and Warora. Milling of linseed is done in almost all the big villages in the district. In 1965, linseed was valued at Rs. 122 per quintal. Almost the whole produce of linseed was consumed in the district hence it is not exported at all.

Jowar is an important kharif produce of the district and the staple food of the people. It is, therefore, traded on a large-scale throughout the district. The important places, however, are Chandrapur, Warora, Nagbhir, Brahmapuri, Mul, Rajura and Desaiganj. The total turnover of jowar in the district was 70,000 quintals in 1965. Jowar was brought to the market places by the cultivators themselves. It was then auctioned. As it is the staple food of the people, a large quantity of jowar is consumed in the district. The surplus is exported to Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Vidarbha and Bombay.

Timber.—Among all the districts of Maharashtra, Chandrapur has the largest forest area where plenty of timber is available. Ballarshah, Chandrapur and Sironcha are the important markets for timber. Warora, Wirur, Warsa, Gadhchiroli and Allapalli are other places where there is a wholesale trade of timber.

Timber is transported in bullock-carts to various forest depots. The produce is then carried by trucks to the rail centres for export. At some places elephants are also used for transporting the wood. Timber is exported to Gujrat, Madras, Bombay, Mysore and Andhra Pradesh. The timber traders are generally forest contractors, who take the forest coupes in auction from the Government as most of the forest area in the district is owned by the Government. Some of these forests have been purchased by the Government from private owners. Wood

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cutting and sizing of wood is done at Ballarshah and Chandrapur where there are a number of wood cutting factories.

The annual turnover of timber ranges from Rs. 1 crore to Rs. 3 crores. The entire trade is financed mostly by the money-lenders since the banking and other credit facilities are very meagre in the district. The trade is conducted by the persons who are called *Thekedars*. By 1965, there were about 100 *Thekedars* in the district. The auction of timber is done under the supervision of the divisional forest officers.

Like the trade in timber, charcoal trade is also carried on in the district which is covered by dense forests. Considerable charcoal, for example, comes from the forests of Kurkheda and Gadhchiroli circles. The main trading centres of charcoal are Chandrapur, Ballarshah, Bhandak, Tadali, Warora and Wirur.

After firewood is collected from various forest areas in the district it is burnt in *cultis*, and a fine charcoal is then produced. Most of the produce is then exported to Bombay, Surat, Poona, Sholapur, and Hyderabad by railways. As compared to the exports, local trade is negligible. The wagon of charcoal is valued at from Rs. 2,800 to Rs. 3,000. The total turnover of charcoal on an average amounted to Rs. 32,00,000 per year.

Bamboos, an important forest produce, who forms an item of the wholesale trade in the district. Bamboo comes mostly from the Kurkheda and Gadhchiroli circles. The kind of bamboo mostly in common use—thorny bamboos—found only in the east of Sironcha and Gadhchiroli is brought in bullock-carts by the villagers and sold to the businessmen through brokers. There is no regulated market in the district for bamboos.

The businessmen purchase bamboos mainly for making mats. The latter are exported to Bhusawal, Amravati, Jalgaon and places in Vidarbha region. The bamboos are also exported to Gujrat.

Trade in cloth is quite significant at all the tahsil places in Chandrapur district and also at the other market places and bazars. Cloth is brought mainly from Nagpur, Bombay, Malegaon, Ichalkaranji, Behrampur, Surat, etc.

The stock with the trader consists mostly of saris brought from Malegaon, Nagpur and Surat. But it also consists of shirting, coating, poplin, dhotis, etc. The chaddars are imported from Amravati.

Trade in general provisions is carried on throughout the district but it is more concentrated and brisk in towns such as Chandrapur, Warora and Brahmapuri than at other places. The provisions mainly comprise necessaries and articles of daily consumption. They are brought from different places. For example *gul*

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and groundnut are brought from Akola, coconut oil and groundnut oil from Nagpur, nuts from Bombay and so on. Most of the goods are brought in trucks.

Of these centres, Warora is the most important one. It is mainly a distributing centre. Rest of the goods are exported to places within a distance of twenty-five miles from Warora (only 25 per cent of the goods arrived are consumed here).

Among the goods exported til and tur figure most prominently. The annual turnover of trade at Warora was worth well over Rs. 50 lakhs in 1968. The goods are brought to Warora mainly by trucks from Bombay, Nagpur, Chandrapur and Akola, the transport charges being Rs. 10 to 11 per quintal from Bombay, Rs. 1¼ from Nagpur, Re. 1 from Chandrapur and Rs. 2½ from Akola. There was one Government godown and one godown of the Maharashtra Warehousing Corporation. The latter charged 20 paise per day as storing charges. The private godowns were numerous. But three of them were quite large having an individual capacity of 200 bags. They charged Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 per month.

The margin of profit for the traders in general provisions was 4 per cent on wholesale and 2 per cent on retail trade.

Tobacco forms an important item of trade in Chandrapur district. As a matter of fact very little tobacco is locally produced. Most of it is brought either from Uttar Pradesh or Gujrat. The Gujrat tobacco known as "Deshi" or "black patla" is of superior type and has a better demand. The chief centres of trade for tobacco are Chandrapur, Warora and Brahmapuri.

At Warora the total turnover in tobacco trade amounted to over Rs. 40,000 in 1965. The tobacco brought mainly comprised three varieties: the dust tobacco, the patla tobacco (used mostly for chewing) and the Kayamganj or Kampla, costing Rs. 15, Rs. 18 and Rs. 20 per 10 kg., respectively, exclusive of the duties levied. The difference between the wholesale and the retail price of tobacco was insignificant as can be seen from the following statement:—

Variety	Wholesale Prices per kg.	Retail Prices per kg.
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
Dust	4·00	6
Patla	5·50	8
Kampla	5·00	8

The sale price which is inclusive of duty comes to Rs. 35, Rs. 46 and Rs. 44 for these varieties, respectively. There are no Government godowns for holding the stock of tobacco, although there are about eight private godowns.

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Wholesale Trade.

Since Chandrapur is covered by forests to a great extent there is ample production of bidi leaves in the district. Bidi leaves form an important item of the foreign trade. They are exported to Japan and America and thus constitute an important source of foreign exchange to India.

The trade in bidi leaves is carried on since long in the district especially in the Zamindari areas. The trade has, however, declined due to the abolition of zamindari and the curbs on the monopoly system. At present there are about 25 traders working in this field. They are all contractors. They make contracts with the Government, cut the leaves and sell them to bidi manufacturers especially at Bangalore, Madras and Poona. The manufacturers or their agents come to the district and purchase these leaves at the rate of Rs. 28 to 30 per 40 kilograms. (The price is usually quoted in 40 kg.) There is no auction or bidding of bidi leaves. The sales are negotiated by bargains directly. The prices quoted above do vary, the variation chiefly depending upon the production of leaves in Madhya Pradesh and Vidarbha regions.

For storing the bidi leaves there are no godowns. They are stacked in the open. The trade in bidi leaves is mainly financed by the traders themselves. They do not get any credit facilities from banks or other sources. The District Central Co-operative Bank also does not provide any finance to the traders in the bidi trade. The traders have no association or organisation of their own in the district.

Retail Trade.

Retail trade in the district is almost invariably carried out by a number of retail shops operating in the rural areas as well as in urban areas. Their number and concentration mainly depend upon the density of population, locating of the area and the demand for goods kept for sale. Retail shops form a link between the consumer and the wholesaler. The ordinary consumer has preference for the retail trade. His choice mainly depends upon the varieties provided by the retail traders if we take into consideration the needs and choices of the ordinary consumers. The wholesalers are concentrated in various *peths* or wards of towns like Chandrapur, Gadhchiroli, Sironcha, Rajura; whereas the retailers are distributed throughout the district in small as well as big places. Their stock of the merchandise is very limited due to the small capital investment in the trade but taken together the turnover of goods and the replacement by new commodities are always carried out on a large scale. The retail traders mostly purchase the required goods from the wholesalers or from nearby market places or towns. Very few of them have direct link with the outside wholesaler. The perishable goods are brought from the nearest area. But goods

like cloth, ready-made clothes, medicines and medical appliances and stationery are brought from distant places which have acquired a special name for their production like Chandrapur, Nagbhir, Brahmapuri and Warora.

Dispersion of shops.—In all the important and major towns of the district the retail shops have been well distributed. In rural as well as in urban areas the retail shops reveal a keen competition both amongst themselves and with the regulated markets and fair price shops. The retail shops dealing with grocery, pan and bidi, cloth, hosiery and ready-made clothes, coal and wood and vegetables are found in almost all localities of the district. The vegetables and fruits shops are mainly located in the urban areas. Shops selling stationery, books, general merchandise, fruits, sweetmeat and eatables are not well dispersed, because the demand for their commodities is infrequent. Shops dealing in metal utensils, hardware, building material and other domestic goods have their own particular locality where they are concentrated. The concentration of shops selling mutton, fish and eggs is mainly due to the municipal regulations and food taboos observed in certain commodities.

Grocery group constitutes the backbone of retail trade. Shops dealing in groceries stock all sorts of cereals and pulses, gur, sugar, edible and non-edible oils, ghee, spices and condiments, tea, coffee, matches and other items of the grocery. The amount of capital invested in these shops depends upon the value of stock of merchandise of the individual shopkeeper and varies from about Rs. 500 to Rs. 30,000. There are many small shops with an investment from Rs. 500 to Rs. 5,000 only. Commodities for sale in these shops come from the wholesale centres and bigger regulated market places of the district *viz.*, Chandrapur, Sironcha, Gadhchiroli, Rajura, Brahmapuri, Nagbhir and Warora. Sometimes during the festive seasons like Diwali the commodities are purchased from outside the district. The average annual turnover of these shops ranges approximately from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 5,000. The sales show a decline in the rainy season but during the dry season and especially during festivals and marriage season the sale reaches its highest compensating for the drop in the monsoon season. The capital requirements of the big shops are considerable. The shopkeepers mostly purchase the merchandise on their personal credit. In some cases they approach banks for loans. The small shopkeepers sometimes borrow the required capital either from their friends or from relatives on their personal credit. These shops engage one to three servants, for handling, weighing and wrapping of the goods and commodities. In some of the big shops the shopkeepers employ clerks or accountants for maintaining account books.

Hardware and building material shops are very important for purposes of construction. They are spread over in all towns and bigger villages of the district, and are usually concentrated in

particular localities. The wholesalers or bigger shop-keepers usually purchase the required material direct from the manufacturers or companies as it is profitable and convenient for them. The small shop-keepers purchase the material either from the bigger shops in the towns or direct from the wholesalers. The articles for the sale include iron and steel bars, nails, screws, metal sheets, wires, wooden pillars and other important articles required for work of construction.

Due to the prevalence of the system of indigenous medicines there were no medical shops till very recently in the district. With the spread of education and growing consciousness about health quite a few medicine shops have come up in the district.

They comprise chemists, druggists and dispensers. These shops are located at the tahsil places and nearby bigger villages. There are very few big or wholesale traders in the district. Most of the rural people are not well familiar with the modern medical facilities. The *Adivasi* people still cherish old superstitious beliefs. They prefer to use herbal medicines. The hospitals, dispensaries and chemists are new to their culture. In urban areas these shop-keepers sell different types of allopathic, homoeopathic, and ayurvedic drugs and other indigenous medicines. Most of the drugs are Indian made. Those manufactured in India are brought mainly from Bombay, Poona and Bangalore.

At Bhandak there were three medical shops of which one was Ayurvedic. These shops brought their stocks mainly from Nagpur and Bombay. Of Ayurvedic medicines 25 per cent come from Panvel, 20 per cent from Ahmadnagar, 20 to 25 per cent from Bombay and 30 per cent from Khandesh. *Asawa, Bhasma, Uti, Kadha* come mainly from Panvel and Ahmadnagar ; *Balant kadha, Sanjeevani* and *Guti* from Bombay, and *Bhasma, Kadha* etc. from Khandesh. The yearly turnover of a small shop was worth over Rs. 8,000, and the margin of profit was from 12 to 15 per cent. The monthly sale of the largest shop was well over Rs. 30,000. Generally the business of the medicine shops is steady throughout the year.

The demand for medicines comes from local people. The representatives of various pharmaceutical firms and companies regularly visit the chemists and doctors, register their demand and send the products. The latter are sold at commission to the shops.

In Brahmapuri, there were three medical stores with a total turnover of Rs. 38,000. They sold products of Glaxo, Parke-Davis, Lederle, and other prominent pharmaceutical firms.

In Warora, the turnover of medical shops per annum was found to be over Rs. 70,000 to 80,000. There were 3 medical stores. The sale of allopathic medicines was considerably higher

than that of ayurvedic medicines. Most of the shops are located on the main road.

Next to the grocery shops, the cloth shops are very important because of their wide distribution and their utility to the consumers. Most of these shops are owned by the traditional merchant communities like Marwaris etc., either on proprietary or partnership basis. These shops are dispersed in towns and bigger villages of the district. Almost all the bigger shops stock and sell all kinds of textile, cotton, woollen and silk *viz.*, coatings, shirtings, sarees, dhotis, chaddars, towels, etc. In rural areas the small sellers keep dhotis, *pagadis* (turbans), sarees, chaddars, blouse pieces and other cotton clothes. Most of the shops have been located at tahsil places. In a few of the bigger shops salesmen or paid servants are engaged for measuring and cutting cloth and for packing and handing over the material to the customers. In small shops the owner performs these odd jobs. The capital invested in these shops varies from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 50,000. At the time of festivals (like Divali) and fairs and in marriage season the sale is high and for additional capital requirement on such occasions the shop-keepers usually approach the banks for loans. In the monsoon season the sale is limited. Cloth is brought from Bombay, Nagpur, Sholapur and Ahmedabad.

Wood and fuel shops mainly deal in firewood and charcoal. The district abounds in extensive forest area. Chandrapur teak is famous for its quality and is bought all over Maharashtra. Most of this teak is brought at Nagpur where a number of saw-mills are located. Timber is cut in blocks of suitable sizes and then exported to different areas. This trade, both retail and wholesale, is carried out profitably in almost all the major towns of the district. Most of the timber is exported to the neighbouring districts as well as throughout the country and also abroad.

The shops coming in this group are mainly concerned with the sale of stationery articles, bangles, hosiery, pencils, ink, nibs, fountain pens, cutlery and provision. Almost all these goods are brought from Nagpur or Bombay. Small shop-keepers make their purchases mostly from Chandrapur town.

The shops do brisk business when schools and colleges reopen for the academic year after the summer vacation. The shops are mainly concentrated in Chandrapur tahsil and rest of the tahsil places like Warora, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli. The value of goods stored by the small as well as large-sized shops varies from Rs. 300 to Rs. 10,000.

The leather goods and footwear shops are small in size and are located at a few places in the district. These shops could be grouped under two categories *viz.*, one dealing in leather and the other dealing exclusively in foot-wear and leather goods. Foot-wear comprise chappals, sandals and shoes, and leather

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goods comprise suit-cases, hand-bags, straps and leather accessories. These shops are mostly found in Chandrapur, Warora, Gadhchiroli, Brahmapuri, Rajura and Nagbhir. In rural areas the cobblers do the work of repairing and making chappals. The big shops located in the cities and towns generally sell products of some well-known foot-wear companies like Bata, Flex, Carona, Swastic etc. along with other indigenous leather goods. At tahsil places or at places where weekly bazars are held the sales of these goods is common. The small shop-keepers purchase the required raw material at the local bazars or sometimes from shops located at Chandrapur and other places. The foot-wear dealers sometimes bring their goods mainly from Nagpur or Bombay. The value of stock-in-trade in case of small establishments varies between Rs. 300 and Rs. 800 and in case of big shops between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.

Fruits, vegetables and flowers shops are small establishments mostly found at the important towns and market places of the district. The stock-in-trade of these shops is generally limited because of its perishable nature. Generally fruits and vegetables are brought from the immediate surrounding areas. As a large part of the district is covered by the forest area, fruits are available in plenty and in ample varieties. The fruits are exported to Nagpur, Bombay and other north-western districts of Vidarbha. They are mostly mangoes, grapes, bananas, guavas etc. Trade in vegetables and flowers is also seasonal.

Pan, bidi, cigarettes and tobacco shops could be found in almost all the places in the district. Most of these shops are small establishments managed by one person *viz.*, owner and in a few cases by two. These shops sell pan, bidis, chewing tobacco, betelnuts, betel-leaves, catechu, matches, etc., but in some shops postage stamps and envelopes and some petty articles of everyday use are also sold. The commodities are purchased from the local wholesalers or sometimes at the time of festivals from the district places. Their value varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 500 depending upon the size of the shop. The business is usually slack in the monsoon season.

Hosiery and ready-made clothes shops work on the same pattern as the cloth shops and are found in towns and big villages. These shops keep for sale ready-made clothes such as shirts, pyjamas, frocks, trousers, etc., in cotton as well as in terylene. Small shops keep hand-made clothes or clothes made locally, while shops in the towns which are of a bigger size usually bring ready-made clothes from district places like Nagpur, Bombay or Ahmedabad.

Fairs.

Fairs occupy an important place in the district trade. A fair varies a little from the weekly market so far as trade is concerned and consists of gatherings hardly known outside its own village to a concourse numbering some thousands and including some representatives from different parts of the district and other adjoining districts. The fairs are complementary to weekly markets, so far as trade is concerned and are chiefly distribution centres. A considerable quantity of agricultural produce and all sorts of articles including cattle are brought for sale.

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Fairs.

Major Lucie Smith wrote about fairs in the following terms—"A large part of the wholesale business of the year is transacted at fairs, which meet annually at Chandrapur, Chimur, Markanda, Bhandak and Warha the two first being by far the most important. Up to the end of 1866, the Hyderabad transit duty was worked so as not to interfere seriously with trade, and taking that year we find that the Chandrapur and Bhandak fairs were attended by 2,29.010 persons, while the value of the sales amounted to Rs. 20,55,843, giving the District a surplus in cash of Rs. 1,17,776."*

Besides the above two places, fairs are held at 34 other places in the district. The important of these, however, are Chimur, Markanda, Warha, Nagbhir, Chandrapur and Bhandak. The important items traded at fairs are the articles of daily requirements, fruits and vegetables, sweet-meat and other eatables, potteries, grocery articles, wooden and other toys, utensils, bangles, things useful for household purposes, cloth, ready-made clothes, country blankets, etc. Pedlars, vendors and retail shop-keepers usually attend the fairs and sell their merchandise. The buyers are the local people and people coming to the fairs from the neighbouring areas. The transactions are carried on, on a cash basis. The biggest fair is the Mahakali fair at Chandrapur. The following table gives in brief the turnover at the important fairs in the district.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District, 1909.

TABLE No. 23

AVERAGE TURNOVER AT VARIOUS FAIRS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT*

Serial No.	Name of the fair	Village/Town in which it is held	Commodities sold	Volume of turnover		Value of turnover	
				Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
						Rs.	Rs.
1	Chaitra Paurnima ..	Chandrapur Town ..	Grain, cloth, Stationery ..	3,000	2,000	5,50,000	25,000
2	Kartik Paurnima ..	Wadha ..	Grain, Stationery ..	1,000	700	25,000	11,500
3	Somnath ..	Maroda ..	Do. ..	..	..	..	..
4	Mahashivratra ..	Kultha ..	Do. ..	1,000	700	25,000	11,500
5	Mahashivratra ..	Kalmana ..	Do. ..	500	300	7,000	2,000
6	Shivratra ..	Sironcha ..	Grain, grocery ..	..	..	3,000	2,000
7	Moharram ..	Do.	Do. ..	..	..	2,000	1,000
8	Urus ..	Do.	Do. ..	..	..	1,000	750
9	Mahakali ..	Ankisa ..	Do. ..	..	..	1,500	500
10	Shivratra ..	Nagaram ..	Do. ..	..	..	2,000	1,000
11	Maullana ..	Arda ..	Do. ..	..	..	2,500	1,000
12	Mahakali ..	Chintamala ..	Do. ..	..	..	600	300
13	Moharram ..	Kistapur ..	Do. ..	..	..	500	300
14	Do. ..	Yelgur ..	Do. ..	..	..	500	200
15	Do. ..	Dechalli ..	Do. ..	..	..	600	300
16	Do. ..	Moyabinpeta ..	Do. ..	..	..	800	300

*Source—Tahsildars of Chandrapur and Sironcha.

Pedlars are an important constituent of the trade system in the district. They do not necessarily belong to any particular caste or class. They bring the articles to the weekly markets and fairs on their person and in bullock-carts and dispose them off with small profit margins. They usually do not carry a large merchandise since they are required to move from place to place. Even though considerable changes have taken place in the patterns of trade and though its volume has been altered due to the introduction of the regulated market system, industrialisation, restrictions on the movement of certain items, etc. their important role as far as the local trade in the district is considered, has been considerably affected. The popularity enjoyed by them once has also declined due to the changes in the attitude and preferences of the people.

The pedlars make their purchases from the nearby market places like Brahmapuri, Warora, Gadhchiroli, Rajura, Sironcha and Chandrapur. They mostly belong to the district and carry on their trade during fair weather and festive and marriage seasons. As they come from the district, they are known to their buyers, and are themselves very well acquainted with people's requirements and choice.

Hawkers.

Like pedlars the hawkers play an important role in regard to retail trade. Their operations are mainly confined to the urban area. The hawkers move all over within the limits of the place of their calling to sell their merchandise. As the district is not well developed, the hawking system seems to prevail only in the developed or municipal towns like Chandrapur, Gadhchiroli, Warora, Brahmapuri, etc.

The hawkers purchase their goods from the district place or from the nearest market place. They carry goods on their person but sometimes they use a hand cart as well. Most of their transactions are carried out on the cash basis but sale on credit basis is not entirely unknown. The goods which are sold by them include milk, vegetables and fruits, sprouted pulses, coconuts, betel-leaves, pulses, fish, bread and biscuits, eggs, sweets, dry fruits, metal utensils, crockery, ice-creams and *sharabats*, earthenware, stationery and old and new clothes, etc. There were 25 hawkers in Chandrapur tahsil in 1965-66.

Regulated Markets.

The regulation of markets in Bombay State as a whole was undertaken according to the revised Post-war Reconstruction Scheme No. 68 brought into operation from 1st August 1947. According to the plan it was proposed to regulate at least half the number of markets on the basis of one major market at each tahsil centre, within a period of 5 years ending 31st March 1952. The plan aimed at "securing to the cultivator better prices, fairer weighments and freedom from illegal deductions," as expeditiously as possible.

Towards the end of 1947, Government declared its policy of progressive decontrol of prices and movement of foodgrains from one place to another. It was then possible to accelerate

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Regulated Markets.

the pace of regulation of markets. The field of regulation of markets was also enlarged on the merger of all Deccan and Gujrat States with the Indian Union.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939,* aimed to provide for the better regulation of buying and selling of agricultural produce and the establishment of markets for the proper disposal of agricultural produce in the Province of Bombay. According to this Act, for each market area there is one principal market yard and one or more sub-market yards, as may be necessary. The State Government creates a market committee for every market area in respect of the agricultural produce for which the said area is declared to be a market area. It is the duty of the market committee to enforce the provisions of this Act, the conditions of a licence granted and the rules and byelaws made under this Act in such market area and when so required to establish a market therein, providing for such facilities as the Government may from time to time direct in connection with the purchase and sale of the agricultural produce concerned. The market committee is empowered to issue licences in accordance with the rules to traders, commission agents, brokers, weighmen, measurers, surveyors, warehousemen and other persons to operate in the market.

The market committee is constituted of the following categories of members, *viz.*,

(1) Persons elected by the agriculturists or other organisations in the said area in the manner prescribed.

(2) Persons elected by the traders approved by the market committee,

(3) Elected by local authorities.

All monies received by a market committee are paid into a fund to be called "the market committee fund" and all expenditure incurred by the market committee under or for the purposes of this Act is defrayed out of the said fund.

Although there were a few important wholesale markets in Chandrapur district, the trade in them was not regulated. The farmers or cultivators, therefore, could not get due returns for their produce. They were entirely at the mercy of the buyers and more so of the middlemen who used to earn maximum profit. The malpractices followed by the chain of middlemen left the agriculturists poor. There was no protection for their price and no organised effort whereby they could exercise their right in fixing the prices of their produce. It was very essential to put a stop to this state of things. Under a special Act known as the Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1935, the then Government sought to regulate trade in agricultural produce. The trade in cotton was regulated even before, that is, in 1932 by the Cotton Markets Act. The main

* This Act was not applicable to Chandrapur but only to the districts in Old Bombay State.

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object of the Acts was to regulate the total turnover of the various agricultural commodities coming to these merkets with an ultimate view of benefiting the agriculturists. The commodities regulated under these Acts were paddy, jowar, oilseeds, including linseed, castor oil, rape, mustard, pulses, cotton, etc.

Both these Acts, *viz.*, the Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1935 and the Central Provinces and Berar Cotton Market Act, 1932, were amended by Acts of 1936 and 1937, respectively. The Acts aim at establishing equity in the bargaining power of agriculturists and merchants, promoting mutual confidence, preventing malpractices, and giving a fair deal to the farmers. The Acts seek to regulate various features of agricultural marketing in regulated markets. The main features of the Acts are regulation of market practices, clear definition of market charges and reduction of excessive charges, licensing of market functionaries of buyers, brokers and weighmen, use of standard weights and measures, settlement of disputes, appointment of market committees representing growers, traders, local authority and Government, publishing of reliable and up-to-date market information, Government control over markets and market committees.

The Acts provide for the establishment of market committees consisting of not less than ten and not more than 16 members. The commodities that are regulated are specified in the Acts and all transactions in these commodities outside the purview of the regulated market are prohibited. In this district the commodities regulated are paddy, jowar, oilseeds and so on and the markets where regulation is in force are Chandrapur, Warora, Gadhchiroli, Mul, Armori, Sindewahi, Nagbhir, Brahmapuri and Wadsa. These markets are under the control of the marketing committees which provide marketing facilities to traders. Of these committees only three committees have been functioning, the remaining did not start their operation till 1965.

The dates of establishment of the nine market committees are given below :—

(1)	Agricultural Produce Market	..	Warora	.. 4-7-1960.
(2)	Do. do.	..	Mul	.. 31-12-1960.
(3)	Do. do.	..	Armori	.. 9-1-1960.
(4)	Do. do.	..	Chandrapur	.. 12-5-1960.
(5)	Do. do.	..	Sindewahi	.. 8-4-1962.
(6)	Do. do.	..	Nagbhir	.. 10-5-1960.
(7)	Do. do.	..	Brahmapuri	.. 12-5-1960.
(8)	Do. do.	..	Wadsa	.. 7-10-1960.
(9)	Do. do.	..	Gadhchiroli	.. 10-6-1960.

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They were regulated under the Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1935, and the Cotton Markets Act, 1932. The supervision and control over these markets at district level is entrusted to the Zilla Parishad. Till the enforcement of the Maharashtra Agricultural Produce Marketing (Regulation) Act of 1963, in 1967, the old Acts were in force.

Out of the nine committees only three committees, *viz.*, those at Warora, Mul and Armori have commenced working. The remaining six committees had not started their working as their schedules of market fees were not fixed then.

The three market committees had commenced working in anticipation of the approval from Government of the schedule of market fees. The marketing committees have been described below—

Warora.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Warora.—This Committee was established in July, 1960 and started its work in April, 1963. The land for market and establishment was allotted to it by the Government at the time of the notification. The commodities regulated in the market include rice, jowar, cotton, etc.

The income of the Agricultural Produce Market Committee of Warora for the year 1965-66 was Rs. 15,207 which comprised Rs. 8,260 as market fees, Rs. 3,938 as licence fees and Rs. 3,009 as miscellaneous income. Its expenditure during the same period, however, amounted to Rs. 16,174, comprising establishment expenditure of Rs. 7,040 and other expenditure of Rs. 9,184, incurring a total loss of Rs. 967. The total arrivals in the market during the same period were 1,43,224 quintals valued at Rs. 1,95,66,075. Of these 10,115 quintals valued at Rs. 5,15,865 came through the Purchase and Sale Co-operative Society, Ltd., Warora.

The Warora Market Committee has excellent transport facilities, because Warora is situated on the Delhi-Madras Railway line and also on the Nagpur-Chandrapur road. The warehousing facilities are provided by the Maharashtra Warehousing Corporation, which has constructed a warehouse at Warora.

Mul.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Mul.—The Agricultural Produce Market Committee was established at Mul on 31st December 1960. But it started its work on 7th May 1965. This was done in anticipation of the Government's approval of the schedule of market fees. The commodities regulated in the market comprised mainly paddy and jowar. They were regulated as per the Central Provinces Agricultural Produce Market Act at the time of notification. The land for the establishment of the market committee was also allotted at the time of notification by the Government.

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Regulated Markets.

During 1965-66, the receipts of the market committee amounted to Rs. 1,920 comprising Rs. 770 as market fees, Rs. 150 as fees for issuing licences to the traders and Rs. 1,000 as earnings from miscellaneous items. The expenditure, on the other hand, amounted to Rs. 3,585, inclusive of Rs. 2,270 as expenditure over establishment and Rs. 814 as other expenditure. The market committee, thus, sustained a loss of Rs. 1,665 during the year. This was due to the fact that the committee, like the Agricultural Produce Market Committee at Warora, had commenced working before its schedule of market fees was approved by the Government, whereas it was not in a position to recover the fees through various measures. The committee received Rs. 2,000 by way of a subsidy from the Government for the maintenance of staff, publicity and propaganda.

Mul.

The total agricultural produce arrived in the market amounted to 9,385 quintals valued at Rs. 6,62,252 during 1965-66. Of these, 6,834 quintals valued at Rs. 3,75,334 arrived through the Purchase and Sale Co-operative Society at Mul. The co-operative marketing society dealt with 6,700 quintals of paddy valued at Rs. 3,68,500 and 134 quintals of jowar valued at Rs. 6,834, during 1965-66.

The location of the village Mul is very convenient as far as the transportation of agricultural produce is concerned. The village does not have any warehousing facility.

Armori.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Armori.—This Market Committee was established on 9th January 1960 at Armori. It was allotted land by the Government at the time of its notification. The commodities arrived in the market consist mostly of paddy and jowar. The village Armori is not located suitably so far as transportation of goods is concerned. It is not a rail-head and there is no main road passing from it. However, a road under construction from Wadsa to Armori, is likely to facilitate easy transport and increase the trade of the place.

The Committee started its work on 1st April 1965, in the same way as the other two committees described above did, that is in anticipation of an approval from Government of its schedule of market fees. Since its inception the total arrival of agricultural produce in the market amounted to 20,218 quintals valued at Rs. 16,89,493, during 1965.

The total receipts of the market committee during 1965-66 were Rs. 6,407 including Rs. 3,095 as market fees, Rs. 1,275 as licence fees and Rs. 2,037 as earnings on miscellaneous items. The expenditure, on the other hand, came to Rs. 6,407, of which Rs. 1,777 were for establishment, Rs. 979 for other items and Rs. 3,651 were surplus. Due to its economical working, the committee did not run into loss but made some profit. In addition, the committee received Rs. 2,000 as assistance from the Government by way of a subsidy. Rs. 1,500 for the supervision of staff and Rs. 500 for publicity and propaganda. The market has no warehousing facility.

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Trade Associations.

A trade association is a body of persons representing the interests of traders in general or in a particular line. Such an association may restrict its scope of activities to a small area like a village or extend itself to cover the entire district. Among various objectives it seeks to achieve, of paramount importance are the protection of common interests of the member-traders, protection against undue Government interference and coercion, adoption of a general policy and trade practices for the welfare of the trading community, safeguarding minority groups in the trade against any kind of suppression, and serving the multifarious requirements of traders in general. The trade association operates through consultation, representation and joint-action *vis-a-vis* the State or the public and strives to attain its aims within the frame-work of Government regulations and legal restrictions.

In Chandrapur district there are only a few associations of traders. The Grain Merchants' Association is one of them. It is an important organisation established at Chandrapur some twelve years ago. By 1965 it had 70 wholesalers and retail traders as its members. Every member had to pay annually Rs. 25 as membership fee. The association works for its members and helps them to solve their common problems such as redressing transport and other difficulties. It also makes representations against any Government policy or action that would affect their interests.

Another association of note is the Chandrapur District Forest Contractors' Association. It has two branches—(i) the Chandrapur charcoal Association at Chandrapur and (ii) the Ballarshah Timber Association at Ballarshah. In 1965, it had a membership of hundred. Members were admitted on a payment of Rs. 10. This fee was collected from those members who were doing active business in timber or charcoal.

There was also an Association of Bidi Merchants in the district with its office at Chandrapur. In 1965, the association was defunct and could not work. Like-wise there was also an association of the hoteliers.

Employees in various trades too have their own organisations to safeguard their interests. The bidi workers' union and fishermen's union, for example have long been established and were active in the district.

State Trading.

Active participation of the State in the field of trade dates back to 1942. It was necessitated by a general shortage of essential consumers goods caused by World War II. In order to achieve a fair distribution of these goods the Government of India adopted a policy of rationing such consumers goods as rice, wheat, jowar, bajra, sugar, kerosene and cloth and distributed them to consumers through Government approved ration shops. Trade in these goods in the open market and their movement were also controlled and prohibited. The Government's

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State Trading.

steps helped stabilising the prices to a great extent and reduced the hoarding by middlemen. They also minimised the hardships of consumers in deficit areas.

After 1950, as the supply position of consumers goods began to show signs of improvement, the Government adopted a policy of relaxation of controls. In 1954 the Government completely lifted the controls. But as in 1956 the situation worsened in respect of supply of essential goods, limited controls in the form of creation of zones for rice, wheat, etc. were reimposed. Distribution of foodgrains and sugar through fair price shops was restarted and restriction on the movement of these goods was again instituted. In 1958 the Government of India declared a policy of State Trading in foodgrains.

In this district there is no regular or statutory rationing of goods as such. However, with a view to reducing the burden of rising prices on the lower and middle classes, the State Government have introduced a scheme of Fair Price Shops. By 1965 there were thus 563 fair price shops in the district. They distributed grains and sugar as per the quantum fixed by the Government from time to time. From April 1965 to March 1966, they distributed about 1,65,985 quintals of these commodities valued at Rs. 1,02,09,265.

Weights and Measures.

At the time the Old District Gazetteer of Chanda was published, there were no standard weights and measures in the district. The chief measures in use were the *paili* weighing 100 tolas or 2½ English pounds, and the *kuro* composed of eight *pailis*. At certain places such as Rajgarh and Talodhi the *paili* was somewhat larger and weighed 105 tolas. *Kuros* were of two kinds: the *lambari kuro* comprising 8 *pailis* or 20 lbs. and the *bhatya kuro*, comprising 6 *pailis* or 15 lbs.; the latter was employed in calculating the grain remuneration of farm servants. One hundred and sixty *pailis* made one *lambari khandi* while 120 *pailis* made a *bhatya khandi*. The lowest unit of weight was the *ringa;* 4 *ringas* made one *ser* and 4 *sers* made one *paili*. It was proposed to introduce standard weights in the municipalities of Warora and Chandrapur. These were the *chatak* of 5 tolas, the seer of 80 tolas, and the maund of 40 seers. The maund was of varying composition, differing in weight with different commodities as the following statement would reveal—

Commodity	*Weight*	
	Seers	
lac, gum or *harra*	12	
gur	11	(Warora)
gur	10	(Chandrapur)
haldi, chillis, cotton seed	12	
uncleaned cotton	24	
iron	14	
brass, copper	14½	
groundnut or *singharas*	12	

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Weights and Measures.

Sironcha had a table of weights and measures peculiar to itself. The most important weight was the *tawa*, which was equal to $1\frac{3}{4}$ seers or 140 tolas. Eight *tawas* made 1 *kuncha* or *handi*.

This system of weights and measures was gradually replaced by standard weights of maunds and seers and continued till the Government of Bombay enacted the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, for the enforcement of the standard Weights and Measures based on metric system in the State. Adoption of this system began in 1958 and it was completed by the end of 1966.

CHAPTER 7—COMMUNICATIONS

CHAPTER 7. Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

IT IS RIGHTLY SAID THAT CULTURE FOLLOWS COMMUNICATIONS. Means of communications do serve as the veins of cultural exchange, both in its material and non-material aspects. The greater the facilities of transport and communications the more will they help to remove the natural barricades which block the flow of developmental programme. The means of communications in their various aspects bring people from distant areas together and help them to live amicably. In fact some of them such as telephone, wireless and radio communications have brought the whole world together. It will not be an exaggeration to say that the means of transport and communications in their ever-changing patterns form one of the important factors which together initiate the great thinkers of the day to expound the idea of 'World Nation'.

About the state of communications in the district, prior to 1891, Chandrapur which was then nearly 28,490 km² (11,000 square miles) in extent possessed only one metalled road 47 km. (29 miles) in length and a section of railway measuring 27 km. (17 miles). These two means of communication then hugged the western border of the district so closely that they might appear to have wandered into it by accident, and for the vast bulk of the district might just as well have not existed. About 1870 the district was devoid of all civilised means of communication. In 1891, an important step was taken to remove this slur by the construction of the Chandrapur-Mul-Umrer road. This road opened up the Brahmapuri tahsil. But it was not until the famine of 1900 that the task of developing the communications of Chandrapur district was systematically taken in hand. Since then communications in the district have been continuously developing.

In the following pages an attempt is made to give the historical and structural account of the various means of transport and communications, such as, railways, roads and post and telegraphs. It may however be stated that considerable progress has been made in opening up even the remote parts of the district by construction of roads. However, there is still a vast scope to spread a net-work of roads in the rural areas of the district, especially in the forest tracts. That is the reason why in the present rural development programme of the district due importance is given to transport and communications.

RAILWAYS.

Until 1908, Chandrapur district had only one section of railway measuring 17 miles in length. It was the branch of the then Great Indian Peninsula Railway which connected Wardha and

CHAPTER 7. Communications. RAILWAYS.

Warora in the extreme north-west corner of the district. This Wardha-Warora line was opened in 1877 mainly with a view to affording an outlet to the coal of the Warora State Colliery. It was first worked by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company, but during the period between 1879 and 1891 it was under the direct control of the then Government. During those twelve years the broad gauge line was known as the State Coal Railway. In 1891 it was once more handed over to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company. Nagri and Warora were the only two stations on its course within the district. Warora then was the terminus of the line and controlled the whole traffic of the *khalsa* area. However, later on the Warora terminus lost this commanding position with the exhaustion of the Warora Colliery. It was then decided to sink a shaft at Ballalpur as an alternative source for the supply of coal. This necessitated the extension of the railway up to Ballalpur *via* Chandrapur. This extension commenced towards the end of 1904 and was completed at the beginning of 1908 at a total cost of Rs. 39 lakhs. Its length is 63 km. (39 miles). There were four stations *viz.*, Bhandak, Tadali, Chandrapur and Ballarshah (Ballarpur). Erai river was the principal obstacle on this line and it was negotiated by a bridge of eight spans of 30.480 m (100 feet) each. It was also then contemplated to link up this line with that from Bombay to Madras. Accordingly a line was also surveyed to Warangal passing through Ahiri and Sironcha. Later on this project was discarded. Apart from its prime object of serving the Ballalpur Colliery, the extension of the line from Warora to Ballalpur helped to a great extent in bringing large tracts of the country suitable for the growth of cotton within easy reach of the rail.

Thus, the railway communication in the district was initially started mainly to facilitate the transport of coal. However it cannot be denied that Chandrapur was then linked up with other important cities, like Bombay, Nagpur and Calcutta. Thus Bombay is 878 km. away, while Howrah *via* Wardra is 1,328 km. distant from Chandrapur. Later on, this route derived its importance due to the Grand Trunk Route which connects Delhi to Madras *via* Chandrapur. The various business activities, educational institutions, etc., which prospered in the meantime also helped in increasing the importance of the railway lines in the district.

In 1952 the different railway lines passing through the district along with those outside the district were regrouped. Accordingly the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line up to Kazipet came to be called as Central Railway and the Bengal-Nagpur line was named South Eastern Railway. The railway line after Kazipet was then known as Southern Railway. However from the administrative view point these two zones, *viz.*, Central Railway and Southern Railway were very unwieldy. As such, a new zone, *viz.*, South Central Railway with its headquarters at Secunderabad was opened on 2nd October 1966 by taking some

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portions from both the zones, Central Railway and Southern Railway. According to this new arrangement the route up to Ballarshah is under the Central Railway and from thence onward under the South Central Railway. The length of the broad gauge line from Chandrapur to Kazipet is 249 km. There are 23 stations on this line. The length of the Central Railway line in the district as enveloped by Nagri and Makudi stations comes to 124 km. On this line there are 13 stations of which Majri and Tadali are junctions.

Besides, there are three other railway routes in the district. Of these, Majri-Rajura and Tadali-Ghugus are broad gauge lines which take off from the Central Railway line at those respective stations. Both the lines are included in the Central Railway Zone. The Majri-Rajura line starts from the Majri station of the Central Railway line and goes up to Rajura in Yeotmal district. Its total length is 21 km. Majri Khadan, Wani and Rajura are the only three stations on this line. Of these, Majri Khadan is in Chandrapur district. Another short line, *viz.*, Tadali-Ghugus lies in Chandrapur district alone. Its total length is 15 km. and there is no station in between Tadali and Ghugus.

The third line on the narrow guage (2'-6") was formerly known as Bengal-Nagpur Railway. In 1909 the sections between Chandrapur and Gondia were constructed between 1908 and 1916. The approximate cost of the same was then estimated at 120 lakhs of rupees. This line passes through the rice producing areas in Chandrapur and Brahmapuri tahsils. Its purpose then contemplated can be best understood from the below mentioned quotation from the old Gazetteer of the district.

"As a means of facilitating the administration of the Brahmapuri and Garhchiroli tahsils, the importance of this line cannot be over-estimated, while its existence will solve the problem of getting grain into the interior of these tahsils in times of famine and prevent a recurrence of the enormous difficulties of transport which were the most serious obstacle to famine administration in 1900. It will also bring the backward Garhchiroli zamindaris within hail of civilisation, and encourage the influx of tenants into a quarter where population is sadly deficient. But it will carry away little agricultural produce save rice, since the bulk of the trade in this with the exception of rice will always be with Bombay and merchants will as a rule prefer to put their cotton and oil-seeds on the rival railway."

After regrouping of the railways the railway line is known as South Eastern Railway. This line links Chandrapur with Nagpur *via* Nagbhir and to Jabalpur *via* Nagbhir and Gondia. Both these lines are on the narrow gauge. The length of the line from Chanda Fort (Chandrapur and Chanda Fort are two different stations) to Nagpur is 220 km. There are 29 stations on this line of which Nagbhir, Itwari and Nagpur are Junctions. Nagbhir is just in the centre. The length of the line from Chanda Fort to Jabalpur is 470 km. There are 50 stations on this line of

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which Nagbhir, Gondia, Balaghat, Nainpur and Jabalpur are Junctions.

The passenger trains running daily *via* Chandrapur are: (1) Delhi-Madras Grand Trunk Express, (2) Delhi-Madras Janata Express, (3) Delhi-Hyderabad Dakshin Express, (4) Nagpur-Hyderabad Passenger, (5) Wardha-Kazipet Passenger, (6) Ghugus-Ballarshah Mixed, (7) Warora-Rajur Mixed. The passenger trains which run daily on Majri-Rajur route are: (1) Warora-Rajur Mixed, (2) Majri-Wani Mixed, (3) Majri-Rajur Mixed. The trains that run on the Tadali-Ghugus route are: (1) Ballarshah-Ghugus Mixed and (2) Tadali-Ghugus Mixed. The trains that run daily on the Chanda Fort-Gondia route and the Nagpur-Nagbhir route are: (1) Chanda Fort-Nagbhir Passenger, (2) Nagpur-Nagbhir Passenger, (3) Chanda Fort-Gondia Passenger, (4) Nagpur-Warsa Passenger.

ROADS.

Until 1885 road transport in the district was not developed. The only metalled road in the whole district was that section of the old Southern Road which connected Warora and Chandrapur, a distance of only 47 km. (29 miles). Even this road was until 1901-02 only partially bridged and the mails were often considerably delayed by floods. The Erai river was then traversed by a temporary bridge and roadway during the open season and by a ferry during the monsoon. This road was then the most important in the district as Chandrapur used to get all the trade from the *haveli* as well as traffic which the Mul bazar collected and handed on from Rajgad and the markets across the Wainganga and then passed it on in turn to the railway at Warora. A short but very important trade route especially for the north-western area of the district was the road between Warora and Wun. This road then proved a great avenue of the cotton and grain trade with east Berar and the Adilabad district in the *ex*-Nizam's dominions. Towards the end of the 19th century this road was classed as a first-class road. Another road, 33 miles in length, was commenced as a famine work in 1899-1900 and it connected Chimur with Warora *via* Shegaon and carried a fair amount of traffic. Northwards towards Wardha there was a road known as the District Council road. Prior to 1909 a road was proposed to connect Warora with Moharli *via* Chandankheda and from Moharli to Sindewahi.

Second only in importance to the above stated Chandrapur-Warora road was the road which linked up Chandrapur with Nagpur *via* Mul and Umrer. This was metalled and partially bridged between Chandrapur and Mul, 27 miles, and for the ten miles north of Nagbhir, after which the road passed out of the district, while for the 37½ miles between Mul and Nagbhir it was laid with *murum*. The produce of the Rajgad and Wairagad and also that of the southern half of Garbori paragana and all the Brahmapuri paragana were sent to Mul and thence on to Chandrapur by the southern section of this road. Brahmapuri was linked up with Nagbhir by a gravelled road, 12 miles in length.

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The central and eastern portions of the district were opened up by two roads which met at Gadhchiroli. Of these two roads, the more southerly one connected Gadhchiroli with Mul by a gravelled road, 25 miles in length. This road was constructed in 1894. A little to the east of Gadhchiroli it passed to zamindaris and afforded a good *murum* coated thoroughfare as far as Dhanori 21 miles away. The earthwork over a further distance of 15 miles as far as Muramgaon on the borders of the district was completed in the famine of 1900 and the road was carried on to the railway at Dhamtari in an easterly and to Nandgaon in a northerly direction.

To the south of Chandrapur, the district was prior to the famine of 1897 absolutely devoid of roads. In 1909, a road to Sironcha *via* Allapalli was under construction. The road was completed. It opened up the lower Wainganga and Wardha valleys and tapped the considerable grain traffic of the valley of the Pranhita, besides affording a connection between the timber depot of Allapalli and the railway. Another road was also constructed from Allapalli in a north-easterly direction to Muramgaon.

This shows how poor was the condition of road transport in Chandrapur district prior to 1909. The District Council then used to maintain roads of some importance between Brahmapuri and Gewardha, Gadhchiroli and Chamursi, Chandrapur and Chimur, Warora and Wardha and Armori to Mendki. It also then maintained 61 miles of village roads at an annual cost of Rs. 19 per mile.

In 1909, there were altogether 101 miles of metalled and 286 miles of unmetalled roads in the whole district. The whole length of metalled roads and 197 miles of unmetalled roads was maintained by the then Public Works department at a cost of about Rs. 60,000 per annum, while the remaining 89 miles of unmetalled roads were kept up by the District Council at a cost of about Rs. 2,500.

As late as 1947 the state of communications in the district was very poor. There were only 493 miles of roads in the year 1947. Of the 493 miles, 112 were under the control of the then Janapad Sabha, while the remaining 381 miles were maintained by the Public Works department. The roads then were classed into three categories : class I roads, class II roads and class III roads which measured respectively 274, 170 and 49 miles. As it was estimated on the 31st March 1951, the total mileage of roads in the district was increased by one mile only. The old classification of roads into three categories was continued till 1951. Thus compared to the expectations of road communications as envisaged by the Nagpur Plan in 1943, the district was very poor in road transport even till 1961. According to the Nagpur Plan, the district was to have 2,390 miles of roads. Under the revised Twenty-Year Road Plan (1961—81) the same target has been raised to 3,923 miles of roads which comes to one mile of road for every 2.56 sq. miles of area. In addition to

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the abnormal shortfall in the road-mileage, the district suffers from lack of bridges on numerous rivers and streams interrupting traffic for more than six months during the year. At present there are only 953 miles of roads grouped under the categories, such as, National Highways, Major District roads, Other District roads, and Village roads.

Taking into consideration the shortfall in the road mileage, especially in the local sector, various new road works have been proposed and taken up in the last three Five-Year Plans and many more miles will be added during the Fourth Five-Year Plan. About the mileage of the State Highways, there is no appreciable shortfall in the existing mileage and the target fixed. These State Highways however need considerable improvements and require a number of major and minor cross drainage works to bring them to the standard of State Highways. In view of the limited resources at disposal, higher priority has been given to provision of major bridges and cross drainage works in the last three plans. During these three plans work has been completed on two bridges on Wardha river, one on Wainganga river, one bridge on Dina river, and one bridge on Erai river. In addition, there are 33 minor cross drainage works completed during the last 10 years. These works have considerably improved the facilities of inter-district communications. The financial and physical targets of the last three plans are given in the statement below:—

FINANCIAL AND PHYSICAL TARGETS AND ACHIEVEMENTS DURING THE THREE FIVE-YEAR PLANS

Plan period	Financial Provision		Physical		Mileage at the end of the plan
	Allotment (Rs. in lakhs)	Amount spent (Rs. in lakhs)	Targets	Achievements	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
				(Miles)	(Miles)
First Five-Year Plan (1951-52 to 1955-56).	2·50	2·30	..	67	665
Second Five-Year Plan (1956-57—1960-61).				113 (12 cross drainage works)	778
		State Sector			
Third Five-Year Plan (1961-62—1965-66).	79·00	70·65	New constructions 14.	4	418
			Improvement works 90.	57	
			Bridges 7	6	
			Cross drainage works 26.	21	
		Local Sector			
			New constructions Major District Road 23.	25	535
			Village Road 116.	84	

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There is no national highway in the district.

Following is an account of important roads which traverse through the district.

State Highways.

Nagpur-Chandrapur Road via Jam-Warora.

This is a State highway which starts from Nagpur. Before entering the district it passes through Nagpur and Wardha districts. The road enters the Chandrapur district at mile No. 50/4. In its north to south course in the district it traverses the Warora and Chandrapur tahsils and is 44 km. in length. Its stretch in the district ends at mile No. 94/4. The entire length of this road in the district is black topped and is motorable throughout the year. In its course in the district it touches Khambada (52)*, Tembhurna (60), Warora (67, R.H.), Bhandak (77), and Chandrapur (94, R.H., C.H.). The highway crosses the Erai river in mile No. 92/4 over a high level bridge, the Pothra nalla bridge at mile No. 52/2 and the Nandori nalla at mile No. 69/7. The Warora-Wani and Warora-Chimur roads take off from this highway at mile Nos. 67 and 67½ respectively. Of these, Warora-Wani is a State highway and the Warora-Chimur is a major district road.

Nagpur-Chandrapur Road via Umrer and Mul.

This is also a State highway which starts from Nagpur. Before it enters Chandrapur district it passes through Nagpur and Bhandara districts. It enters the district at mile No. 51/2 and runs from north to south through Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils. Its entire length in the district is 74.50 km. of which 33 km. are black topped and 41.50 km. are water bound macadam. The road terminates at Chandrapur in mile No. 125/6. In its total course in the district it touches the following villages *viz.*, Kanpa (52)†, Nagbhir (61, R.H.), Talodhi (72), Savargaon (74, R.H.), Sindewahi (89, R.H.), Lohara (120), Chanki (117), and Chikali (119). The highway crosses the submersible bridge on Mul river in mile No. 98. Kanpa-Chimur (M.D.R., 52), Nagbhir-Brahmapuri (M.D.R., 61), Talodhi-Armori (O.D.R., 72), and Palasgaon-Neri (O.D.R., 78) are the roads which take off from this State highway.

Chandrapur-Allapalli-Sironcha-Pattagudam Road.

This is the longest State highway in the district which starts from Chandrapur town and runs north-west to south-east. It passes through Chandrapur, Gadhchiroli and Sironcha tahsils. Its total length in the district is 157.687 km. The road leaves Chandrapur border at 29.250 km. away from Sironcha and enters the Bastar district of Madhya Pradesh. Of its total length, 20.312 km. is black topped, 108.125 km. is water bound macadam and the remaining section of 29.250 km. is of *murum*. The road touches the following villages *viz.*, Ballarshah (10, R.H.), Kothari (21, R.H.), Aksapur (31, R.H.), Ashti (43, R.H.), Laggam (57, R.H.), Allapalli (72, R.H.), Mosam (81, R.H.),

*Figures in brackets indicate the mile number where the road touches the village.
R. H.—Rest House.
C. H.—Circuit House.
†Figures in brackets indicate mile numbers.
M.D.R.—Major District Road.
O. D. R.—Other District Road.

ROADS.

Repanpalli (94, R.H.), Umanur (105, R.H.), Bamni (118, R.H.), and Sironcha (130, R.H.). The road crosses the high level bridge over the Wainganga river at mile No. 43.

State Highways.

(1) Rajura-Asifabad (State highway), (2) Gondpipri-Nandgaon-Khedi (O.D.R.), (3) Allapalli-Bhamragad (O.D.R.), (4) Jamalgatta-Asaralli (O.D.R.), and (5) Sironcha-Asaralli (O.D.R.), are the roads which take off from this State highway.

Chandrapur-Allapalli-Sironcha-Pattagudam Road.

Mul-Gadhchiroli-Murumgaon Road.

This State highway starts from Mul in the district and runs from west to east. It passes through Chandrapur and Gadhchiroli tahsils. Its total length in the district is 72.125 km. The highway enters Drug district of Madhya Pradesh at mile No. 72.125. Of its entire length 4 km. are black topped, 26 km. water bound macadam and 42.125 km. *murum*. The road in its course touches the following villages, *viz.*, Wehad (14, R.H.), Gadhchiroli (25, R.H.), Chatgaon (37, R.H.), Dhanora (46, R.H.), and Murumgaon (60, R.H.). It crosses the Wainganga river at mile No. 19. Mul-Gadhchiroli (O.D.R.), Saoli-Pathri (O.D.R.), and Wadsa-Armori-Gadhchiroli-Chamorshi (M.D.R.) roads take off from this State highway.

Asifabad-Chandrapur Road.

This section of State highway starts from Asifabad in Andhra State, passes through the Adilabad district and enters in Chandrapur district at mile No. 16/0. It runs from south to north and traverses through Rajura and Chandrapur tahsils. Its total length in the district upto Rajura is 16 miles. This section of the State highway terminates at Rajura in mile No. 32/0. It however extends further to Chandrapur via Ballarshah. The total length of the road in the district is water bound macadam. During its course in the district, it touches the following villages, *viz.*, Sondo (22, R.H.), Wansadi (26, R.H.) and Rajura (32, R.H.). The road crosses the Wardha river.

Major District Roads.

In the district there are 190/6 miles of major district roads. These roads are roughly of the same specifications as State highways except that they may not be asphalted or fully bridged. The importance of these roads lies in the fact that they connect important centres of trade and commerce with railways and highways.

Rajura-Govindpur Road.

This is a major district road which starts from Rajura in Chandrapur district and runs from east to west. Its total length in the district is 40 miles. It enters Adilabad district at mile No. 40/0. The entire stretch of 40 miles is of *murum*. This road during its course in the district touches Chandur (22, R.H.), and Pardi (36, R.H.).

Warora-Chimur Road.

This metalled road starts from Warora. It emanates from the Nagpur-Chandrapur State highway *via* Jam in mile No. 66. Its total length in the district is 32/6 miles. It terminates at Chimur. During its course it touches Warora, Paroda, Salori, Mesha, Shegaon Bk., Bhendala, Chargaon Bk., Ralegaon, Khargaon, Bothali, Khadshingi, Bandar, Zedegaon and Chimur. The road crosses Uma river in mile No. 30/8. It is motorable throughout the year.

ROADS.

Major District Roads.

Chimur-Shankarpur-Kanpa Road.

The road starts from Chimur and ends at Kanpa. Of its entire length of 20/5 miles only a section of 4/3 miles is metalled. It starts from mile No. 33 of the Warora-Chimur road. The road crosses Satvanalla river at mile No. 35 and Kawarshi nalla at mile No. 50. It touches Chimur, Wadala, Karkala, Malewada, Jabulgata, Malgalgaon, Siwara, Hirapur, Shankarpur, Kawadshi and Kanpa. The road is motorable only in fair weather season.

Nagbhir-Brahmapuri Road.

This road starts in mile No. 98 of Chandrapur-Nagpur State highway *via* Nagbhir and Umred. Its total length in the district is 12 miles only. During its course it touches Nagbhir, Kordha, Kiranti, Mendha, Tumadi, Kharbi, Makta, Delanwadi, and Brahmapuri. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Wadsa-Gewardha-Kurkheda Road.

This road is the continuation of Nagbhir-Brahmapuri road up to Kurkheda and has a total length of 16/4 miles only between Wadsa and Kurkheda. There is a major bridge in mile No. 5/2. The road touches the following villages, *viz.*, Desaigani, Visora, Shankarpur, Kalamgaon, Dogarmeta, Shelda, Labhe, Gewardha, Chikhali, Nanki, and Kurkheda. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Wadsa-Armori-Gadhchiroli Road.

This road is under construction and when completed its entire length in the district will be of 32 miles. The road crosses the rivers Gadvi in mile No. 13/3, the Khobargadi in mile No. 16/5, the Pal nalla in mile No. 28/4, and the Kathani river in mile No. 30/3. During its course in the district the road touches a number of villages. They are : Desaigani, Nampur, Wadegaon, Kurud, Kondhala, Palora, Rampur, Armori, Thanegaon, Dongargaon, Dewalgaon, Kitali, Churmura, Wasa, Porla, Nagri, Nawgaon, Katali Chak, Salehara, Adpali, and Gadhchiroli. The road between Wadsa and Armori is motorable throughout the year, while that from Armori to Gadhchiroli is motorable in fair weather only.

Ashti-Chamorshi Road.

This major district road takes off from the Chandrapur-Ashti-Sironcha State highway at Ashti and connects Chamorshi. It is an unmetalled road. Its total length is 20 miles only.

Sindewahi-Pathri-Hirapur Road.

This road starts from Sindewahi which is located on Chandrapur-Mul-Nagpur State highway. Its entire length up to Hirapur is 21/1 miles.

Gadhchiroli-Chamorshi Road.

This road takes off from the Chandrapur-Mul-Gadhchiroli-Murumgaon State highway. Its entire length is 21 miles. The road crosses Kesar nalla in mile No. 5/2, Yewali nalla in mile No. 9/4 and Nimgaon nalla in mile No. 16/6. It is motorable only in fair weather.

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Other District Roads.

Amongst the other district roads, Sironcha-Asaralli road, Brahmapuri-Armori road, Warora-Madheli road, Gondpipri-Khedi road, and Chandrapur-Ghugus road are important.

Sironcha-Asaralli Road.

Its entire length of 19/4 miles is in Sironcha tahsil only. The road during its course touches the following villages *viz.*, Adimutapur, Nadigaon Chak and Ankisa. It is motorable throughout the year.

Brahmapuri-Armori Road.

This road passes through Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils. Its length is 14/4 miles only. The road touches Brahmapuri, Udapur, Maldogari, Betala, Kinhi, Adsoda and Armori villages. It crosses Wainganga river in mile No. 13. The road is open for traffic in fair weather only.

Warora-Madheli Road.

Its entire length of 11.3 miles is in Warora tahsil only. The road during its course touches various villages, *viz.*, Warora, Wanoja, Yekona, Ranzurni, Wandali and Madheli. It is motorable in fair weather only.

Gondpipri-Khedi Road.

Of the other district roads, Gondpipri-Khedi road is the longest one. Its entire length is 25.4 miles. It touches the village Akasapur and then crosses the river Andhari.

Chandrapur-Ghugus Road.

Its entire length is 11 miles only. It touches the following villages, *viz.*, Khutala, Chichala, Nagala, Mahakurla, Shengaon and Ghugus. The road is motorable only in fair weather.

FERRIES.

A considerable number of rivers and streams especially in hilly regions criss-cross the district with the result that through vehicular traffic becomes very difficult at places where bridges are yet to come up. Ferries maintained by the Zilla Parishad overcome the difficulties and facilitate the transport of goods and passengers at such places. At present there are three ferries working on Wainganga river and are all 'A' class ferries. One is known as Hardoli ghat ferry on Brahmapuri-Wadsa major district road, another is Arsoda ghat ferry on Brahmapuri-Armori, other district road, and the third one is Haran ghat ferry on Mul-Chamorshi road. The ferry on Wainganga river in mile No. 19 serves 150 passengers per day. The revenue is collected by the society which pays Rs. 12,000 per year to Government.

BRIDGES.

Many roads in this largest district of Maharashtra are rendered useless during the monsoons and the following two months due to lack of a number of major and minor bridges across the rivers and nallas. In view of the limited resources at disposal, higher priority was given to provision of major bridges and

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BRIDGES.

cross drainage works in the three Five-Year Plans. The following statement shows the achievement in this behalf :—

Bridges (1)	Expenditure incurred (Rs. in lakhs) (2)
Major bridges completed—	
(1) Erai river bridge in mile No. 92 of Nagpur-Chandrapur road ..	9·00
(2) Patala ghat bridge across Wardha river on Warora-Wani road ..	16·00
(3) Ashti ghat bridge across Wainganga river on Chandrapur-Allapalli road.	18·00
(4) Dudholi ghat bridge across Wardha river on Ballarshah-Dudholi-Rajura road.	27·00
(5) Dina river bridge in mile No. 64 of Chandrapur-Allapalli road	3·50
Minor bridges completed—	
(1) Sinoor nalla bridge in mile No. 23/1 of Mul-Gadhchiroli road ..	0·25
(2) Four bridges in mile Nos. 60/8, 77/4, 86/6, 90/4 of Nagpur-Mul-Chandrapur road.	1·80
(3) 19 cross drainage works on Allapalli-Sironcha road	3·28
(4) Pothra nalla bridge—remodelling of approaches on Jam-Warora road.	0·80

In addition the following works on construction of bridges are in progress. These works include major bridges such as (1) Wagholi ghat bridge across Wainganga river on Mul-Gadhchiroli road, and (2) over-bridge on railway at Chandrapur * near the head post office. The minor bridges include, (1) bridges in mile No. 66/1 and 90/5 of Nagpur-Mul road, (2) Walni nalla bridge in mile No. 70/8 of Nagpur-Mul road, and (3) Takli nalla bridge in mile No. 73/4 of Nagpur-Warora-Chandrapur road.

The table below gives particulars of major bridges with linear waterway of 100 feet and above in the district.

*Work on this bridge has already been completed.

TABLE

PARTICULARS OF MAJOR BRIDGES (*i.e.*, BRIDGES WITH

IN CHANDRAPUR

Sr. No.	Name of River and Bridge	Location		Mile* No.
		Name of Road	Name of town/village nearby	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Bridge on Zarapt River	Chandrapur-Allapalli-Sironcha Road.	Chandrapur ..	2/7
2	Bridge on Dina River ..	Do. ..	Laggam ..	63/3
3	Bridge on Wainganga River.	Do. ..	Ashti ..	43
4	Bridge on Netrawaghu nalla.	Do. ..	..	112/1
5	Bridge on Mota River ..	Do. ..	..	50/5
6		Do. ..	..	64/8
7		Do. ..	..	70/2
8		Do. ..	..	73/4
9		Do. ..	..	82/4
10		Do. ..	..	123/3
11		Mul-Gadhchiroli Road	..	5/5

*Mile Nos. given here may not tally with actual numbers because of re-numbering of road mileage afterwards.

No. 1

LINEAR WATERWAY OF 100′ AND ABOVE)

DISTRICT

No. of spans and length	Width of Roadway	Average height of bridge	Type of surface	Total cost	The year of construction
(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
				Rs.	
13 spans .. 287 ft.	20′-3″	6 ft.	Concrete ..	33,001	1943
17 spans .. 20 ft. each and 392 ft.	22 ft.	17 ft.	Do. ..	3,28,416	30-5-1961
40 spans .. 38 ft. each and 1,832·5 ft.	22 ft.	27·20 ft.	Do. ..	13,97,864	23-3-1963
2 spans of .. 4 ft. × 4 ft. 25 spans of 10 ft. × 6 ft. and length 300 ft.	18 ft.	6 ft.	Paved surface	..	..
4 spans of .. $2\frac{1}{2}' \times 3\frac{1}{4}'$. 3 spans of $3' \times 1\frac{1}{4}'$.	17 ft.	5 ft.	Do. ..	..	..
3 spans of .. $2' \times 2\frac{1}{2}'$	19′-6″	5 ft.	Do. ..	..	..
2 spans of .. $2\frac{1}{2}' \times 2\frac{1}{2}'$. 2 spans of $2\frac{1}{2}' \times 3'$ and length 138 ft.	..	5 ft.	Do. ..	..	..
20 spans of .. $3' \times 4'$ and length 185 ft.	18 ft.	$5\frac{1}{2}$ ft.	Do. ..	..	..
11 spans of .. $2\frac{1}{2}' \times 4'$ length 205 ft.	..	$5\frac{1}{2}$ ft.	Do. ..	..	..
7 spans of .. 20′ × 5′ length 152 ft.	18 ft.	6 ft.	Concrete ..	..	1965
8 spans of .. 20′ each and $175\frac{3}{4}$ ft. length.	20 ft.	..	Concrete ..	..	1948-49

TABLE No. 1—*cont.*

Sr. No.	Name of River and Bridge	Location		Mile No.	No. of spans and length	Width of Roadway	Average height of bridge	Type of surface	Total cost	The year of construction
		Name of Road	Name of town/village nearby							
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
									Rs.	
12	Bridge on Wardha River	Ballarshah-Dudholi-Rajura Road, S. H.	Dudholi ..	1/7	11 spans of 90 ft. each and length 1,118 ft.	22 ft.	42·15 ft.	Concrete ..	21,00,623	2-4-1966
13	..	Chandrapur-Asiphabad Road.	Sondo ..	22/4	120 ft. (Steel Bridge). ..	..	..	..	..	..
14	Bridge on Pothra Nalla ..	Nagpur-Chandrapur *via* Jam-Warora Road.	Khambada ..	52/2	8 spans of 29 ft. each and 660 ft. length. ..	13 ft.	13 ft.	Do. ..	3,13,811	1957
15	Bridge on Erai River ..	Do. ..	Chandrapur and Padholi.	92/2	9 spans— 7 spans of 47 ft. and 2 spans of 56½ ft. and length 464·5 ft. ..	22 ft.	16′-6″	Do. ..	4,77,187	16-4-1961
16	Bridge on Takali Nalla	Do. ..	Takali Village	74/4	4 spans of 20 ft. and length 125 ft. ..	22 ft.	10 ft.	Do. ..	1,67,000	1968
17	..	Do. ..	..	76/2	7 spans of 10 ft.-1 of 2½ ft. and length 198 ft. ..	19 ft.	6 ft.	Paved surface	..	..
18	Bridge on Andhari River	Chandrapur-Nagpur Road *via* Mul S. H.	..	16/2	7 spans of 16 ft. each and 125 ft. length. ..	22 ft.	6 ft.	Concrete ..	..	1938
19	Submersible Bridge on Bokarda Nalla.	Do. ..	..	69/3	7 spans of 20 ft. each and 153 ft. length. ..	20′-3″	..	*Do.* ..	..	1948
20	Arched bridge on Chikhalgaon Nalla.	Do. ..	..	75/7	6 spans of 30 ft. each and 202 ft. length. ..	19 ft.	..	Tarred ..	..	1948
21	Bridge on Wardha River	Warora-Wani Road, S. H.	Patala ..	9/4	12 spans of 55 ft. each and length 740 ft. ..	22 ft.	36 ft.	Concrete ..	1,64,000	19-11-1963

CHAPTER 7. Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

State Transport.

Nationalisation of passenger transport services in the Chandrapur district, which now forms part of the Nagpur Division of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, was started in 1953. The services were initially run by the Central Provinces Transport Services, which was subsequently purchased by the State Government in 1955 and renamed the Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur. After the reorganization of States in November 1956, the operations were looked after by a separate department under the former Government of Bombay, called the Transferred Road Transport Undertakings Department. With effect from July 1st, 1961, this department was abolished and the Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur along with the State Transport Services in the Marathwada Region, were amalgamated with the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation. The reorganized corporation was named the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation.

The operations in the Chandrapur district were first started in 1953 with three routes, *viz.*, Nagpur-Chandrapur, Wardha-Chandrapur, and Nagpur-Chimur, which were operated from the depots outside the district.

By the end of December 1964, there were 7 routes serving Chandrapur district with a total route length of 882 km. All the operations in the district are managed by depots at Nagpur and Wardha.*

All light and heavy repairs are carried out at the divisional workshop, Nagpur.

For the convenience of the travelling public in the district, the Corporation has provided a temporary bus station at Chandrapur and a bus stand with refreshment rooms at Warora. The details of the routes, number of trips operated and the number of passengers travelled per day on each route are given in the following statement :—

Route (1)	Distance in kilometres (2)	Number of single trips per day (3)	Number of persons travelled per day (4)
Nagpur-Chandrapur (*via* Umrer)	158·2	4	320
Nagpur-Chandrapur (*via* Warora)	202·0	8	996
Chandrapur-Wani	72·4	4	310
Chandrapur-Chimur	104·0	2	197
Chandrapur-Nagbhir	103·8	2	133
Chandrapur-Aheri	124·4	2	166
Chandrapur-Dhanora	118·4	2	108

*The depot at Chandrapur was started subsequently, in the year 1968.

CHAPTER 7. Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

Private Bus Operators.

The hilly and woody region of Chandrapur district and innumerable rivulets made it impossible for the State Transport to undertake operations extensively in the district. The State Transport is running its services only on few routes which cover only an insignificant area of the district. This fact gave rise to a number of private stage carriage operators.

The total number of such private operators in the district was 9 and the number of routes, on which they ran their services, was 32.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

Travel and tourist facilities in the district are provided by the concerned departments of the Government of Maharashtra, such as inspection bungalows, rest houses, etc., for the convenience of the touring Government officers and travelling public. The following is a list of inspection bungalows and rest houses in the district.

The inspection bungalows and rest houses are maintained by various departments, such as, Buildings and Communications department, Forest department, Irrigation department and also by the Zilla Parishad. Class I bungalows are situated at (1) Ballarshah, (2) Chandrapur, (3) Karwa, (4) Khadsingi, (5) Kolsa, (6) Moherli, (7) Tadoba and (8) Warora.

The Buildings and Communications department maintains Class II inspection bungalows at the following places:—

(1) Aheri, (2) Allapalli, (3) Ashti, (4) Ballarshah, (5) Bamni, (6) Chandor, (7) Chandrapur, (8) Chargaon, (9) Chimur, (10) Gadhchiroli, (11) Gewardha, (12) Kawadshi, (13) Kothari, (14) Lagam, (15) Moherli, (16) Mosam, (17) Mul, (18) Nagbhir, (19) Paradi, (20) Pauni, (21) Rajura, (22) Repanpalli, (23) Sawargaon, (24) Sindewahi, (25) Sironcha, (26) Sondoo, (27) Umanoor, (28) Wansadi, (29) Warora, and (30) Wchad.

The bungalows maintained by the Forest department are situated at:—

(1) Aikala, (2) Aksapur, (3) Allapalli, (4) Balapur, (5) Chaprala, (6) Chichpalli, (7) Chitur, (8) Elgur, (9) Elchi, (10) Haldi, (11) Jhemala, (12) Jimalgatta, (13) Kanhargaon, (14) Karwa, (15) Khadsingi, (16) Kolsa, (17) Kopela, (18) Mulchera (19) Piparheti, (20) Rajoli, (21) Somanpalli, (22) Tadoba, (23) Tembhurda, (24) Wamanpalli, (25) Venganur.

The bungalows in charge of the Irrigation department are at the following places:—

(1) Asolamendha, (2) Bahadurni, (3) Garsurh, (4) Ghorajheri, (5) Govardhan, (6) Kachepar, (7) Kapsi, (8) Khairec, (9) Kunghara, (10) Minjheri, (11) Naleshwar, (12) Saoli, (13) Yenoli.

The bungalows formerly maintained by the Janpad Sabha are now transferred to the Zilla Parishad. They are at:—

(1) Armori, (2) Brahmapuri, (3) Chatgaon, (4) Dhanora, (5) Murumgaon, (6) Porla, (7) Warsa.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

Chandrapur district is famous for its thick forest with ample wild life in it. Tourists from all over the country, as also some foreign tourists visit the forests, especially the Tadoba Wild Life Sanctuary and National Park either for sight seeing or for hunting or for other purposes such as seeing wild animals, etc. Special facilities have been provided for such tourists. Two luxurious and well-furnished bungalows have been constructed on the bank of Tadoba Lake, with all facilities. Besides, a special bus has been provided with searchlight facilities for the tourists to travel through the forests at night to see wild animals.

GOODS TRANSPORT.

The total number of goods vehicles registered under the heads public and private carriers are 163 and 67, respectively.

The freight that the goods transporters are allowed to charge is governed by following regulations—

(1) that the freight should not exceed one rupee per mile for a loaded trip plus annas 10 per mile for empty mileage involved in any journey, and

(2) that freight should not exceed 6 pies per maund per mile in case of charge by weight and distance.

Besides, they are allowed in calculating fares, for any mileage, to round the fraction of an anna to the nearest highest anna.

There is neither a union of goods transporters nor is there any union of private operators.

POST OFFICES.

The Chandrapur postal division was formed with effect from 27th February 1961. It comprises two districts, *viz.*, Chandrapur and Bhandara. However, its headquarter is located at Chandrapur. The post and telegraph offices in Chandrapur and Bhandara districts are under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Post Offices, Chandrapur Division, Chandrapur.

The head post office is situated in Chandrapur town.

In Chandrapur tahsil, there is a combined head office and public call office at Chandrapur proper. The word combined indicates the availability of the telegraph facility. In addition, there is one more combined sub-office in the city itself. At Ballarpur, both combined sub-office and public call office are located. The Ballarpur Paper Mills are provided with a sub-post office and a public call office. At Mul also a combined sub-office and a public call office are located. Gondpipri has only a combined sub-office. In addition, there are 48 branch post offices in Chandrapur tahsil.

In Warora tahsil, the tahsil headquarters, *viz.*, Warora is provided with combined sub-office and public call office. Chimur and Neri each has combined sub-office. At Bhadravati both the facilities, those of combined sub-office and public call office are available. The Chandrapur ordnance factory has a public call office. In addition there are 48 branch post offices in Warora tahsil.

POST OFFICES.

In Gadhchiroli tahsil, Gadhchiroli, Chamurshi, Armori and Desaiganj have combined sub-offices. Only Gadhchiroli and Desaiganj, in addition to the combined sub-offices, have the facility of public call office. At Dhanora both branch post office as well as the telegraph facility are available. Excluding the above stated five places there are 52 branch post offices in the tahsil.

In Brahmapuri tahsil, Brahmapuri, Nagbhir, Sindewahi, Talodhi, Balapur and Nawargaon have each a combined sub-office. In addition to the combined sub-office, Brahmapuri, Nagbhir, Sindewahi and Nawargaon have each a public call office. Over and above these, there are 43 branch post offices in the rural areas of the tahsil.

In Rajura tahsil, only the tahsil headquarters is provided with combined sub-office and public call office. There are 20 branch post offices in this tahsil.

In Sironcha tahsil, Sironcha, Allapalli and Aheri have each a combined sub-office. Sironcha has a public call office. In addition there are 20 branch post offices.

Thus from above it can be seen that Rajura and Sironcha tahsils have less postal facilities. In the district, there are 231 branch post offices, 21 combined sub-offices, 14 public call offices and one combined head post office.

The following is the tahsil-wise list of sub-post offices, combined sub-offices and branch offices in Chandrapur district:—

Name of tahsil (1)	Sub-offices (2)	Combined sub-offices (3)	Branch offices (4)
Chandrapur ..	Chandrapur	Chandrapur	(1) Sakharwahi, (2) Tadali, (3) Shengaon, (4) Manakapur, (5) Babupeth, (6) Dhanora, (7) Durgapur, (8) Marda, (9) Visapur, (10) Chichpalli, (11) Ballarpur Power Station Colony, (12) Dudholi, (13) Manora, (14) Kothari, (15) Tohgaon, (16) Sonapur Deshpande, (17) Rajoli, (18) Chikhli, (19) Vyahad Bk., (20) Saoli, (21) Chimdha, (22) Chichala, (23) Rajgadh, (24) Keljhar, (25) Pombhurna, (26) Dabgaon Makta, (27) Bhejgaon, (28) Chandapur, (29) Jibgaon, (30) Dudholi, (31) Nilsani Pethgaon, (32) Bembal, (33) Nandgaon, (34) Govardhan, (35) Nawegaon More, (36) Ganpur, (37) Borgaon, (38) Ghatkul, (39) Karanji, (40) Vithalwada, (41) Bhangaram Talodhi, (42) Dhaba, (43) Chintal Dhaba, (44) Chiroli.
	Ballarpur	Ballarpur	
	Ballarpur paper mills.	Mul ..	
	Mul	Gondpipri	

Name of tahsil (1)	Sub-offices (2)	Combined Sub-offices (3)	Branch offices (4)
Warora ..	(1) Warora	(1) Warora ..	(1) Nagrai, (2) Waghanakh, (3) Chikani, (4) Dongargaon, (5) Madheli Bk., (6) Soit, (7) Panzurni, (8) Kasarbodi, (9) Tembhurda, (10) Shegaon Bk., (11) Ashta, (12) Chandankheda, (13) Viloda, (14) Chargaon, (15) Khadsangi, (16) Sawargaon, (17) Masal Bk., (18) Kewada Mokasa (19) Palasgaon, (20) Bhisi, (21) Sathgaon, (22) Shankarpur, (23) Jambhulghat, (24) Doma, (25) Naotala, (26) Nandori, (27) Dongargaon, (28) Pirli, (29) Chora, (30) Moharli, (31) Patala, (32) Kondha, (33) Majari Colliery, (34) Pipri, (35) Kachrala, (36) Ghodpeth, (37) Barvha, (38) Sakhara Rajapur, (39) Sagara, (40) Sembal, (41) Anandwan, (42) Shegaon Kh., (43) Salori, (44) Moharli, (45) Shirpur, (46) Jamgaon Komti, (47) Bhatala.
	(2) Chimur	(2) Chimur ..	
	(3) Neri	(3) Neri ..	
	(4) Bhadravati	(4) Bhadravati	
Gadhchiroli ..	(1) Gadhchiroli.	(1) Gadhchiroli.	(1) Koregaon, (2) Kural, (3) Kokadi, (4) Wasala, (5) Wairagad, (6) Delanwadi, (7) Bhakrandi, (8) Waghala, (9) Moushi Khamb, (10) Kurkheda, (11) Purada, (12) Malewada, (13) Rangi, (14) Mohali, (15) Dhanora, (16) Mendhatola, (17) Pendhari, (18) Porla, (19) Sakara, (20) Amirza, (21) Gilgaon, (22) Ambeshioni, (23) Yeoli, (24) Potegaon, (25) Bhendala, (26) Gilagaon, (27) Talodhi Mokasa, (28) Kunghada Rayatwari, (29) Amgaon, (30) Konsari, (31) Ghot, (32) Ankhoda, (33) Lagam, (34) Desaiganj, (35) Gewardha, (36) Sonsari, (37) Angara, (38) Deloda Bk., (39) Gogaon, (40) Badali Tukum, (41) Gurwala, (42) Karwafa, (43) Murumgaon, (44) Lakhamapur *alias* Bori, (45) Regadi, (46) Bori, (47) Markanda, (48) Ashti, (49) Deulgaon, (50) Visora.
	(2) Chamurshi	(2) Chamurshi	
Brahmapuri ..	(1) Brahmapuri.	(1) Brahmapuri.	(1) Mohali Mokasa, (2) Kotgaon, (3) Mindala, (4) Nawegaon Pandav, (5) Kirmiti Mendha, (6) Mousi, (7) Nanhori, (8) Arher-Nawargaon, (9) Pimpalgaon, (10) Chougan, (11) Wadhona, (12) Girgaon, (13) Ratnapur, (14) Palasgaon Jat, (15) Gadbori, (16) Moholi, (17) Mendaki, (18) Gangalwadi, (19) Awalgaon, (20) Nifandra,
	(2) Nagbhir	(2) Nagbhir	
	(3) Sindewahi	(3) Sindewahi	
	(4) Talodhi	(4) Talodhi	
	(5) Nawargaon	(5) Nawargaon	

Name of tahsil (1)	Sub-offices (2)	Combined Sub-offices (3)	Branch offices (4)
Brahmapuri —*cont.*			(21) Palebarsa, (22) Pathari, (23) Bothali, (24) Kanpa, (25) Paharani, (26) Vilam, (27) Nardoli, (28) Pardi, (29) Halda, (30) Mudza, (31) Gunjewahi, (32) Antargaon, (33) Vihirgaon, (34) Geora Bk., (35) Govindapur, (36) Balapur, (37) Kanhalgaon Sonuli, (38) Sawargaon, (39) Alewahi, (40) Seoni, (41) Sindewahi Training Centre, (42) Petgaon, (43) Nimgaon.
Rajura ..	(1) Rajura ..	(1) Rajura ..	(1) Korpana, (2) Kodsi Bk., (3) Seraj Bk., (4) Antargaon Bk., (5) Bhoyegaon, (6) Nandgaon, (7) Bakhardi, (8) Nanda, (9) Chandur, (10) Dewada, (11) Charli, (12) Gowri, (13) Pandhar Pouni, (14) Warur, (15) Vihirgaon, (16) Wirur, (17) Chincholi Bk., (18) Sasti, (19) Chunala.
	(2) Manikgadh	(2) Manikgadh	
Sironcha ..	(1) Sironcha	(1) Sironcha	(1) Jarawandi, (2) Kasansur, (3) Halewara, (4) Ghotsur, (5) Yetapalli, (6) Elgur, (7) Indaram, (8) Dewalmarri, (9) Regunta Malgujari, (10) Ankisa, (11) Asaralli, (12) Janampalli Waste Land, (13) Dechali, (14) Muyaboinapeta, (15) Kamalapur, (16) Rajagaon, (17) Kandali, (18) Bhamaragad, (19) Perimili.

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS.

Realising the importance of the radio as a medium of communication, the Government of Maharashtra introduced the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme in this district also. Under this scheme the Directorate of Publicity provides radio sets to rural institutions like grampanchayats, public libraries and municipalities. The Directorate not only installs the sets but also provides for their maintenance and servicing. Dry batteries are provided to the battery radio sets.

The community radio sets are meant exclusively for the use of the public and the parties concerned are required to tune radio programmes relayed from the All India Radio, and especially the programmes for the villagers and workers.

For the installation of a community radio set the parties concerned are required to contribute Rs. 150 for an electric set and Rs. 170 for a battery set. In addition, they have to contribute Rs. 60 for maintenance which is inclusive of provision for battery and radio licence fee.

CHAPTER 7. Communications.

RADIO LICENCES.

The radio licences issued during the year 1966 (1-1-1966 to 31-12-1966) were as follows :—

(1) Domestic broadcast receiving licences. 1,428.

(2) Commercial broadcast receiving licences 31.

(3) Concessional broadcast receiving licences 35.

(4) Demonstration broadcast receiving licences 2.

(5) Possession broadcast receiving licences 3.

CHAPTER 8—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

THE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IN THE DISTRICT COVERS VARIOUS IMPORTANT ASPECTS such as agriculture, industry, banking, commerce, trade and transport, etc., which do not exhaust all its branches. These have been dealt with in the foregoing chapters. However, some occupations coming under the category of miscellaneous occupations and which have a bearing on the economy of the district are not covered by them. Though it is not possible to discuss all such occupations in detail, in this chapter it is proposed to describe a few of them. However, those occupations which hardly contribute anything to the district economy except supporting a few families have not been incorporated in this chapter.

A few of these occupations have sprung up recently and a few have changed form with the passage of time. The occupations such as flour milling, bicycle repairing which have technical bias were non-existent in the past. The grinding wheel has been replaced by a flour mill. With the passage of time the change is witnessed in the form of such occupations as hair cutting, laundering, etc. The saloons were unknown and the barber, a *balutedar* moving from house to house, was a common sight. Similarly, the washermen used to collect clothes and work in their own primitive manner.

With a view to obtaining a broad picture of such occupations in the district, a sample survey was conducted at Chandrapur, Bhandak, Ballarshah, Warora, Brahmapuri, Nagbhir, Wadsa and Bhadravati. These occupations were hotels and restaurants, tailoring, pan-bidi shops, hair cutting, laundering, bicycle repairing, frame making, flour mills and basket making. The data collected pertained to the salient features of these occupations such as accessories, tools and equipment, capital requirements, production, marketing, finance, income, pattern of expenditure, etc. The details that follow regarding these occupations are mainly based on the findings of the survey.

The following table gives the number of persons employed in different occupations in Chandrapur district in 1961.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

TABLE No. 1

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS IN THE YEAR 1961 (CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT).

—	Total	Men	Women
Manufacturing of beverages	98	97	1
Production of bread, biscuits, cake and other bakery products.	13	13	..
Production of rice, *atta*, flour, etc., by milling, dehusking and processing of crops and food-grains.	1,408	1,033	375
Production of sweet-meat and condiments, muri, murhi, chira, khoi, cocoa, chocolate, toffee, lozenze.	776	554	222
Making of textile garments including rain-coats and headgear.	3,466	3,036	430
Manufacture of shoes and other leather foot-wear	2,401	2,221	180
Public service in Police	946	942	4
Public service in administrative departments and offices of Central Government.	181	178	3
Public service in administrative departments and offices of quasi-Government organisations, municipalities, local boards, etc.	882	771	111
Public service in administrative departments and offices of State Government.	4,054	3,944	110
Religious and allied services rendered by pandit, priest, preceptor, fakir, monk.	402	361	41
Legal services rendered by barrister, advocate, solicitor, mukteer, pleader, mukurie, munshi.	110	109	1
Recreation services rendered by cinema houses by exhibition of motion pictures.	89	87	2
Services rendered to households such as those by domestic servants, cooks.	1,497	742	755
Services rendered by hotels, boarding houses, eating houses, cafes, restaurants and similar other organisations to provide lodging and boarding facilities.	983	920	63
Laundry services	2,190	1,135	1,055
Hair dressing	1,887	1,886	1

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

During the early decades of this century hotels and restaurants were almost non-existent in the district excepting a very few at Chandrapur. It is only recently that the hotelling business has flourished. As per the 1961 Census 983 persons including 920 men and 63 women were employed in services rendered by hotels, boarding houses, eating houses, cafes, restaurants and similar other organisations to provide lodging and boarding facilities. Now every big village in the district has a tea shop. The growth in the catering business could mainly be attributed to the changing socio-economic conditions such as industrialisation, break-up of the joint family system, migration of population from rural to urban areas, etc.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

The establishments coming under this category differed in size. A few, mostly in rural areas, served only tea and were a one man establishments while a few others of a considerable size had a large clientele. These establishments generally served snacks besides meals to the customers. Many of them in the district headquarters were owned and managed by Udipis and Punjabis. Besides, there were other hotels controlled and owned by Rajasthanis and Maharashtrians.

The business in most of the cases was not hereditary and was run on a proprietary basis. The establishments rarely approached a bank for their capital requirements, their main source of finance being relatives and friends and at times indigenous money-lenders. The rate of interest in the case of the former was found to be appreciably low.

Some of these restaurants served tea exclusively while some combined other beverages with tea. A few of them also served eatables. Some even served meals either on full plate or on rice plate system. These shops were generally located near the motor stand, the railway station, the market place as they provided them with a good clientele, the places being most frequented. The urban establishments which generally gave an agreeable appearance served a variety of eatables. Many establishments also served milk products. The furniture of such establishments consisted of chairs, tables and cupboards, mirrors, etc.

The materials required for the occupation comprised rice, wheat, gram flour, *rava* (semolina), *vanaspati*, edible oils, condiments and spices, vegetables such as tomatoes, onions, potatoes, chillis, tea leaf and dust, sugar, milk, coffee and a number of such articles besides fuel. The extent of consumption of these articles was commensurate with the size of the establishment and the volume of turnover. The expenditure incurred on these items by big establishments in urban areas was Rs. 1,500 per year as compared to similar establishments in rural areas in case of which it was Rs. 600 per year.

The use of benches as furniture was a very common sight in a rural hotel. In urban hotels, their place was taken by chairs and tables. Generally decorative mirrors were seen hung or fitted in some shops that were well established in business. Some of them were well equipped even with radio-sets placed generally very close to the counter and blaring cine-music for most of the time. However the furniture was of a simple design

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

and not kept in proper repair. Utensils to prepare, store and serve the stuff fresh and dry, and cheap crockery were barely enough to meet the requirements. Costly crockery and furniture were a rare sight. The amount locked up in tools and equipment varied from a few hundred rupees in case of small hotels in rural areas to about two thousands in case of the urban areas.

The capital requirements of the establishments were for fixed and working capital. Fixed capital was invested in tools and equipment and in a few cases in the hotel premises owned by the proprietors. Working capital represented the money spent towards the purchase of raw materials and buying of accessories and towards meeting the expenditure of a recurring nature including wages. The amount locked up in fixed capital was fairly limited as tools and equipment were of ordinary quality purchased with a view to keeping the business going. The dishes provided were of a cheap and common variety. Many of these establishments had a limited turnover requiring limited working capital.

Many a time, an establishment was a one man show the same person preparing and serving as also keeping accounts. This was especially so in the rural areas. Some hotels had to employ cooks and waiters to serve the customers and boys to clean tables, wash utensils, crockery, floors, etc. The number of employees in such establishment varied with its size. A cook was generally paid more, his job being a skilled one. The cook in a medium hotel in the urban areas was paid about Rs. 50 per month as against Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 paid to other workers. Besides the emoluments, the workers were given snacks and tea twice or thrice a day. In many hotels they were served with meals also. They had no guarantee of continuity of employment as also no fixed hours of work. In most of the places they had to sweat since early hours of the morning till late at night.

The menus in most of these restaurants were limited to snacks and hot and cold drinks. Those situated near a motor stand or a bazar or a cinema house could afford to serve various types of dishes on account of good clientele. Many people in the urban areas took food in hotels and this gave an assured demand to those hotels which served food. However, in case of establishments in a small village or located by the roadside the conditions were not encouraging because of the limited clientele.

The income of these establishments depended upon the total turnover as in the case of other occupations. The business was brisk during fairs or bazar days etc., while it slackened during the rainy season. The maximum and minimum net income of big establishments was found to vary between Rs. 400 and Rs. 1,000 per month. The same for the medium hotels and restaurants was placed at between Rs. 300 and Rs. 400 per month. It was found to be below Rs. 200 in case of small establishments.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

The main items of expenditure for these establishments were raw materials, wages and miscellaneous items including rent. The average expenditure of big hotels in the district on raw materials was placed at Rs. 600 per month, on wages Rs. 200 per month and on miscellaneous items inclusive of rent, Rs. 125 per month giving a total of Rs. 925 per month. The figures of expenditure on the same items in respect of medium and small establishments were placed at Rs. 350, Rs. 150, Rs. 90 giving a total of Rs. 590 and Rs. 250, Rs. 120 and Rs. 60 giving a total of Rs. 430, respectively.

Thus it could be said that the establishments get a good margin of profit. However, they were not properly managed and did not reach the modern standards of decency and cleanliness. With a gradual improvement in the economic conditions of the district, the occupation is sure to make a headway in the years to come.

TAILORING.

Tailoring is an old occupation and a tailor is an indispensable unit of society. Though independent tailoring shops may not be found in all the villages of the district, a group of two or three small villages do have a tailor. A few of the tailors add to their income by selling ready-made clothes while some supplement the same by taking to agriculture. However, a majority of them have to depend upon their main profession for their livelihood. Most of the tailors in the rural areas do not possess the skill of their urban counterparts and are content to stitch ordinary apparel like bodices, *pyjamas*, etc. They, however, lead a precarious life due to their meagre earnings. On the other hand the position is different in urban areas. With changing fashions and changes in modes of dress, tailors in the urban areas have come to acquire an important position in the social framework. They are generally skilled in stitching shirts, pants, etc., among other garments including ladies' wear. Many a time, they have specialised in stitching clothes of men, women or children.

Figures in table No. I show that the occupation attracts a good number of persons. With increasing demand for skilled tailoring services the income of the tailors, at least in the urban areas, has gone up. However, tailors have to adapt themselves to the changing circumstances and to learn new fashions. The tailoring shops were found to be situated mostly in busy and populated localities where they could attract good business.

The accessories that are mainly required for the occupation include thread, buttons, needles, canvas cloth, marking pencils, etc. The cost of accessories varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 50 depending upon the business on hand. Generally these accessories are obtained from the local market.

A sewing machine, a pair of scissors, a stool or a chair, low board (big *pat*) and a measuring tape are the important items of tools and equipment of a tailoring shop. A small tailoring shop

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

TAILORING.

generally had only one sewing machine. The medium sized tailoring shops have more than one sewing machines besides a cupboard to keep stitched clothes. There are no big shops anywhere in the district. The medium shops had one table for cutting cloth, one or two cupboards for keeping stitched clothes and cloth and a bench or a chair or a stool for customers to sit. Of the tools and equipment a sewing machine costs between Rs. 300 and Rs. 700. The tailors sometimes purchased the machine on instalment basis or got it on hire-purchase. The pair of scissors and a measuring tape cost about Rs. 10.

Generally in rural areas the tailor works single handed and does the job of cutting and stitching. He goes from house to house and collects orders and cloth, stitches the clothes accordingly and delivers the stitched clothes to the customers. However the position in this respect is different in urban areas. In urban areas the customers go to the tailors' shops, place their orders and collect the stitched clothes from them on a fixed date of delivery. In a small shop it is the tailor who carries out all the work himself. In medium and big establishments, however, the job of cutting which requires skill, as they generally cater to a special type of the clientele, the proprietor himself undertakes this principal job and leaves the rest to other skilled and semi-skilled paid workers. The servants are generally paid on piece rate basis and in rare cases on salary basis. During the brisk season, that is from October to May, the tailors in these establishments have to work throughout the day. The servants in these shops are paid each about Rs. 75 per month. In rural areas the tailor hardly gets about Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 per month.

Shirts, pants, trousers, bush-shirts, waist-coats, blouses and bodice are the usual items of stitching. The stitching charges differ from item to item and from tailor to tailor depending upon the personal skill and ability of the tailor.

The output of work of a tailor depends upon the situation of a shop, whether in a central place or otherwise and his personal ability to satisfy the customers. In villages, normally, the tailors' output of work is comparatively small, going up, however, during festivals, fairs, holidays and marriage season. The tailor on such occasions earns anywhere between Rs. 4 and Rs. 6 per day. In the urban areas his earnings range between Rs. 8 and Rs. 10 per day. Adjusting his expenditure to the gross income the tailor is generally left with a net income of about Rs. 100 per month. Sometimes a tailor in urban areas was found to add to his income by allotting a small portion of his business establishment for the sale of cloth to his customers.

PAN-BIDI SHOPS.

The habit of chewing pan is common in this district as in other districts. Pan which was chewed in the past due to its medicinal gains is chewed today more out of fashion than anything else and even women and children are found to enjoy the delicacy of it.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

PAN-BIDI SHOPS.

Pan-bidi shops have now become a common sight even in rural parts of the district. In urban areas these shops are generally located near hotels and restaurants, cinema houses, railway stations, bus stations, bazars, etc. They are also seen at all the important street corners. These shops sell prepared pans, bidis, cigarettes, match-boxes, etc. Some of them even sell articles of daily use such as *agarbatti*, soap, tooth paste and powder and some patent medicines like Aspro and Anacin. Shops selling loose betel-leaves, betel-nuts, tobacco, i.e., ingredients of pan besides other things, are also not rare.

Betel-leaves, betel-nuts, tobacco leaves and powder, lime, catechu, cloves, cardamom, copra, sweet fennel, etc., are the main items required for making pan. The extent of sale of these articles depends upon the size of the shop. The average expenditure of a shop on these articles comes to Rs. 10 per day in case of big shops and Rs. 3 per day in case of small ones. Generally all these shops are managed by the owners themselves, only a shop or two employing a servant.

The equipment of these shops comprises a shelf or two besides a few brass or stainless steel vessels to keep different items such as catechu, *chuna* (lime), etc., a big plate to keep betel-leaves and a bucket to store water to be sprinkled on betel-leaves to keep them fresh, a pair of scissors and a nut cracker. Many a time mirrors are also fixed in a shop as also a few picture frames as items of decoration. A few shops have radio sets. The daily turnover of these shops depends upon the location as well as the quality of the material served. Generally it ranges between Rs. 6 and Rs. 15 per day. This gives the shops a net income of between Rs. 90 and Rs. 170 per month. The business is brisk during festivals, fairs, etc.

HAIR-CUTTING.

Like the tailor, the barber is an indispensable unit of society and occupies a safe place in spite of the gradually increasing mechanisation in every field of social life. In the past the position of a rural barber was very distinct as compared to his urban counterpart but today barring a few exceptions only a marginal distinction can be drawn between the two. In a few villages the barber is still a *balutedar* where he moves from house to house or opens up his improvised shop near about the village *chawdi*. Such sights are, however, uncommon and even in villages a miniature saloon in a tin-shed could easily be located.

In cities and towns although a few of the barbers move from house to house, a number of them either set up their shops or are employed in hair-cutting saloons. In the survey it was found that most of the establishments were both owned and managed by the owners themselves and it was their principal means of livelihood. Excepting in case of those who have taken up the profession anew, the occupation was a hereditary one.

Aesthetic sense was conspicuous by its absence in the arrangement of these establishments irrespective of the fact that a few

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. HAIR-CUTTING.

were equipped with a sufficient number of tools, mirrored walls, chairs with fans and radio sets in few cases.

As could be seen from table No. 1, according to the Census of 1961 a total of 1,887 persons including one woman was engaged in the occupation.

The minimum tools and equipment required to start the occupation consist of a pair of scissors, one or two razors and a pair of cropping machines. The tools and equipment of an itinerant barber cost between Rs. 100 and Rs. 150. In urban hair-cutting saloons, the equipment consists of cushioned chairs, mirrors, fans, etc. The tools used are also of better quality. The cost of tools and equipment which depends upon the size of an establishment varies between Rs. 300 and Rs. 500. In urban areas the owners try to give the shop a good appearance by providing it with picture frames, tube lights, radio set, etc.

Besides the fixed capital invested in the shop and the purchase of tools and equipment, the working capital consists of the amount required for the maintenance of tools and equipment, for buying accessories and for paying the wages of the employees, if any. The capital is generally raised from ones own resources or is borrowed from friends and relatives. Generally these shops spend about Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 on rawmaterials per month.

The accessories of a village barber consist of a shaving soap and water and a razor. He barely needs cosmetics. The accessories of those in towns and cities comprise better tools such as cropping machines, a good mirror in a few cases and cosmetics such as snow, a quality soap, face powder and hair oil. The expenditure of the itinerant barbers does not go beyond Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 during a month. Many of the establishments in urban areas nowadays use some disinfectants like dettol, etc. The expenditure in the case of urban establishments varies between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 depending upon the business and size of an establishment. Almost all the accessories are purchased in the local market.

Though these shops are open throughout the day they are more busy during morning hours. The itinerant barber starts his work early in the morning and works till about mid-day. His income varies between Rs. 30 and Rs. 60 per month. In the case of hair-cutting saloons in urban areas the charges are generally fixed by the union. In these saloons, where a *karagir* or a skilled worker is employed, he is generally paid on piece rate basis and his earnings come to about Rs. 75 per month. Of the nine shops surveyed only one was found to be employing a paid employee. The owners of these saloons had an income of between Rs. 80 and Rs. 200 depending upon the size of the establishment, location, etc.

In rural areas a few of the barbers were found to possess a small agricultural holding. This provided them with a small supplementary income. In many cases the women folk of the

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. LAUNDERING.

family were found to be working on daily wages as farm workers to augment their meagre income.

The establishments coming under this category can be classified into two distinct groups, *viz.*, dhobis and laundry shops. Dhobis generally move from house to house, collect the clothes, wash and iron them and then deliver them back to the customers. In the case of laundry shops, however, the customers themselves go to the shops, give the clothes for washing or ironing or both and collect the same from the shops on a specified date. However, establishments of this type are found only in towns like Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri, Wadsa, Ballarshah, etc. The third kind of shops rarely witnessed in the district do not undertake washing of clothes but they just do the job of ironing. The establishments coming under the second group also undertake the work of dry-cleaning, dyeing and darning.

The dhobis who collect the clothes moving from house to house go to the river or stream or a well and wash the clothes, iron them and deliver them to the customers, the whole process taking about six days because the boiling of clothes in water known as "*bhatti lavane*" takes place only once in a week in the case of most of the establishments. Naturally almost all the members of a family work and hardly any outside labour is employed. A small portion of dhobi's tenement is utilised for this purpose. The main articles required for washing clothes are soap, washing soda, bleaching powder, tinopal, and indigo whereas charcoal and fuel are required for ironing and steaming clothes. A table for ironing clothes and a rack for keeping them are the only items of furniture. Generally an establishment maintains about two to three irons worked on coal and the whole equipment of a dhobi costs about Rs. 200. While men undertake the work of collecting clothes from customers and ironing them, women help in washing and children do petty jobs like drying clothes. The dhobis are paid about Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 for 100 clothes and their earnings amount to Rs. 70 to Rs. 120 per month.

Laundry shops in urban areas try to maintain a good appearance. Generally they do not wash the clothes but they employ dhobis for the purpose either on a monthly basis or on a contract basis. They do the ironing in the shops and deliver the clothes to the customers. Clothes are also separately allotted for ironing.

The equipment of these shops consists of glass cupboards, chairs, and tables for ironing. The expenses on tools and equipment vary between Rs. 500 and Rs. 800. They generally pay dhobis at the rate of Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 per 100 clothes and Rs. 8 for ironing. Generally ironing is done in the shops by the employees who are paid about Rs. 60 per month. Rent for the premises also constitutes an item of expenditure amounting to between Rs. 20 and Rs. 50 per month depending upon the size, the location and the turnover of the shop.

Some of the laundries provide for special washing and urgent delivery for which they charge double their usual rates.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

The total monthly turnover of the laundries varies between Rs. 250 and Rs. 500, their monthly income varying between Rs. 150 and Rs. 300.

CYCLE-REPAIRING.

The use of cycles could be traced to the early forties of this century and today the bicycle has become the vehicle of a common man. It can be seen even in the remote villages. It is a ready and a convenient means of transport and does not need much capital or recurring expenditure.

An increase in the use of bicycles has brought about a number of cycle-repairing shops both in the urban and the rural areas of the district. Besides repairing cycles, these shops sell spareparts of cycles. At times they also sell cycles and do the business of giving cycles on hire for which they generally keep four to five cycles.

The fixed capital is invested in the purchase of bicycles and spareparts and other tools and equipment. The tools and equipment of a cycle-repairing shop consist of spanners of various sizes, nuts, screws, cycle pumps, articles required to remove puncture, etc. One or two benches, a table and a petromax are also found in almost every cycle-repairing shop.

The cost of tools and equipment in case of all the shops surveyed varied between Rs. 600 and Rs. 1,000. Generally the shops were managed by the owners with the aid of family members. However, in two of the shops, three outside labourers were employed and they were paid Rs. 200 in aggregate by way of wages. Their fixed capital investment ranged to about Rs. 750 for a small shop and Rs. 4,500 for a big shop. The fixed or working capital in the case of all the shops was provided by the owners and was not borrowed.

Almost all the shops were located in rented premises and their rental charges ranged between Rs. 10 and Rs. 50 per month. The shops were generally found near the bazar or the motor-stand.

The net income of an average cycle shop varied between Rs. 100 and Rs. 250 per month. These shops generally charged Re. 0.15 per hour for hiring a bicycle, Re. 0.15 for removing puncture and Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 for overhauling. During the rainy season when the commercial activities subside and agricultural activities begin the business of these shops showed a decline. During the rest of the year the shops were kept thoroughly busy. Generally, a cycle-repairing shop also undertakes repairing of stoves, petromaxes, etc.

FRAME-MAKING.

A few shops of photo-frame makers are found in Chandrapur and Ballarshah towns. They are generally found in a busy locality, requiring a small accommodation and managed by the proprietor. The tools and equipment required for the occupation consist of a small hammer, nails, a pair of scissors, etc. Plywood sheets, glass sheets, pictures, etc., comprise the raw materials. The raw materials are obtained from the local market.

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It requires a small capital investment of about Rs. 60. The working capital depended upon the business undertaken and besides, included rental charges which did not go beyond Rs. 12 per month. Their average net income was about Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 per month.

FRAME-MAKING.

The frame makers were not found to be relying upon the technique and methods of decor used by their counterparts in big cities and towns. Though the prospects for the occupation could not be rated as very bright the changing outlook of the people even in a district like Chandrapur offers considerable scope for the development of this business.

FLOUR-MILLING.

The occupation is of a recent origin and though not as diversified as in urban areas has made inroads into the distant parts of the district. Grinding of grain by women with grinding wheels in their own houses at day-break was a common sight till very recently. This has become very rare today and in most cases grinding of grains is done in the flour mills which have become a common feature of urban and rural life. The flour mills are operated on oil engines in rural areas and on electric power in towns, provided the latter is available. In rural areas two or three villages have a flour mill in common. The flour mills are mostly located in busy localities or near the market places. The machinery of a flour mill consists of electric motors, or oil engines and grinders. It costs between Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 3,500 approximately. A flour mill needs a number of small tools for repairs. They include wrenches, hammers, files, jacks and so on and cost about Rs. 20 to Rs. 25. The repairing charges for sharpening the grinders, etc., per year come to between Rs. 200 and Rs. 400. The capital required for the occupation was mostly raised by the proprietors from their own resources.

Almost all the establishments are housed in rented premises, the rent varying between Rs. 20 and Rs. 40 per month. The charges for the use of power depend upon the size of the establishment and the turnover of business. Generally the establishments are managed by the owners with the aid of family members. In a few cases the establishment engaged a salaried employee who was paid about Rs. 50 per month. The average income of these flour mills varies between Rs. 150 and Rs. 250 per month.

Their business is more or less steady throughout the year. However, it is brisk during holidays such as *diwali, holi,* etc., on market days and during the marriage season.

In conclusion it may be said that though the flour mills offered a boon in disguise to the housewives, it necessarily deprived the women-folk of an essential exercise.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. GOLDSMITHY.

Goldsmiths are found in almost all the villages and towns. They prepare silver and gold ornaments. In rural areas the goldsmiths once served as *balutedars*. However, that system is not in vogue any more.

The tools of a goldsmith consist of an anvil, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots, crucibles, moulds and nails for ornamental work, drilling machine, cupboards, etc. The cost of these tools varies between Rs. 400 and Rs. 500.

The old District Gazetteer of Chanda published in 1909 has the following to say about the condition of goldsmiths at that time.

'Chandrapur city contains some forty families of gold and silversmiths, but there is really very little to say about the local industry, which only receives a few cursory notices in Mr. Nunn's monograph on the gold and silver ware of the Central Provinces. The people regard ornaments primarily in the light of a portable savings bank and do not care to pay for artistic workmanship when the ultimate destination of their jewels may not improbably be the melting pot. The work of Telugu craftsmen does however make some pretensions to artistic merit, and in grace and lightness far surpasses that of the ordinary *sonar* of the Central Provinces. Head ornaments, called *rakhris*, made with a base of gold and a top of silver and fitted up with lac in the centre, are popular among both Telugus and Marathas. It would be impossible to enumerate the countless varieties of other ornaments. Most of the gold and silversmiths are compelled to eke out their living by also working in baser metals : not to be reduced to this necessity gives a certain social distinction: the *Sonar's* position as a pawn-broker also, as is well-known, gives him an opportunity of making money in various ways which will not bear too close a scrutiny and often brings him into contact with the police. Sonars, Panchals and Kamsaliwars are the castes occupied in the gold and silver craft of this District: the last named are a Telugu caste who ape Brahmanical customs and are anxious to be called Vishwa Brahmans. Some local ware was sent to the Delhi Exhibition'.

Goldsmiths in rural areas can rarely prepare thin, fine and skilled articles as the accent is more on savings in the form of the yellow metal. Their business is brisk during the marriage season, fairs and festivals. The ornaments generally prepared by them consist of a necklace, bangles, ear-rings, ring, etc. *Sunanda har, bakul har, lappha*, etc., are more in vogue today.

However, the goldsmiths have lost much of their business due to the Gold Control Order issued recently by the Government of India. Many of them have been thrown out of employment. The Government have extended all possible help in establishing them in other avenues of employment.

Prior to the issue of the Gold Control Order, the goldsmiths in rural areas used to earn between Rs. 100 and Rs. 125 per month, depending upon the orders received from the customers which

in themselves depended upon his skill as well as honesty judged by the people. The raw material required by goldsmiths included gold, silver and copper and these were generally locally obtained.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations. GOLDSMITHY.

The goldsmiths in urban areas used to get work from the sarafs. The goldsmiths were paid either on daily wages or on piece-rate basis. Their monthly earnings were placed between Rs. 150 and Rs. 200. Even before the issue of the Gold Control Order, the prohibitive cost of the yellow metal coupled with the rising cost of living had reduced orders for ornaments placed with them to a considerable extent.

MEDICAL PROFESSION.

With growing health consciousness among the people as a result of Western education, the medical profession has grown in status and the earnings of medical practitioners have gone up considerably. This is also due to the low proportion of doctors to the entire population of the district which is placed at one doctor for 24,761 persons. The number of doctors in the district rose from 23 in 1950 to 27 in 1956 and to 50 in 1961. However, people take advantage of the medical and public health facilities provided by the Government, the Zilla Parishad, and the municipalities and other social service organisations. The medical profession includes besides practitioners, compounders, nurses, midwives, etc.

LEGAL PROFESSION.

Advocates are found only at tahsil places and the district place. On an average people in this profession earn a good income and live comfortably. They are also found to participate in or lead social organizations. There are 110 legal practitioners in the district as per the 1961 Census. Their earnings range between Rs. 200 and Rs. 600 per month. Litigation due to recent land legislation keeps most of the lawyers busy especially those who have specialised on the civil side. The lawyers are assisted by clerks, petition-writers, assistants etc.

PUBLIC, EDUCATIONAL AND RELIGIOUS SERVICES.

As per the Census of 1961, the number of State Government employees including those now working under the Zilla Parishad is 5,000. The number of persons including teaching staff in technical schools and colleges is 103 and that in other schools and colleges 4,287. The number of persons grouped under 'religious and allied services rendered by pandit, priest, preceptor, fakir, monk' stood at 402 of whom 264 were from rural areas and 138 from urban areas.

The Census of Government employees was taken in the district in the year 1961. Accordingly Government employees in the district were 5,860 in number. The percentages of persons employed, in class I, II, III and IV were 0.19, 2.01, 83.62 and 14.18, respectively. Out of the total employees in the district, the percentage of 52.37 is among the pay range of Rs. 75 to Rs. 100 but the percentage of the total emoluments paid to the employees under this category, works out to 37.63 per cent which is higher than all the pay ranges.

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

The 1961 Census puts the number of domestic servants at 1,497 with a ratio of one for 827 souls.

The domestic servants in the urban areas could be classified into two distinct groups *viz.*, full time servants who have to do every kind of work and those who are employed for performing certain specific jobs such as washing of clothes and cleaning of utensils. Those employed as full time servants are paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 individually besides meals, clothing and lodging. Their wages generally depend upon the class of family they serve, as also upon the number of people in the family. Those who are employed for specific jobs serve a number of families. They also earn about Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 per month depending upon the number of families that they serve.

BAKERIES.

The occupation is not new to this district. Its origin can be traced to the advent of the British regime in the country when the bakeries were started mostly to cater to the needs of the European officers in the civil and military services. The old District Gazetteer of Chanda district has to say the following about it. "Two bakeries which purvey European bread have recently been opened in the town but are patronised solely by Musalmans".

In Chandrapur district where rice is the staple food of the people, the business of bakery could not thrive much in the past. However, with the passage of time and with the changing food habits of the people coupled with the establishment of the refugee camp at Chandrapur, the occupation flourished and many bakeries were established. There are at present 31 bakeries in the district. Their main products are bread, butter, cakes, biscuits and buns. The raw materials mainly consist of items such as sugar, *maida* (wheat flour), hydrogenated oil, etc., which are very costly and controlled and hence there is little scope for expansion of the occupation at present. The equipment consists of metal sheets, moulds, iron rods, vessels and big plates, etc. The process of manufacturing bread is not complicated. Wheat flour is mixed with water and thus dough is prepared, a ferment is added to the dough and then the dough is kept in a warm place to ferment. After a few hours the dough apportioned in suitable sizes is kept in moulds in an oven and baked and thus bread is prepared. As per the 1961 Census, only 13 persons (all males) are reported working under the head 'Production of bread, biscuits, cake and other bakery products'.

LODGING AND BOARDING.

The development of lodging and boarding business has come about with the changes in the socio-economic structure which have taken place in recent times. The main factors responsible are the break-up of the joint family system, the changing food habits and the gradually expanding scope of trade and industry which has made it necessary for people to move about from place to place. The business is lucrative at the educational centres, pilgrim centres, tourist centres, places of commercial

CHAPTER 8. Miscellaneous Occupations.

LODGING AND BOARDING.

importance and district places. Many a time lodging and boarding houses have separate establishments but they are generally situated closely. The lodging and boarding houses are generally situated nearabout prominent places such as bus-stands, railway stations, markets, etc. Almost all the lodging and boarding houses surveyed are run on proprietary basis and are not hereditary in character.

Boarding houses provide food to the customers while lodging houses provide the customers with a place to stay at. Both these services are combined in the case of most of the establishments.

The accessories of a boarding house consist of food-grains, condiments and spices, groundnut oil, vegetable oil and vegetables. In the establishments where non-vegetarian food is served, mutton, fish and eggs are the accessories or raw materials. The consumption of raw materials by every establishment depends upon the clientele that it is able to procure. In the case of lodging houses, many a time they serve the customers with hot water for bath and tea and such other beverages even though they may not provide boarding facilities. In their case the accessories include sugar, milk and other beverages.

The equipment of a boarding house comprises small dining tables, some chairs and benches, dishes, boards and pots of different sizes, utensils for cooking, serving and storing, etc. The equipment of a lodging house consists of a few cots — iron or wooden, few mattresses, pillows, bed-sheets, etc. Due to the small clientele that they get they find it very difficult to provide other amenities such as radio sets, telephone, etc. Most of the lodging and boarding establishments in the district are either medium or small and their investment ranges between Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,000.

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Besides the occupations described above there are many more which provide employment to a considerable number of people. However, they are too small to be dealt with separately. They comprise fruit vendors, vegetable vendors, astrologers, newspaper sellers, grain parchers, makers of mattresses and pillows, etc.

FRUIT AND VEGETABLE VENDORS.

Fruit and vegetable vendors generally do their business in the *mandai*, the local market place. Fruit vendors are many a time found near the Government and other hospitals in towns. They bring fruits and vegetables from the nearby villages and sell them in the market. A few of them with big business also import some fruits from other places. The earnings of these vendors vary from Rs. 50 to Rs. 80 per month. Some of them supplement their earnings by working in farms and in the households.

NEWSPAPER SELLERS.

Newspaper agents generally sell all sorts of magazines and other periodical publications besides newspapers. The distribution of newspapers is done by boys appointed for the purpose who are given a small commission. The earnings of these boys range between Rs. 15 and Rs. 20 per month.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

POUNDING AND PARCHING OF GRAINS.

Making of *pohas* and *phutanas* are the main activities coming under this head. The district being predominantly a rice producing one, the preparation of *pohas* is one of the occupations that provide opportunities for good earnings. The upward trend in the prices of *pohas* due to increased demand and other control measures has given an impetus to the occupation.

The old Chanda District Gazetteer (1909) has the following to say about the occupation:—

"A special industry of a rather peculiar type, which is confined to the western portion of the district, principally in the zamindaris and the adjoining tracts that contain plenty of forest, is the manufacture of *pohe,* a special preparation of rice. Mr. Hemingway gives the following account of this industry. The grain is prepared by tenants immediately the new grain is available; the unhusked rice is boiled directly after threshing, and is then pounded with the ordinary *musal;* in the pounding it becomes husked and flattened out; it is then roughly cleaned and is ready for consumption. It is prepared and exported in large quantities from the zamindaris and the Wairagarh pargana to both Nagpur and Hinganghat, and it is a most marketable commodity; it may be eaten raw, or with sugar or salt according to taste and means; and it is a favourite food for tenants to carry about with them on long journeys, since it needs no further preparation. It is a bulky grain to export; but the *dhan* cannot be taken to the bazar and prepared there, since a large amount of fuel is needed for its preparation: and it can be made only when the grain is perfectly fresh. For these reasons it is prepared only in the tracts where fuel is cheapest, and only during the months of November and December."

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PRESENT CHAPTER GIVES A NARRATIVE OF THE TRENDS IN ECONOMIC LIFE OF THE DISTRICT as revealed in the standard of living of the people, and the other aspects of the economy, *viz.,* agriculture, industries, trade and commerce, prices and wage earnings. As such the chapter is divided into two sections. The first section deals with Standard of Living, while the second section gives an analysis of the trends in the agriculture, industries, trade and commerce, communications, prices and wages.

SECTION I—STANDARD OF LIVING

STANDARD OF LIVING.

It is necessary to distinguish standard of living from standard of life. If the former relates to the actual material conditions of prosperity, the latter reflects an ideal state of that prosperity. The aims of the individual or communal efforts are directed towards reducing the gap between the two, in short to realise the ideal. This would mean that neither the concept of standard of living nor the one of standard of life could be treated as a permanent state. Both change with the passage of time and the scientific and technological advance which add to the material prosperity of the people.

The real fact of the material standard of the people of a particular region or a district would be its economic prosperity as reflected in the changing monetary incomes taken in relation to the price level and a variety of other factors. The computation of the income of so small a unit as a district offers innumerable difficulties the main being the availability of comparable, adequate and correct data. This nullifies all the attempts of computation of district income on the same basis as the computation of national or provincial income. Hence the study of standard of living has to be carried out in a restricted sense though the importance of such a study cannot be minimized.

The standard of living enjoyed by the masses is a measure of the economic prosperity of the community. It depends upon a multiplicity of factors, such as ample natural resources, proper exploitation of factors of production, optimum level of population and the state of education of the masses. Optimum utilisation of the existing resources in relation to the total population is essential to raise the level of material comfort of the people. The standard of living of the people is best reflected in the size and pattern of income and expenditure of individual families.

The Chanda District Gazetteer published in 1909 gives a very vivid account of the material conditions of the people at the

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beginning of the twentieth century which is given below:—

Material condition of the people.

"Taking first the land-owning and land-holding classes, these were classified at settlement into five classes according to the prescriptions of the Settlement Code, and the results are shown in the following table in the form of a percentage on the whole body:—

Class	Percentage	
	Malguzar	Tenants
(1)	(2)	(3)
A. Prosperous	53·6	7·3
B. Substantial	18·1	25·1
C. In average circumstances	20·7	49·3
D. Deeply indebted	7·6	17·7
E. Indigent	..	0·6
Total ..	100·00	100·00

"The boundaries between each class are necessarily elastic, but the classification is sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, and the broad conclusion that all save 7.6 per cent. of the malguzari body and all save 18.3 of the tenant body are comfortably off, or fairly so, may be accepted. The very low percentage of indigent tenants is, however, deceptive, and is merely due to the fact that the recent bad years have practically wiped out the E. Class tenant by forcing him to migrate or to abandon his holding. Below the tenant class and constantly interchanging with its lower ranks comes the body of field labourers, a class which the depletion of population has raised of recent years to comparative affluence. Ordinary unskilled labourers are similarly in great demand, and are commanding wages such as would not have entered into their most sanguine dreams little more than ten years ago. Finally, the bulk of the remaining population is composed of artizans and 'base mechanicals' practising hereditary crafts. These have, as will be seen in the section on Manufactures, in many departments gone to the wall before outside competition, and although numerous exceptions are to be made in favour both of particular occupations and of especially skilled individuals, this class is at present the most to be commiserated in regard to their material condition. They have, many of them, had to watch the dwindling of their earnings and to learn that hardest of all lessons, how to reduce their former standard of living."

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"The surroundings of the people, to western ideas bare, comfortless and even squalid, are pleasant enough for a race that neither knows nor desires anything better: indeed, with all is said, the average village homestead will bear comparison with the Scotch crofter's hut of little more than a century ago, the front doors of which were regularly flanked by a noble dung-heap. If the Indian cultivator's door were similarly adorned it would be a hopeful sign; at present he wastes and misuses manure horribly. In the interior of the District, two distinct standards of comfort may be observed, that of the aboriginal tribes and that of the Maratha or Telugu: the difference extending to habitation, food, clothing and luxuries."

"The Gond wants but little beyond what the jungle and the *bari* around his house will provide; salt, liquor, some grain and tobacco, a minimum of clothing, iron for his axe and a few other simple tools, gaudy beads for himself and his wife: give him these, and the run of the jungle, and he will ask for nothing more. He loves, in fact, 'to live in the sun, seeking the food he eats, and pleased with what he gets.' Incidentally it may be remarked that this simplicity is by no means incompatible with good living. To say nothing of forest berries and 'roots of relish sweet,' it is to be feared that many a fat buck finds its way into the family pot, and, even without this surreptitious addition, fowls, mice, and 'such small deer' lend variety to a *menu* which no scruples of caste circumscribe. The Mari'a Gond's house, too, in the remoter parts of the Zamindaris, is occasionally a very substantial erection: the walls are formed of barked logs laid horizontally and kept in position by upright posts: the interstices are daubed with mud, and thatch of jungle grass covers all in. Withal, the whole costs the builder little beyond the labour of construction. The normal Gond dwelling is, however, built of strong wattle, supported by thick posts at the four corners, the inner surface of the walls plastered with clay. The roof is thatched and the whole surrounded by a strong wattle fence within which he has sometimes cattle-sheds and shelter for goats, hens and other domestic animals. The ordinary transactions of life are carried out by barter, because money is scarce: this scarcity, does not by any means imply poverty."

"Among Marathas and Telugus the standard of living is higher, and the family budget contains more items. Houses cost more: an ordinary tenant will spend Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 or more on his house; a malguzar Rs. 150 to Rs. 300, or, if the house be of brick and tiled even up to Rs. 600 or Rs. 700. Poor men live in houses of wattle and daub thatched with grass or bamboo matting. Tiles and even corrugated iron are coming more generally into use, and are as elsewhere, a sign of wealth and progress. On food, a Brahman Malguzar would ordinarily spend from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50 a month for a normal

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family of two or three adults and as many children. A considerable item in a malguzar's monthly bill is the entertaining of travellers and native officials on tour, such as police and revenue officers; a Kunbi malguzar would in this way spend from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25, but a Brahman malguzar is required to dispense hospitality on a more liberal scale. Expenditure on clothing has increased considerably of late years, and a substantial malguzar will spend up to Rs. 50 a year in providing raiment for his family. Even a coolie can nowadays launch out into a number of luxuries. A coolie family consisting of a husband regularly earning five annas a day, his wife earning 3 annas a day, and two children will probably spend his wages in some such fashion as follows:—

On food, roughly Rs. 8 a month at the rate of two *pailis* of juari and half a *paili* of rice per diem; on spices and condiments including salt some Re. 1=4 per mensem; on oil for culinary purposes 5 or 6 annas; on kerosene oil, about 8 annas, at the rate of a pice a day and at least Rs. 3 or Rs. 4 a month on country liquor and tobacco. Clothes have to be bought once or twice a year at an expenditure of perhaps Rs. 20. With a little care this income is ample, but as a rule that care is not forthcoming, and in any case as a matter of principle the coolie is sure to be in debt to the extent of a few rupees. The personal ornaments of his wife would ordinarily be worth some Rs. 10 or Rs. 15. The great pitfalls in the way of the unthrifty are drink and the love of ostentation; the former is the curse of the aboriginals and lower castes, while the latter appeals to all classes alike all over India, taking, as is well known, its most acute form in the expenditure on marriages on which the income of one or two years is often squandered in a lump. There seems much in the view that attributes this lavish expenditure on vain show to the low standard of material comfort: the people really know very few other ways of spending their money. Hosts of dependants, love of litigation, sub-division of inheritances are contributory causes to unthrift: all of these are well known, none are peculiar to the District and they need not therefore be emphasised. It is of more interest to consider what effect western civilisation has had or is having on raising the standard of comfort. So far this influence has gone for little, outside the towns of Warora and Chanda, and even in those towns it has done little more than add a thin veneer to the old mode of living. The use of kerosene oil and matches is universal, but the small chimneyless bazar-made lamp of tin or earthenware still practically holds the field: the triumph of foreign cloth and iron has simply been gained by supplanting the local products, and need not here be taken into consideration except in so far as to admit that the people are nowadays better and more cheaply clad than formerly. In the towns, some of the higher native officials have chairs, tables and lamps

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and a few other minor pieces of furniture after the European fashion, but the ordinary well-to do native non-official has not followed this lead: indeed, such innovations are still regarded with some suspicion, and those who introduce them are apt to incur the invidious sobriquet of 'reformers' and find themselves in a fair way to achieve social ostracism. Some time ago, a soda water factory which guaranteed *Brahmanical soda water* was opened in Chanda but the concern became bankrupt. Despite this, the use of ordinary *soda-water* is becoming more and more prevalent. Two bakeries which purvey European bread have recently been opened in the town but are patronised solely by Musalmans. Refined sugar is gradually superseding gur, and for the first time in 1905-06 outstripped the latter in the Chanda octroi returns.

A few Swadeshi enthusiasts have, during the last few years, been preaching a crusade against refined sugar, the story that it is cleansed with bullock's blood being widely spread; its sale has thus been considerably reduced but it is slowly recovering. On the whole the old order shows but little disposition to yield place to the new."

The following extract taken from the Census Report of Central Provinces and Berar for the year 1931 throws some light on the standard of living enjoyed by the people in the region of which Chanda district formed a part:—

"As only such working class families, of which the total income does not exceed Rs. 50 a month, have been considered, the majority belongs to the poorer classes, and on an average nearly 65 per cent of the income is spent on food. The percentage of expenditure on food does not decrease with the rise of incomes, as one would expect from Engel's Law. This is due to there being a higher number of persons per family in the higher income classes and also due to many workers in the higher income class having their own houses and thus not having to spend a portion of their income on rent. The operation of Engel's Law will, however, be clearly discernible if we make allowance for these two factors; and it would be more or less apparent that an increase in income is attended with a tendency to decrease the percentage expenditure on food and increase that on others. Percentage expenditure on rent and clothing does not show the expected increase according to Engel's Law. This is due to the fact that the standard of housing and clothing observed amongst Indian labour does not vary so much with income, as with social standing, and local and communal custom. Moreover, the families in the higher income classes prefer building their own houses and save the rent if they have the means to do so. As for clothing, the minimum requirements in Indian climate, specially in the plains, are limited, and clothes of better quality are considered luxury to be indulged in only on festive occasions.

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Expenditure on household requisities is very low, both absolutely and in proportion to the total expenditure. This really means that the bare necessaries of life are cut down to the lowest possible minimum, and indicates a low standard of living. Furniture is practically unknown, and bedding and utensils are of the cheaper kind. Mosquito curtains are hardly ever used, and malarial fever is most common amongst these workers. Improvised bedding and a limited number of cheap utensils do not promote cleanliness, and the former is not adequate to ward off occasional dampness and exposure to changes of climate. Such conditions lower the vitality and decrease the power of resistance to disease.

Miscellaneous expenditure includes expenditure on luxuries, conventional necessaries and social amenities, and is the real indication of affluence of the working class families under consideration. It follows Engel's Law closely. It is to be noted, however, that the standard of living in the higher income classes is not proportionately higher as their families are comparatively bigger.

The analysis of all the budgets gives the following percentage expenditure on the main groups of commodities. A comparison is also made with corresponding percentages in the Bombay City:—

	Central Provinces	Bombay (1921-22)
	Per cent	Per cent
Food	64·15	56·08
Fuel and lighting	4·29	7·04
Rent	2·73	7·07
Clothing	9·03	9·06
Household requisites	2·16	..
Miscellaneous	17·64	18·05

The size of the families averaged is not the same, and the greater percentage of expenditure on food in the higher income classes is mainly due to their families consisting of a large number of persons. As the size selected is of the standard family of one man, one woman and two children, which happens to be the mode, the results have been tabulated for the two important centres for a comparative study of the standard of living."

During the interval of time after the publication of the old Gazetteer, the material conditions of living of the people in Chandrapur district have undergone remarkable changes. The squalid conditions of life have given way to better living. The material resources of life have brought about an improvement in the standard of comforts. Increase in agricultural and industrial production has resulted in an increase in the number of goods necessary for a better life. Though the increase in production and total income has been shared by the increasing population, the per capita income and the per capita consumption have increased considerably.

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A considerable section of Adivasi population who used to subsist on a little bit of rice and roots, fruits and leaves of trees in the past has taken to consumption of cereals and pulses. The scientific management and exploitation of forest resources on the part of the State Government have created employment opportunity for them. The increase in income affords them a better pattern of consumption than before.

In the urban sector, a number of luxury articles, such as radio sets, wrist-watches, almirahs and fashionable clothes, which were very rare, have become more common. The total consumption has not only increased in quantity but has also been diversified. Besides the increase in income and production, social amenities have increased immensely. These amenities have produced a definite impact on the standard of living of the people.

The vast increase in the educational facilities has opened the way to the reorientation of the entire social fabric. The spirit of modern education has generated an attitude to question the validity of old ways of life, and exposed the insipidness of conservative beliefs. The broad outlook under the influence of a democratic pattern of society has changed the ideas of standard of living of the people.

The analysis of standard of living given below, describes six factors, *viz.*, (1) income, (2) pattern of consumption, (3) cost of living, (4) state of education, (5) social amenities, and (6) housing conditions. The household is taken to be an unit of sampling. The findings are based on a sample survey and on the information about family budgets. Taking the average annual income as the basis of classification, the households are divided into three groups:—

Group I: Families with an annual income of Rs. 4,200 and above.

Group II: Families with an annual income ranging between Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 4,200.

Group III: Families with an annual income of Rs. 1,800 and below.

Group I.

This income group consists of well-to-do or big landlords, businessmen and industrialists as well as prominent contractors from the rural and urban areas. A glance at their residence with specious drawing rooms well furnished with sofa sets,

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decorative flower-pots and mirrors, window curtains, variety frames, ceiling fans, exhibits their richness and a high leve living to the visitor. The annual income of each family in group amounted to Rs. 4,200 or above. Eighteen families this group were surveyed. The details of their family bu are enumerated below.

The survey revealed that there were 40 earning members in 18 families. The number of families with more than one ing member stood at 9. An average family was composed 6 adults and 4 minors making eight units on the whole. E tions to this are not hard to find. For example, one famil Nagbhir was found to have 49 members consisting of 27 a and 22 children.

Out of 18 families from this group about 14 i.e. 77 per owned houses valued at about Rs. 29,407 on the aver Besides this, 7 families i.e. about 38 per cent had landed perty valued at Rs. 45,785 on an average and 5 i.e. 27 per cent it in some other form. Eight families derived income owned houses to the tune of Rs. 59,400 in the aggregate, gi an average of Rs. 7,425 per family. The average occupati income of all the families thus amounted to Rs. 11,225.

The average total monthly expenditure of a family in group was Rs. 344 of which an amount of Rs. 79 was spent cereals and pulses. The people in the urban areas spent mor education and entertainment as compared to their rural parts. The average monthly expenditure on oils, ghee etc. Rs. 25 and that on vegetables, mutton, eggs etc., Rs. 23. They spent about Rs. 14 for lighting, Rs. 65 for domestic services Rs. 30 on milk and Rs. 40 on rent and municipal taxes. In case of entertainment, people in urban areas had more pref ence for film shows and dramas unlike the people in rural a who preferred circus shows and *lokanatya* and village fairs. regard to rent, the families in the rural areas paid less by of rent as most of the families were having their own ho Only 3 families in the urban sector paid rent of Rs. 40 per mo

Classified by "owned" and "rented" categories, 90 per cent the dwellings in the district are owned and 10 per cent are ren ed. The proportion of owned is higher (92 per cent) in the rur areas but lower (60 per cent) in the urban areas. Even this low proportion of 60 per cent for the urban areas in the district much higher than the average of 30 per cent for urban areas Maharashtra.

Out of the various materials used for walls, mud appears to be predominant in the district with a proportion of about 52 per cent of dwellings. Grass, leaves, reeds or bamboos are used next to mud for walls with a proportion of 37 per cent. Mud walls are predominant in Brahmapuri, Warora and Chanda talukas while grass, leaves, reeds, etc., are commonly used in Gadhchiroli, Rajura and Sironcha talukas.

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Burnt bricks are also used in the urban areas of Chanda, Warora and Rajura talukas, though the majority of houses in these talukas have walls either of mud or grass, leaves, etc. Mud walls are more in rural than in urban areas. Their proportion in rural areas is 52.9 per cent against 43.4 per cent in urban areas. Walls of burnt bricks are more in urban areas with a proportion of 37.6 per cent against only 4.8 per cent in rural areas.

Out of the materials of roof, tiles and grass, leaves, reeds, thatch, etc., are predominant in the district with proportions of 50.0 per cent and 45.7 per cent of the total number of dwellings. Tiles are used more (80.2 per cent) in urban than in rural (47.5 per cent) areas. Grass, leaves, reeds, thatch, etc. are used more in rural (48.8 per cent) than in urban areas (8.6 per cent). Tiles are more common in Warora and Chanda talukas. Roofs of grass, leaves, reeds, thatch, etc. are more common in Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli, Rajura and Sironcha talukas. Gadhchiroli and Sironcha talukas have large population of Scheduled Tribes. For that reason and also perhaps because of the nearness and abundance of forests, the houses in those talukas have mostly walls and roof made of grass, leaves, thatch, etc.

Classified by the number of rooms occupied, 48.8 per cent of households are occupying one-room dwellings and 33.7 per cent are occupying two-room dwellings. The households occupying more rooms are more in the urban than in rural areas. Average number of persons per room is 2.76 for total, 2.80 for rural and 2.32 for urban areas.

All the families belonging to this group were found to be well dressed. The people living in urban area spent more on this item than the rural people. Almost all families disclosed possession of costly garments like *paithani*, *shalu* and *jari* turban. Their average annual expenditure on this item was Rs. 627.

The families in this group appeared to be generous in their expenditure on religious and charitable functions and ceremonies. Generally a family spent Rs. 190 per annum on this item. It was also observed that a family in rural areas spent more for this purpose as it celebrated many religious and charitable functions. The medical expenses in case of a family in urban areas amounted to Rs. 279 annually as against ruralites whose expenditure on this item was meagre.

The families in this group spent about Rs. 250 per year upon travelling and miscellaneous items. Almost all families possessed gold ornaments. Ornaments of common use such as rings, necklaces, bangles and nose-rings, both of gold and silver were found in all the rural as well as urban families. Besides they possessed luxury articles like radio sets, fans, etc. Four families out of the 18 surveyed were found to have motorcycles and one

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owned a motor-car. Almost all the families had a bicycle. All the families possessed furniture which usually consisted of a couple of chairs, a table, a cot, cupboards, shelves etc. Their bedding consisted of chaddars, carpets, mattresses, bed-sheets and pillows. The families in rural areas were found in possession of necessary agricultural tools and implements. Many of them owned bullock-carts for the purpose of transportation of goods from field to house and from house to some nearby markets. As said above, literacy percentage was highest in this group. Almost all the people in this group were found literate. The young generation of this group was availing itself of the modern educational facilities which had been introduced in the district. The importance of the technical as well as other types of education was well appreciated by this class.

Families in this group were left with surplus of earnings after meeting their total expenses. In a few cases it was invested in life insurance policies and National Savings Certificates. Though this group was made up of well-to-do families, only 5 families disclosed their savings which amounted to Rs. 3,540 per annum on an average. Eight families were found to channelise their savings to the tune of Rs. 15,175 in shares and paper money. Only 2 families out of 18 surveyed were found indebted to the extent of Rs. 27,000 paying interest at the rate 7.50 per cent per annum.

Group II.

This income group was composed of small farmers, petty merchants, secondary school teachers, Government servants, mechanics, and small businessmen such as grocers, retail shopkeepers, etc. The residential accommodation of the families in this group was generally small as compared to the one enjoyed by the family in the first group and consisted of a drawing room, kitchen-room or study-room. Many of the families possessed a radio, ceiling fans and furniture and cupboards.

The annual income of each family in this group varied between Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 4,200. A survey of 50 families from this group gave the following result.

This income group was composed of families following a variety of small occupations. There were 78 earning members in 50 families. An average family was composed of 4 adults and 4 minors making six units on the whole.

Out of 50 families from this group about 22 i.e., 44 per cent had their own houses valued at about Rs. 9,668 on an average. 7 families i.e., about 14 per cent had landed property valued at Rs. 6,443 per family and 4 i.e., 8 per cent had it in some other form. Eleven families had an average income of Rs. 2,373 per year from land and six families Rs. 2,621 from house. The annual occupational income of a family amounted to Rs. 3,006. Many families formerly received substantial income from agriculture which has dwindled because of agrarian reforms and tenancy legislation undertaken by the State. As many as 14

families from this group were indebted each to the tune of Rs. 1,003. Out of these families eight had taken loan for productive purpose whereas 6 families were indebted to get over their family difficulties. Of the families surveyed only 13 disclosed their savings in cash to the tune of Rs. 752 on an average and 15 families disclosed their savings in the form of insurance and bank deposits amounting to Rs. 3,131 on an average. CHAPTER 9. Economic Trends. STANDARD OF LIVING. Group II.

The average total monthly expenditure of a family in this group was Rs. 190 of which Rs. 50 was spent on cereals and pulses. The people in this group staying in the urban areas spent Rs. 32 on education. Whereas their monthly expenditure on entertainment was about Rs. 10, the same was less in the rural area. The expenditure of the urban people on account of entertainment was mainly on drama, movies and other such varieties of programmes. The average monthly expenditure on oils, ghee etc., was Rs. 16.00 and that on the vegetables, mutton, eggs etc., Rs. 13.00. They spent about Rs. 7 on lighting, Rs. 26.00 on domestic services, Rs. 16.00 on milk and Rs. 20 on rent and municipal taxes. Expenses on these items in the rural areas were comparatively less. Of the 50 families surveyed 27 families stayed in rented premises.

The families belonging to this group were generally well dressed though not in as refined clothes as the families in group one. The urbanites spent more on this item than ruralites. About 32 families disclosed their possession of traditional garments such as *shalu, jari* turban and other costly apparel. A family spent about Rs. 322 on clothing.

The families in this group spent substantially on religious and charitable functions and ceremonies. Almost 75 per cent of these families spent about Rs. 100 per annum for this purpose. A few families spent as much as Rs. 700 per annum on this account. The expenditure on medicine and health accounted for Rs. 209 annually. Their miscellaneous and travelling expenses per family came to Rs. 144 per year. However most of the expenditure was incurred towards attending social functions among relatives and friends as well as fairs and religious functions at distant places.

With regard to the family possessions and equipment the traditional ornaments such as rings, nose-rings, *vajratic, tode, putalyachi mal, garasoli,* etc., were found common in many of the rural families. Very few urban families had furniture and fixtures except cots, tables and chairs. Many of the rural families possessed *jhopala* i.e., swing made of wood depending upon availability of space. Only 17 families out of 50 surveyed had bicycles for their daily use. Many of the families in rural areas owned buffaloes, cows and goats. The families especially in rural areas possessed agricultural tools and equipment such as cart, plough, spade, sickle etc., and rest of the tools of daily use. Their household equipment including bedding was just enough to fulfil their requirements. The bedding consisted of chaddars and rough

carpets. Very few families in urban areas had mattresses, bedsheets and pillows. The literacy percentage was as good as the one in group I especially in urban areas. The percentage of secondary education as also college education was higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

Group II.

As regards savings and investment habits of this group, 16 families disclosed their savings at Rs. 751 on an average. 14 families were found indebted to the tune of Rs. 1,003 on an average. 5 families had borrowed loans for productive purpose such as land improvement, bunding etc. Rest of the families had taken loans for domestic and other purposes such as marriages, religious functions etc.

Group III.

This income group consisted of landless labourers, workers, petty artisans and cowherds whose annual income was below Rs. 1,800. The families in this group generally resided in a single room tenement which served as a kitchen, study room, storeroom, bedroom etc. The people living in the urban areas stayed in very congested localities whereas the people in rural areas resided in small hutments made of hay, bamboo and sometimes wood. Generally these houses were crowded in the locality. The small earthen pots and articles of their domestic use spoke eloquently of their poverty.

In the 97 families surveyed from this group there were 143 earning members. The family from this group was composed of 4 adults and 3 minors thus making 5 and a half units on the whole per family.

From this group 55 families out of 97 i.e., 56.7 per cent possessed houses valued at Rs. 1,554 on an average. Their annual income amounted to about Rs. 1,400 and was supplemented by income from land in case of 10 families to the tune of Rs. 1,524 per annum on an average. Their occupational income amounted to Rs. 1,272. There was considerable indebtedness among the families in this group. 38 families from this group i.e., 39.17 per cent were found indebted to the tune of Rs. 36,431 in the aggregate and Rs. 960 on an average. Only 10 families disclosed their savings which were Rs. 10,570 in aggregate.

The average total monthly expenditure of a family in this group was Rs. 123 of which Rs. 53 were spent on cereals, Rs. 10 on oils and Rs. 11 on vegetables, i.e., nearly 74 rupees or 49 per cent of their total income was spent on foodgrains only. The people in this group staying in urban areas spent nearly Rs. 10 per month for education whereas the people in rural areas spent less on the same. The expenditure on entertainment for a family in urban areas averaged Rs. 5. The families in this group and especially in rural areas generally possessed cattle such as cows, goats and buffaloes for milk and also bullocks for cultivation. The total number of such families was 50. They naturally spent less on milk and ghee as compared to other families in this group. The expenses on lighting and education accounted for Rs. 5 and

Rs. 12, respectively per family. With regard to rent 66 families i.e., 68 per cent in the rural areas were residing in their own premises, whereas 31 families i.e., 32 per cent of the total families staying in urban areas on an average paid Rs. 14 monthly on rent and municipal taxes.

The clothes and wearing apparel of the families in this group was poor as compared to those in Groups I and II. Their annual expenses on this item came to Rs. 220 on an average. The clothes which they usually put on were of inferior quality. On socio-religious occasions the family spent about Rs. 41 per annum. But instances of families spending much more on this item were not rare. Generally the expenditure on this account was considerably more in rural areas than in the urban ones. Religious expenditure was one of the many reasons for the indebtedness of many rural families. The families living in the urban areas spent about Rs. 103 per annum towards medical expenses. The expenditure on this item was much less in the rural areas. The families in this group spent much less on travelling and miscellaneous items, their average annual expenditure on this item amounting to Rs. 62 only.

The equipment required for daily use in a family from this group was meagre and of a poor quality. It mostly consisted of a drum to store water, earthen pots, some vessels and in some cases pots made of brass *viz., thali, tambya, vati* etc. Very few families possessed milch animals such as goats, cows, buffaloes etc. A pair of bullocks was beyond their reach. They had very little other equipments. Their bedding was simple and prepared from coarse cloth. Literacy percentage was very small, though recently a marked improvement has been seen due to the extension of educational concessions and facilities by the Government.

Comparative study of all the three groups.

The following comparative account of the three income groups discussed above reveals the general characteristics of the families from the selected centres in urban as well as rural areas of the district. The first income group spent about 36 per cent of their total income on food items whereas the second and third income groups spent 42 and 60 per cent respectively on the same account. This shows that as income falls the percentage expenditure on articles of food shows an increase. The first and second income groups spent about the same amount on milk whereas the expenditure on this item was negligible in the case of the third group.

In regard to housing a marked difference could be noted. Families in the first group stayed in spacious bungalows in better localities of the towns and in spacious *vadas* of the rural areas. Most of these were well ventilated bungalows or blocks of 3 or more rooms decorated with luxurious articles and costly furniture. The case of the third income group offers a contrast living as they do in densely populated or congested areas of the town

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and on the outskirts of villages in small huts, that were generally ill ventilated with roofs at low heights from the ground.

Comparative study of all the three groups.

The same contrast is visible in regard to clothes and articles of dress. The first and second income groups spent considerably on this item which the families in the third group could not afford.

On recreation and entertainment the first and second income groups spent Rs. 13 and Rs. 9 per month, respectively, whereas the third income group spent only Rs. 5 on this item. So also is the case with expenditure on medical account, education, social and religious and miscellaneous items. The conditions are however, gradually changing with the change that is taking place in the economy of the district and with more and better opportunities the difference between the groups would not remain so marked in times to come.

Standard of Living of Adivasi Population.

A large part of the district is covered with thick forests where the proportion of Adivasi population is quite high. Among scheduled districts in Maharashtra, Chandrapur district ranks fourth in regard to the percentage of Adivasi population to that of total population of the district.

The total tribal population in the district numbered 183,431 or 14.82 per cent according to 1961 Census. Of the 13 tribes in the district Gond, Pardhan, Halba and Kawar are the principal ones. About these tribes the District Census Handbook of Chanda, 1961 states as follows :—

"Gond with 166,266 persons is the most predominant Scheduled Tribe in the district. Pardhan with 7,145 persons, Halba with 4,737 persons, Kawar with 2,812 persons and Kolam with 1,516 persons are the other four major Scheduled Tribes. The remaining eight scheduled tribes, together have a population of 517 persons only.

The Scheduled Tribes are concentrated more in Sironcha taluka where they form 54.26 per cent of the total population. The corresponding proportions for Gadhchiroli and Rajura talukas are 35.94 per cent and 27.43 per cent, respectively. A part of the district has also been notified a schedule area."

Though the living conditions of the Adivasis have improved recently quite a few among them eke out a substandard existence. Most of them follow agriculture as their principal occupation. During the off season they find employment in forestry which supplements their income from agriculture. The labour participation rate is higher among them than that in the general population of the district. Their staple food is rice but in the thick forest area like Sironcha many of the Adivasis eat fruits, roots and the leaves of the trees. Most of them are non-vegetarians because of the availability of wild animals for hunting. They mostly spend their income on the purchase of foodgrains only. Their proximity to nature keeps their requirement of

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clothing to minimum. Their traditional dress is a *langoti* and *dhoti* and in some cases a piece of cloth wrapped around the waist. However, the younger among them are taking to new modes of dress. Their women adorn their necks with handsome strings of beads and their arms sometimes with metal and glass bangles. Married women wear a *lugade* (sari) of strong cloth usually white with the border having a coloured strip. The majority of the Adivasis have been settled permanently in the forest area. The Adivasi dwelling is a typical hutment made of strong bamboos with wooden pillars in the four corners and the inner part of the walls made of karvi plastered with clay and dung. The dwelling is usually surrounded by strong wattle fence wherein the cattle-shed is also constructed.

Formerly the adivasi area was the most backward from the literacy point of view. Poverty and apathy towards improvement did not allow them to go in for education. Scheme for economically Backward Classes sponsored by the Maharashtra Government has made available manifold opportunities of education to them. The starting of schools in the remote areas has brought education within their reach.

The household utensils used in the adivasi families comprised mostly earthenware. Only in rare cases aluminium and brass utensils were used. Under the development plans of the Government the material conditions of these communities have been showing a marked change. Many special schemes for the welfare of the scheduled tribes have been put into operation and have made considerable progress. The important among them is the creation of two Tribal Development Blocks functioning at Yetapalli and Dewada, each with a combined allocation of Rs. 15 lakhs. Similar tribal development blocks have been proposed in various areas.

SECTION II—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

In the preceding chapters in this Volume are discussed the historical, structural and operational aspects of agriculture, industries, banking, trade and commerce, transport and miscellaneous occupations. An attempt is made in these chapters to describe the various aspects of the district economy in a factual manner. No attempt is made to evaluate the facts and provide guidelines for the course of future policy. It is proposed, in this section, to analyse the economic trends in production, distribution, economic planning, prices, wages, etc.

The national economy of India underwent numerous changes during the course of the present century. The basic structure of the agrarian economy and the industrial and commercial complex experienced evolutionary changes. The change has been accelerated by economic planning in the post-independence period. The First World War, the Great Depression, the Second World War, the post-war economic crisis, Independence and the Five-Year Plans were the most significant events shaping the Indian economy. These events made a deep impact on

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the economy of this district as well. The economic trends at the national level reflected themselves in the district. This is attributable to the fact that the policies regarding production, capital, labour, marketing, supplies, transport, public finance and banking, which are intended to regulate the economic forces in the country, are instrumental in shaping the economic life in a district as well. The price and production mechanism does not allow the district economy to be isolated from the national economic forces. Hence, the economic trends in the district are bound to be in consonance with those of the nation.

However, the study of economic trends in a district is of great interest because of many reasons. In a developing economy geared up by five-year plans, the economic conditions experience accelerated growth. It is necessary to analyse the results of the planned utilisation of available resources which is supposed to bring about higher production and better standard of living. The standard of living of the community of people depends upon the optimum utilisation of the factors of production and total population.

Economic Resources.

The principal natural resources of economic significance in Chandrapur district comprise agricultural land, forests, minerals and agro-industrial raw materials. Agricultural land covering a net cultivated area* of 1,546,265 acres (in 1962-63) is by far the most important of the economic resources in the district. Besides the net cultivated area, there is a vast area of land which is classified as cultivable waste (227,351 acres in 1962-63) and current fallows (45,924 acres in 1962-63). The cultivable land is classified into various categories, such as, *kali, kanher, barasi, morand, kharadi, varadi, baradi* and *pandhari*. The rich fertile black soil (*kali*) is found in the Wardha valley comprising the western half of Warora and Chanda tahsils and the whole of Rajura tahsil. This deep black soil is moisture retentive, and highly suitable for rabi crops, such as wheat and jowar. The *kanher* soil is loamy and clay in formation and is quite fertile. This type of soil is suitable for almost all crops grown in the district, and is brought under double cropping. It is mainly found in the Wainganga valley and some parts of the Wardha valley. The *morand* type of soil which is sandy in texture and grey in colour is found all over the district, and is suitable for *kharif* as well as *rabi* crops, *viz.*, jowar, paddy, sesame, gram, etc. The *kharadi, varadi* and *baradi* types of soil are inferior and poor in fertility.

Forest Resources.

Nature is extremely bountiful to Chanda in bestowing abundant forest resources. The luxuriant and lofty teak trees in the varied forests in the district bear a grand testimony to the immense natural wealth. The forests known as the 'glory of Allapalli' present not only a lavish panorama of evergreen

*The gross cropped area which covers the net cultivated area as well as area sown more than once was 1,683,677 acres in 1962-63.

vegetation, but also are among the best in Asia. They abound in the best quality of teak trees with a height ranging up to 125 feet. The Allapalli teak is rated next to the best quality of Burma teak. The C. P. teak which has earned a high reputation all over the country mainly comes from Chanda.

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Besides teak, the Chandrapur forests are affluent with other species, such as *sisam, bija,* bamboo, *salai* and *semal*. The dense bamboo vegetation is a rich source of building material and an excellent raw material for paper pulp. The Ballarpur Paper and Straw Board Mill bears eloquent testimony to this forest wealth. The abundance of match wood and bidi leaves has considerable significance in the context of raw materials for industrial development in the district.

The forests in this district which are scientifically classified as southern tropical dry deciduous forests occupy an expanse of 7,285 square miles, and comprise about 72.21 per cent of the total geographical area. They yield an income of over Rs. 1.60 crores per annum to the public exchequer.

The following extracts from the Chanda District Gazetteer published in 1909 throw some light on the forest wealth of the district:

"The most important species of timber is teak which except in the south of the *Ghat* range is usually found mixed with other species. The Alapalli, Elchil and Machhligatta blocks contain the finest teak in the Central Provinces, the largest specimens attaining a height of from 120 to 130 and a girth of 8 or 9, or even exceptionally 10 to 12 feet. The best crop is met with at the foot of the Bhimargam hills in the Alapalli range, and its excellence is to a great extent due to continued immunity from fire and grazing, which has converted the open grass land type of forest, still to be seen across the boundary line in the unprotected zamindari area, into a dense coppice of fine straight stems. *Bijasal* grows to a large size in Alapalli and Sironcha and is found throughout the division: owing to the high price of teak it is coming more and more into use as a building wood."

Besides, the other important species having immense market-value are *sisam, saj* or *yen, haldu* and bamboo. The finest quality of lac is produced in the district.

Realising the importance of this natural wealth, the Forest Department of the State formulated in 1967-68 a perspective plan for the scientific development and optimum utilisation of forests. The perspective plan, with an emphasis on the enrichment of this wealth in the future, highlights scientific management of working plans, regeneration of the worked areas, afforestation to prevent erosion and realization of sustained forest revenue. The Forest Department has undertaken a number of special activities regarding preservation of the valuable species and soil conservation. The departmental activities also include scientific training of forest roads fit for mechanised transport.

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construction of bridges and bunds, provision of logging machinery, and processing and seasoning of timber.

The various activities under the perspective plan are calculated to explore the huge potentialities of forest wealth in the district which would lead to progress and a large increase in the revenue. The perspective planning is important in the context of the fact that the forests all over the world have been in a continuous process of recession.

Mineral wealth.

The remarkable mineral wealth* of the district has so far been exploited on a commercial scale in only one direction, namely, the development of its coal deposits. The first traces of coal in this district were discovered in October 1865 when some pieces of carbonaceous shale were picked up in the bed of the Wardha river; these were followed up, and were found to have been washed from the Chanda bank of the river to the west of Ghugus. A pit was thereupon sunk in that village and coal was struck at a depth of 30 feet. The search for further deposits was vigorously prosecuted and outcrops were discovered at Ballalpur and Lathi. It was proved that the Ghugus seam was thicker and more constant than had at first been supposed.

Many indications pointed to the probable existence of coal to the north roundabout Warora within easy reach of the Hinganghat cotton market, and search was naturally directed towards that locality when the desirability of abandoning the Mayo Colliery had become obvious. The work commenced actually in 1871. The Warora Colliery brought out a considerable amount of mineral wealth.

The existence of coal at Ballalpur was suspected as early as 1871; but the actual work of exploitation commenced in 1903. The actual output of coal remained insignificant until 1907, but work of opening out the mine received good encouragement through the opening of railway route in that year. Subsequently the Ballalpur Collieries proved to be a valuable treasure of mineral wealth. The findings of the Geological Survey of India proved that the greatest store of coal in the district was to the east of Chanda town, but the seams were found to be too low down to be worth working.

The iron ores of Chandrapur have long excited the interest of investigators, and situated as they are in close proximity to the coal and limestone in and about Warora the question of exploiting them on modern commercial lines has frequently been mooted. The first detailed investigation of the iron deposits was made in 1873 which gave an extremely high estimate of the iron ore. An expert of great mining experience in Austria, after a survey in 1881, contemplated an annual outturn of no less than 260,000 tons of iron and steel, and was of the opinion that Chandrapur could not only supply the whole requirements of

*This account of mineral wealth is based on the account given in the Chanda District Gazetteer of 1909.

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India in iron and steel, but would also be able to compete with the Continent in importing ferro-manganese Brescian steel into England. Subsequent investigations however showed that these anticipations were very highly coloured. Difficulties of fuel and communication led the authorities to place Chandrapur only third on the list of possible sites for a modern iron industry. Experts of the Tata Iron and Steel Syndicate found that the amount of ore available had not only been greatly over-estimated, but there were also insuperable difficulties as to fuel and water-supply. "Messrs. Tata were finally induced under the advice of their experts to leave inferior coals alone and go direct to the good coking coals of Bengal. Thus for some years to come at any rate, the hope of seeing Chandrapur the Middlesborough of India must be abandoned".

"If the quantity of the ore is disappointing there is at least no doubt as to its quality, and samples taken from Lohara, Pipalgaon, Gunjewahi, and Dewalgaon and analysed by Major Mahon gave extraordinarily rich results, the usual percentage of iron being as high as 68. Local ore is exceptionally free from sulphur and phosphorus, and therefore, is eminently qualified for the manufacture both of iron and steel."

Chandrapur occupies an important place on the map showing the mineral wealth of Maharashtra. Besides the large reserves of high grade iron ore and coal described above, the forest areas of Sironcha, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli tahsils contain reserves of iron ore, manganese, mica ochres and clay. Copper is also discovered near Thanewasna in Chandrapur tahsil.

The important coal fields, at present, are situated at Majri, Ghugus, Warora, Ballalpur and Bandar. The reserves in these collieries have been estimated at 2,306 million tons. In 1960-61, mining leases for coal extraction from an area of 10,281.27 acres were given to seven private companies which extracted 6.7 lakhs tonnes of coal valued at Rs. 1,32,96,000. During 1961, 6.7 lakhs tonnes of coal was extracted, and this figure increased to 8.3 lakhs in 1962. The production of coal in 1963 and 1964 amounted to 852,000 tonnes and 881,000 tonnes, respectively.

The important deposits of iron ore are located in Lohara, Asola, Dewalgaon, Pimpalgaon, Fuser, Ratnapur and Bhisi. Some deposits are reported at Maseli, Surajagad, Margaon, Vithalgaon and Sindewahi. Red oxide of iron occurs at Babupeth near Chandrapur town. The iron ore deposits at the above mentioned places are estimated at 21.61 million tons.

During 1960-61, leases for the exploitation of iron ore from an area of 710.88 acres were granted to five mining companies which exploited 2,837 tonnes of ore valued at Rs. 17,450. The production of iron ore amounted to 4,675 tonnes in 1961, 13,023 tonnes in 1962, 3,322 tonnes in 1963 and 1,000 in 1964.

The Geological Survey of India have carried out preliminary geological mapping and mineral investigations in most of the

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areas in the district, and further work is in progress. The survey of Govindpur and Thanewasna areas has revealed that the areas have promising copper deposits. The mineral wealth in the district warrants the establishment of an iron and steel project there. In fact, this wealth in Chanda district will have an increasingly vital role in the economy of Maharashtra. A more scientific survey of the areas may reveal many new deposits and development opportunities.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is by far the most important industry in the district. It provides the means of livelihood to a major proportion of the working population. Chandrapur district enjoys the enviable position of being a surplus area in respect of foodgrains. It is one of the districts in Maharashtra which make substantial contributions to the food supply in the State. The impenetrable dense forest areas in the Sironcha, Gadhchiroli and Chanda tahsils are, however, unimportant from the agricultural point of view. These are also the areas which are very sparsely populated. Hence, the principal agricultural areas which are fairly populated show a higher dependence of population on agriculture.

Rice invariably occupied the largest area, until the advent of bad seasons ousted it in favour of jowar. From 1891 to 1896 the average area under rice was about 206,000 acres while that under jowar was 137,000 acres. From 1896 to 1899 there was a marked advance in the area under rice, the average rising to 304,000 acres; the jowar area at the same time expanded slightly to 151,000 acres. In 1899-1900 the rice area sank to 189,000 acres and in 1900-1901 it reached a low figure of 144,000 acres. The jowar area meanwhile expanded and from 1899 to 1903 averaged nearly 240,000 acres. Thereafter, however, the area under this crop during 1903 to 1907 averaged 136,000 acres.

In the post-independence period rice gained a lot of ground and invariably occupied the largest area. The rising trend of cultivation will become evident from the area* under rice and jowar given below:—

Year	Rice	Jowar
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Acres	Acres
1950-51	398,009	348,039
1951-52	387,952	373,695
1952-53	394,292	363,374
1953-54	419,905	337,784
1954-55	427,100	366,700
1955-56	424,800	371,800
1960-61	507,542	483,467
1961-62	513,743	492,915
1962-63	533,050	492,829

*Area is in acres. Jowar area covers kharif as well rabi crops.

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"Of other crops, cotton after undergoing an eclipse for the thirty years following the cessation of the American Civil War began to expand in the early nineties, and by the beginning of this century had almost reached the figures obtaining during the war. During the last six years the average area under this crop has mounted to 44,000 acres, and these figures, now that the railway has been carried through to Ballalpur, may be expected to increase very substantially in the near future."[1]

The cultivation of cotton showed a steady trend from 1951 onwards. The area under this crop was 41,403 acres in 1951-52, 48,799 acres in 1952-53, 46,248 in 1953-54, 42,900 in 1954-55 and 43,300 in 1955-56. After 1960, however, there was a marked advance, the acreage under the crop being 62,301 in 1960-61, 66,681 in 1961-62 and 66,245 in 1962-63.

"Linseed has always been a popular crop, and except during the famine years has usually covered an area of from 50,000 to 80,000 acres; in 1906-07, the record area of 105,000 acres was under this crop. The area under wheat is usually slightly in excess of that under linseed, and has remained fairly steady except during and immediately after the famines; 70,000 acres were sown with it in 1906-07."[2]

The cultivation of both these crops recorded a higher trend in the post-independence period. This becomes evident from the statistics of the area under them:

Year	Wheat*	Linseed*
1953-54	76,054	71,710
1954-55	77,900	80,200
1955-56	95,600	108,900
1960-61	94,365	74,794
1961-62	1,00,125	83,717
1962-63	95,838	70,886

*Area in acres.

In the Sironcha tahsil, where garden crops play a very prominent part in the agricultural economy, tobacco is a very important crop, and occupies an area of about 1,800 acres in the Asaralli Ankisa tract. The Virginia tobacco produced in this tract is one of the best qualities and it is exported to foreign countries. The production of this foreign exchange earning commodity receives good encouragement from the Government in the form of crop finance, fertilisers and pesticides.

[1] *Chanda District Gazetteer*, 1909, page 149.

[2] *Ibid.*

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The conditions and methods of cultivation, in Chandrapur district in general and the *adivasi* tracts in particular, were of a primitive nature even up to the beginning of this century. The following extracts from the Chanda Gazetteer of 1909 make it evident :—

"There is no deep ploughing; almost all crops are sown broadcast; little attention is paid to double-cropping or to the introduction of new varieties of crops; weeding is systematically neglected; manuring is confined to *baris* and double-cropped rice land; the value of rotation is not recognised; improvements are unknown, and is not even taken to keep existing tanks in repair. Everything is left to soil and climate, but climate and soil are such that the cultivator, so far from suffering for his negligence, regularly reaps crops that the more diligent toilers of less favoured tracts might well envy".

"To the bulk of the population of the zamindari, cultivation is merely a secondary means of winning a livelihood, and agricultural produce simply serves to supplement the food supply forthcoming from the jungle. The call of the jungle is for ever in the ears of the Maria, he is for ever, so to speak, agog to 'pull out on the long trail', and his hereditary instinct for migration appears to have lost little, if any, of its primeval power. So although in the neighbourhood of the *khalsa*, we do find a certain amount of fairly stable cultivation, the typical cropping of these tracts is slovenly and shifting and bears the impress of the woodman rather than that of the farmer. . . . . rice is simply thrown broadcast among the ashes and nature is left to do the rest. No ploughing is required, so from the cultivators point of view the process is the acme of economy. . . . . After one year or at most two the plot is abandoned, and the brushwood upon it allowed to recuperate. It either reverts permanently to its pristine state of jungle or remains undisturbed for a period of at least ten years until the new growth is sufficiently luxuriant to tempt somebody to repeat the process. The system is a very wasteful one, and a good deal has been done to restrict it in estates under the management of the Court of Wards, but it is suited to the simple appliances of the aborigines, and within limits, and provided that care be taken to conserve valuable timber it is the best that could be devised for these stretches of wilderness, which are simply in the pioneer state of civilisation".

Though 'the pioneer state of civilisation' has not advanced into a developed state of cultivation, and though primitive methods have not given way to scientific appliances, there has been remarkable progress in the various aspects of the agricultural economy. There has been a widespread realisation of the importance and feasibility of intensive cultivation. The cultivators, except those in the *adivasi* areas, have now become conscious of the profitability and efficacy of improved methods of farming. There is greater awareness that ploughing with the iron plough,

sowing with a coultered drill and interculturing with a hoe lead to higher productivity. The use of mechanical appliances is by no means absent. Green manures as well as chemical fertilisers have come to occupy a significant place in the farmers' list of farming requirements. Pesticides, insecticides, and fungicides which were hardly known to the peasants have come into gradual use. The efforts of the Agriculture department to persuade the cultivator to adopt improved methods of cultivation have led to satisfactory progress. Crop competitions and demonstrations have encouraged the farmer to use the available chemical fertilisers and pesticides. The hybrid seed movement launched by the Government of Maharashtra since 1964-65 has given rich dividends in evolving pest-resisting and high yielding strains of wheat, jowar, paddy, cotton, etc. The hybrid seed movement has been successful in multiplying agricultural produce and in increasing the income of the farmers. The movement has a very bright future in the district.

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There are seed multiplication centres at Ekarjuna, Bothali, Vehad, Sonapur Chunala and Sindewahi where improved seeds of paddy, jowar, wheat, cotton, sesame, gram, etc. are multiplied. The Sindewahi Agricultural Research Centre, which was established in 1957-58, has been instrumental in evolving improved strains and in acclimatising high yielding and pest resistant varieties of seeds. Sindewahi also provides the necessary facility for training the agricultural extension officials who are an integral part of the State machinery for agricultural extension. The Japanese method of paddy cultivation was started for the first time in the district at Sindewahi in 1958-59. The Brahmapuri and Mul areas were brought under this method in 1959-60, while Warora area adopted it in 1960-61.

The *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns which were launched by the Agriculture department in 1958-59 have yielded good results in the form of increased yield.

It should, however, be noted that the progress evaluated above has been very slow and discouraging among the *adivasis* who form a sizeable proportion of the population. The *adivasi* farmer who is extremely ignorant and conservative is less amenable to change. His aversion to change coupled with extreme poverty deprives him of the fruits of Government activities.

Implementation of the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act of 1947, which began in April 1960 in this district, has done a great deal in the domain of cultivation. Under this Act, fragmentation and subdivision of holdings is prohibited. The consolidation of uneconomic and scattered holdings has achieved remarkable progress in this district. The statistics of consolidation work bear a testimony to this fact.

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PROGRESS OF CONSOLIDATION WORK IN THE DISTRICT, 1967.

Tahsil (1)	No. of villages covered (2)	Area covered (acres) (3)	No. of landholders covered (4)
Chandrapur	52	42,118	4,505
Warora	42	46,686	4,080
Brahmapuri	82	72,530	10,842
Gadhchiroli	14	13,424	1,514
District Total ..	190	1,74,758	20,941

Under this scheme the standard area deemed to be the minimum for profitable cultivation is stipulated at two acres for dry crop lands, one acre for rice land and half an acre for irrigated land. The plots of land smaller than the stipulated standard area are treated as fragments, and their sale is prohibited except to the contiguous land owner.

Prior to the progressive land legislation in the post-independence period there was a multiplicity of tenures and systems of tenancy.[1] Under the *malguzari* system the *malguzar* was a feudal lord having uninhibited rights over a village or villages, while the cultivators were helpless tenants at will who could be evicted by the feudal lord. The zamindari system was also fraught with numerous evils. The element of uncertainty of tenure, the denial of proprietary rights to the tenants and the wasteful methods of the malguzars and zamindars were the greatest handicaps in the way of agricultural development. There was no incentive for the cultivators to adopt intensive methods of cultivation and to bring about land improvement. The tenant at will could not but be driven to stick to the traditional methods of subsistence farming.

Since the implementation of the progressive land legislation, the tenant cultivator has been assured of the security of tenure and a right to cultivation of the land. This, in turn, has given him an incentive to adopt intensive methods of cultivation and to make the necessary improvements in the land. This has been instrumental in increasing the productivity of land.

The progressive impact of the legislation has however been circumvented by malpractices which result into eviction of the tenant under some pretext. Many a tenant are deprived of the expected benefits by the zamindars and malguzars. The state of affairs in the *adivasi* areas is still distressing.

[1]For details refer Chapter VIII in *Chanda District Gazetteer*, published in 1909, as well as Chapter 4 in the present volume. The *Chanda District Gazetteer of 1909* gives an interesting history of land revenue administration from the period of Gonds.

CHAPTER 9. Economic Trends. ECONOMIC PROSPECTS. Irrigation.

The quotations from the Chanda *District Gazetteer of 1909*, which are given below, throw a searching light on the state of irrigation in that period. "In the extent of its irrigated area, Chanda ranks second only to the Bhandara district. According to the *agricultural return for* 1906-07, the total area under irrigation in the District amounts to 1,23,823 acres, of which 118,400 acres are irrigated from tanks. This area is equal *to more than* one-fifth of the total area under irrigation in the Central Provinces and Berar. Prior to the famine of 1900, the area irrigated usually amounted to 150,000 or 160,000 acres, but that famine threw a vast quantity of land under insufficiently stable irrigation out of cultivation. Since 1902, however, when the irrigated area stood at under 110,000 acres there has been a fairly steady recovery to the present figures.

The chief sources of irrigation are the large lakes usually known as tanks, and the ponds known as *boris*. The number of these latter fluctuate considerably from year to year but at a rough estimate it may be said that there are 1,500 large tanks and as a rule some 4,000 *boris*. In Garhori almost every village has a large high level tank capable of irrigating up to 300 acres, and this pargana is so studded with these reservoirs that it has earned the title of the 'Lake District' of Chanda. If Sironcha be excepted, the District really possesses but few tank sites within village areas of which full use has not been made. For this the present generation of cultivators owes a debt of gratitude to its ancestors, and also to the wise provision of the Gond kings who, under the system of *tukum* grants, allowed each builder of a tank to hold the land irrigated by that tank rent free for a term of years".[1]

"Many *of these tanks* are extremely picturesque, and there are few more grateful sights to the official touring in the heavy rice country than the broad clear blue sheet of water which awaits him at the end of the morning march, reflecting perhaps the contour of surrounding hills and rocks and verdurous forests, and at any rate affording in the duck riding on its bosom and the snipe haunting its margin, both a pleasant recreation and a welcome addition to camp fare."[2]

The above description holds good even at present. In fact there has been remarkable progress in the state of irrigation. The area under irrigation increased to a considerable extent, viz., from 1,23,823 acres in 1906-07 to 2,41,796 acres in 1960-61 to 2,26,415 acres in 1961-62 and 2,48,841 acres in 1962-63. Of the 2,48,841 acres of gross irrigated area in 1962-63, 2,40,819 acres of land was under rice crop, and the remaining area was under chillis and other food crops. The tahsil-wise gross irrigated area in 1962-63 was as under: 32,019 acres in Warora tahsil, 63,786 acres in Chandrapur tahsil, 83,769 in Brahmapuri tahsil, 63,705 in Gadhchiroli tahsil, 5,294 in Sironcha tahsil and 268 in Rajura tahsil.

[1]*Chanda District Gazetteer*, 1909, pp. 177-78.
[2]*Ibid*, p. 179.

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ECONOMIC PROSPECTS. Industrialisation.

At the beginning of this century the important industries in this district were tasar silk industry, cotton weaving, smelting of iron ore, leather working, *polic* manufacturing, etc. The Chanda District Gazetteer of 1909 described the role of these industries as given below :

"The tasar silk industry has for some years attracted the attention of Government as a valuable and interesting cottage industry capable of considerable development."

"The cotton fabrics of Chanda formerly possessed a wide reputation for excellence and durability ; they used to be largely exported to western India, and Sir R. Jenkins mentions that prior to 1802 A.D coarse cloths made at Chanda found their way as far afield as Arabia ..... Much of this glory has now departed, although the *saris* of Chanda still possess a more or less extended reputation, and a certain amount of local cotton cloth is exported to Amraoti and Akola in Berar."

"Chanda is the only District of these Provinces the metal work of which received any notice from Birdwood in his 'Industrial Arts of India' He says of it: 'Chanda was formerly distinguished for its workers in the precious and baser metals, but much of their fame has now been lost owing to the decreased demand for their wares under British rule. The District, however, still (1880) possesses good goldsmiths and silversmiths, whose work is marked by the strongest local character.'

Brass work is still carried on to a considerable extent the chief seats of the industry being Chanda, Nerl and Brahmapuri ; at the same time utensils of brass, copper and alloys are extensively imported from Poona, Nasik, Mirzapur and Bhandara."

"The smelting industry of this District was formerly one of considerable importance, ranking second only to that of Jubbulpore Iron is abundant and widely distributed; it is also easily extracted and broken up and therefore eminently adapted to the simple native methods of mining and smelting. Of late years, however, the industry has been rapidly on the decline owing to the pressure of foreign competition, and this downward tendency has been accelerated by the recent famines; heavy charges for fuel and the rise in wages caused by railway construction have also in large measure contributed to the general depression of the smelters."

Subsequently, however, the economic boom during the two world wars and the post-war period gave rise to a few mechanised industries, such as ginning, oil extracting, glass ware, potteries and paper manufacturing. Most of this industrial development was based on the availability of agro-industrial raw materials and forest resources.

The district is rich in minerals and forest wealth. Apart from a number of coal mines, there are four large-scale industries

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manufacturing paper, glass ware, pottery and oil. With availability of abundant raw materials, coal, iron ore and electric power from the Ballarpur Thermal Station, future prospects for industrial development in the district are very bright.

The paper and paper products industry has considerable scope for development in Chanda. The Ballarpur Paper and Straw Mills with a production capacity of 35 tons per day has plans for expansion up to 120 tons per day. The paper factory is the only one of its type in Vidarbha region. The ample forest wealth offers abundant scope for the establishment of wood seasoning factories, saw milling and the lucifer match industry. The availability of valuable timber and wood, as well as the facilities of electric power, water-supply and cheap labour are very important in this respect

Besides, Chandrapur district provides a very favourable ground for the development of industries, such as, ceramics, pottery, tiles and non-metallic mineral products.

The Master Plan for Industrialisation, prepared by the State Government in 1960, made valuable recommendations regarding industrial resources and development in the district. The Master Plan recommended the establishment of a plant for pig iron by low shaft furnace technique. It may be noted here that there was a proposal to establish an iron and steel project in this district. But the proposal did not materialise because of the non-availability of coking coal. The Government of India, therefore, decided to establish a pig iron plant, in the private sector, in this district. The proposed plant is expected to have a capital investment of about Rs. 15 crores. This plant will go a long way in the industrial development of the district.

The Master Plan also suggested that this district would be a suitable area for establishing factories for manufacturing cast iron pipes, ceramics and hardboards.

The industrial estate at Chandrapur is a noteworthy achievement in the industrial field. It has facilitated small industrial undertakings to get the benefits of common service, and facilities of location, power supply, transport and water-supply.

Chandrapur is favourably provided with electric power from the Ballarpur thermal power station. This power station commissioned during the first Five-Year Plan is one of the three thermal power stations in Nagpur division. Consumption of power for industrial purposes in the district is of a considerable magnitude. During 1961-62, 2,77,42,000 K.W.H. of electric power was consumed in the district. The power consumption increased by 8.20 per cent in 1962-63 and by 32.88 per cent in 1963-64 over that in 1961-62.

Co-operative Movement.

The co-operative movement is a great force influencing the economic set-up in the rural country side. It has played a significant role in changing the economic conditions in the fields

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of rural credit, agricultural marketing, small-scale and village industries, farming, housing and consumers societies. The simultaneous speeding of co-operative movement with the launching of the five year plans has brought about accelerated results beneficial to the economically weaker sections of the people.

The movement found an humble beginning in the district, in 1909, in which year the first co-operative organisation was established in Gadhchiroli tahsil. The first co-operative bank was organised in 1912 which went into liquidation in 1925. Co-operative central banks were organised at Brahmapuri and Warora in 1912 and 1913, respectively. However, these banks were closed as per government policy. This was followed by the establishment of the Chanda District Central Co-operative Bank, in January 1962, which was charged with the onerous responsibility of leading the co-operative banking movement in the district. The establishment of the District Co-operative Land Development Bank, in March 1961, was a great event in the field of agricultural finance. The existence of this organisation is very significant because it provides medium-term and long-term finance to the agriculturists for making improvements of a permanent nature, such as, digging wells, lift irrigation, bunding, trenching, etc. Another addition to the co-operative structure in Chandrapur District was the Chanda Urban Co-operative Bank which was registered in 1961-62. Though the area of operation of this bank is limited to Chandrapur town, it is instrumental in mopping up the savings, especially of the middle and lower income groups of people.

The co-operative movement in the district was confined mainly to credit activities in the past. Subsequently the area of operation of the co-operatives expanded to marketing, supply of agricultural requisites, small and village industries, irrigation, fishing, cattle breeding, forest labour, housing, etc. These societies have been of immense benefit to the respective sections of population. The following statement gives the number of co-operatives of various types in the district: -

Type of Co-operatives (1)	Number of Co-operatives		
	As on 30-6-65 (2)	As on 30-6-66 (3)	As on 30-6-67 (4)
District Central Co-operative Bank	1	1	1
Agricultural Credit Societies—			
(a) Large size Societies	28	28	28
(b) Primary Credit Societies	180	177	177
(c) Service Co-operative Societies	1,064	999	999
Non-Agricultural Credit Societies—			
(a) Urban Co-operative Banks	1	1	1
(b) Urban Credit Co-operative Societies ..	1	1	1
(c) Salary Earners Societies	18	20	21
(d) Thrift Credit Societies	3	3	3
(e) Mill Hand Societies	1	1	1

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The District Central Co-operative Bank with 25 branches in the district has played a pioneering role in advancing short-term and medium-term loans to agricultural credit societies, agricultural marketing societies and industrial co-operatives. Besides financial accommodation, it provides guidance and direction to the co-operative movement in the district. The Chanda District Co-operative Land Development Bank having five branches has made remarkable progress during the span of six years. It has done very valuable work through its schemes of medium-term and long-term loans, and rural debentures.

The agricultural primary societies covered 2,474 out of 2,755 inhabited villages in the district in 1966-67. It means that about 90% of the villages are covered under the movement. The percentage of rural population served by rural societies is about 87.

The co-operative movement has not made much progress in the field of marketing of agricultural produce. This lack of progress is attributable to the lack of progress in regulation of agricultural marketing. Unlike the districts in Western Maharashtra and Marathwada, the development of regulated markets has been extremely slow in Chandrapur. Though a few market committees have started functioning the turnover and coverage of trade is insignificant. This has hindered the development of linking of credit with marketing. The purchase and sale societies in this district have limited their functioning to the distribution of agricultural requisites and equipment and distribution of rationed articles. Besides, they are authorised by the Government to procure paddy, rice and jowar.

The co-operative movement, however, has made significant progress in the fields of processing industries, village industries, crafts and forest labour. The various co-operatives in these fields receive the much needed financial accommodation and managerial help from the co-operative department. The societies have contributed to a great extent towards improvement of the standard of living of the craftsmen and forest labourers.

Price Trends.

The study of price trends is of immense importance because it furnishes a key to the study of the economic conditions of the people. Apart from seasonal and temporary fluctuations in prices, there are cyclical as well as permanent fluctuations in the general level of prices. Here we are concerned more with the cyclical and permanent fluctuations as well as with the conditions born of the changes in the purchasing power of the rupee.

The Chanda District Gazetteer published in 1909 gave very valuable information about the price trends during the period between 1859 and 1909. The account of prices from the same is reproduced below:

"Before the development of communications [illegible] agricultural produce was [illegible] almost solely by local [illegible]

Agricultural produce
General course of prices.

variations were characterised by great abruptness from year to year according to the conditions of the particular season. So long as the monsoon was regular and harvests favourable, prices ruled at what would now be deemed an absurdly low figure, but a failure of the crops immediately sent them sky-high. The only regulating influences which operated to tone down the violence of these fluctuations were the habit of hoarding sufficient grain to meet the consumption of two years, and the maintenance of Public granaries. This period of insularity continued practically all over India till about the middle of the 19th century, and the Mutiny may be taken as the dividing line which separates it from the modern condition of affairs under which India is bound up in the commercial comity of nations, and the state of the cotton crop in Carolina reacts on the prices of cotton at Chanda. Thus prices prior to the Mutiny have, broadly speaking, but a topical value, and it need not be a matter for much regret that we have no reliable figure previous to 1832. Subsequently to the Mutiny, the chief influences which have permanently affected the course of prices in India as a whole are (1) the transfer of the territories of the East India Company to the Crown, a step which immediately resulted in a great development of commercial and industrial activity accompanied by large imports of the precious metals, and (2) the opening of the Suez Canal in 1870, which led to the development of the grain trade with Europe. Turning to more local influences, for Chanda, the crucial date is 1877 when the rail was opened as far as Warora; and the present year 1908, when the Warora line was extended to Ballalpur, thus bringing large tracts of hitherto insufficiently developed country within reasonable distance of the railway, should also mark the beginning of a new era. More temporary influences have been (1) periods of scarcity and famine, notably from 1861 1869, in 1897, and in 1900, at all of which periods the District itself suffered distress, and the great famine of 1877-78 in western and southern India, which caused a general rise in the price of food-grains all over India, and (2) the American War of Secession in 1861 1865, which created a strong demand for Indian cotton, and sent up the prices of agricultural produce in general."

"Development of communications and greater command of money have had the inevitable result of inflating the prices of agricultural produce. In considering the course of prices of such produce in this District subsequent to the Mutiny the following periods are to be distinguished: -

(1) 1859 1861. Normal period prior to development of communications.

(2) 1861 1869. Period of high prices culminating in famine.

(3) 1871 — 1878. Normal period: communications in course of development.

(4) 1878 1880. Period of high prices caused by famine in other parts of India.

(5) 1881 1896. Normal period: communication by rail now established as far as Warora.

(6) 1897 1902. Famine period.

(7) 1903 to date. Period of gradual recovery, crops approximating to normal.

"It is the normal periods that are of most permanent interest to the economic historian as displaying the steady upward trend of prices which accompanies development, and a fair idea of this upward tendency can be obtained by summarily comparing the rates of the three principal food crops raised in this District in various normal series of years. In the tabular statement below abnormal years are neglected. The prices entered are taken from the official returns and relate to petty retail transactions: they give a somewhat higher rate than the figures found in the books of *mahajans*, and they are by no means absolutely correct; but as a guide to the relative prices at various periods they may be accepted as fairly accurate:-

SEERS PER RUPEE

Year	Rice	*Juari*	Wheat
1859 1861	22·89	59·82	33·33
1871 1877	14·50	28·00	19·00
1881 1885	15·90	33·70	24·50
1886 1890	13·40	25·20	18·00
1891 1896	12·50	20·30	16·15
1903 1906	10·74	20·73	13·74

"The prices given above relate to Chanda city only. Rates differ in the various tahsils and within each tahsil itself, but the variations are not so extraordinary as to call for particular remark. At the recent settlement it was calculated that the rise in the prices of agricultural produce since the settlement of 1868 amounted to over cent per cent in the Chanda tahsil and the Upper Taluk of Sironcha, to 70 per cent. in Warora and the Lower Taluks, and in Brahmapuri to 40 per cent for rice, 70 per cent for wheat and linseed, and to 50 per cent for *juari*. Percentages are however too rigid to be satisfactory in calculations of this type, and perhaps a better idea of the general rise of prices may be gained from the following quotation from Mr. Chhotelal's Inception Report, dated 1896: 'It is well to add what the people relate regarding the rise of prices when they compare the current prices with those in

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pre-settlement days. They say that dhan was sold in pre-settlement days at Rs. 2.8 to Rs. 3 per *khandi*, while it is now sold at Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per *khandi*; juari was then sold at Rs. 4 per *khandi*, while it is now sold at Rs. 10 per *khandi*; til was sold at Rs. 7, Rs. 10 or Rs. 12 per *khandi*, while it is now sold at Rs. 20 or Rs. 23; and linseed was then sold at Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per *khandi*, while it is now sold at Rs. 20 per *khandi*. This shows that the people consider that prices have doubled since settlement. And striking a rough average of all crops, it is safe to say that prices have again gone up by between one-third and one-half since Mr. Chhotelal wrote the passage just quoted.

Prices of staple food-grains in Sironcha

"The course of prices in Sironcha calls for some brief remarks. At the first settlement in 1866 they stood at an abnormally high figure owing to the fact that the construction of the Godavari Navigation Works had brought about a large influx of outside labour. But, taking the years immediately preceding this artificial inflation of prices and excluding those years in which prices were forced up, the average price of the staple crops from 1847 to 1861 was rice 39, *juari* 51 and *til* 29 seers to the rupee. A good deal of difficulty was experienced at the recent settlement in determining how far these prices had advanced. There was practically no open bazar, and the official returns of the Upper Taluk were not to be trusted, as they related only to retail transactions on a very petty scale, while for the lower Taluks there were no official returns at all. The *mahajans'* books again are unreliable, for, to secure their own profits, they fix an artificial rate, at which they take grain at an unjustly low rate from the tenants in order to settle the running accounts which the latter keep with them. The rates prevailing in 1902 are given by Mr. Hemingway as follows:

SEERS PER RUPEE

	Rice	*Juari*	*Til*
Upper Taluks			
According to official returns	12	23	..
According to *mahajans'* books	22·5	45	..
Lower Taluks			
According to *mahajans'* books	18	42	15

"The general rise of prices has, therefore, not been without marked effect even in the landlocked Upper Taluk. The rise has indeed been even more marked there than in the more accessible Lower Taluks, as the figures of the original settlement appears to give the prices at which food was bought up

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for the market at Rajahmundry. Considering the lack of communications, this sharp increase is somewhat difficult to explain, but the existence of the railway at Warangal appears to have influenced the course of prices.

Prices of staple food-grains in the rest of the District. Rice.

"Excluding Sironcha, we may now consider the course of prices for each of the three staple food-grains of the rest of the District, rice, juari and wheat. During the period from 1834 to the Mutiny, the price of rice at the headquarters of the District ranged between 25 and 30 seers to the rupee. From 1859 to 1861, which are generally regarded as normal years, the average price was 22.89 seers. Thence forward until 1869 a series of bad years and, in a lesser degree, the improvement of trade due to the American Civil War, caused a sharp upward rise, and the course of prices ran as follows: 1862, 15 seers; 1863, 12.5; 1864 and 1865, 9; 1866, 11.6; 1867, 7; 1868, 10.2; 1869, 5.9[1]. Ensuing years witnessed a return to the normal which may be said to have lasted till 1896, with one break in 1878–1880 when prices went up owing to the Madras and Bombay famines from 1871–1878, the average rate was 21.3 seers: during the abnormal period 1878–1880 it rose to 10.7 seers. The remaining 15 years of the normal period may be divided into three quinquennia, during each of which a gradual but persistent rise in value may be remarked. For this, improved communications are accountable, but the inflation of prices in rice is less remarkable than in the case of other crops, chiefly because rice is mainly grown for local consumption but partly also because it was yielding uniformly good outturns during these years. The average prices for each quinquennium were:

1881	1885	..	15.90 seers
1886	1890	..	13.40 seers.
1891	1895	..	13 seers.

"The year 1896 with an average price of 12.2 seers was the last of the normal seasons and since then the average price has been 10.6 seers. In the famine of 1897, which was a period of heavy exports, prices averaged 8.9 seers, and went as high as 7.2 in August; in the 1900 famine, 8.7 seers was the average, and 7.3 the higest price reached.

Juari. "The price of juari in 1832 is given by Major Lucie Smith as 34 seers to the rupee. From 1834 to 1859, the price varied between 40 and 60 seers to the rupee, and in 1860 the extremely low figure of 80 seers to the rupee was recorded. There was a sharp rise in 1861, when prices went up to 38 seers, and in the ensuing eight years of distress very high quotations were reached. In 1862 the rate was 20 seers, for 1864 it had risen to 13.7; it then declined to 20 seers for 1866, but again went up, this time to the high figure of [illegible] in 1869. Then followed the period of normal prices [illegible]

[1]Figures from 1834 to 1869 are for uncleaned rice and [illegible]

fluctuations of juari displayed exactly the same characteristics as have already been noted in dealing with rice. Excluding the exceptional years 1878-1880, when the rate went up to 19 seers, the gradual rise of prices consequent on the opening of the railway in 1877, is shown by the periodical averages given below:

Years	Average price in seers per rupee
1871-1877	28
1881-1885	29.5
1886-1890	24.5
1891-1895	20.5

In 1896 the rate stood at 17.5 seers. The next quinquennium 1897-1901 includes both famines, and the average price of juari rose to 15.1, reaching its highest annual figure in 1900 when the average price was 9.7 seers. Three times viz., during the months of August 1897, and June and August 1900, the prevailing rate rose to 8.1 seers. In the following quinquennium 1902-06 there was a marked fall and the average price attained 20.6 was equivalent to that obtaining in the years immediately preceding the famines.

Wheat. "In 1832, according to the figures given by Major Lucie Smith, the average price of wheat at the headquarters of the District was 22.8 seers. From 1839 to 1860, the rate fluctuated between 32 and 41 seers, the latter figure being recorded in 1859, which may be looked upon as the last year of patriarchal cheapness in Chanda. From 1861 to 1869 the rise was rapid, the rates, according to the same authority, being 25 seers in 1861, 16 seers in 1862, 13.7 in 1863, 11.7 in 1864, 12.5 in 1865 and 1866, 7.7 in 1867, 11.8 in 1868, and 8.7 in 1869. During the ensuing normal period, the figures were as follows:

Years	Average price in seers per rupee
1871-1877	19
1881-1885	22.5
1886-1890	19
1891-1895	16

During the temporary pressure of prices in 1878-1880 wheat was forced up to 13 seers per rupee. In 1896 the retail price of wheat was 14 seers. In the ensuing quinquennium of scarcity, diversified with famine, an average of 9.9 seers was reached, the culminating price being 8 seers in 1900. From 1902 to 1906 the average price recovered to 12.5 seers.

Prices of other agricultural produce.

"The table of prices given in Major Lucie Smith's report shows no returns for cotton prior to 1839, when it is shown as selling at the rate of a little over 8 seers to the rupee. This very low figure has never again been approached, and already by 1844 we find that the price has risen to 3.25 seers. Henceforward until the outbreak of the American War, prices ruled between about 3 and 4½ seers to the rupee, but as soon as the war began to affect the market they went up with a bound. According to Major Lucie Smith's figures they ranged between 1 and 2 seers from 1862 to 1869, but, in view of the general drop in prices all over India after 1865, it appears probable that there is some mistake in his figures for the later years. From the cessation of the war until 1884, prices seem to have continued with very slight fluctuations at the rate of about 5 to 6 seers to the rupee, the only exceptional years being 1871 and 1872 when the rates rose to 1.5 and 2.5 seers, respectively. In 1885, the price went up to 2 seers, and from that date till 1903 the rate never fell below 2½ seers: in 1907 it stood at 1½ seers. Linseed sold at 11 seers to the rupee in 1866: from 1867 to 1894 the rate varied from 8 to 15 seers: in 1895, it rose to 6.7 seers, but fell again to 10 in 1898. In 1901 and 1902 it stood at only 6 seers, but decreased in 1903 to 8 seers. In 1907 it stood at 7 seers. Til stood at 10 seers in 1866, varied from about 8 to 12½ seers between 1867 and 1887: it made a sharp advance in the following year, and between 1888 and 1894 fluctuated between about 6 and 7 seers. In 1907, the rate was 6 seers. Gram sold at an average rate of 13.7 seers from 1891 to 1895, of 12 seers from 1896 to 1900, and of 13.2 seers from 1901 to 1905. In 1907 the rate was 9 seers.

Salt

"From 1862 to 1874 the trade in salt was hampered by the existence of the customs line, and the average cost was 13 lbs. per rupee. On the abolition of the line in the latter year, the price immediately fell to 17 lbs. In 1878, when the salt duty was lowered from Rs. 3 to Rs. 2-8 per maund, the price stood at 18 lbs. per rupee, at which figure it remained until 1882 when it fell to 20 lbs. In that year a further reduction of duty to Rs. 2 per maund was effected, and from 1883 till 1887 the cost of salt averaged 22 lbs. to the rupee. In 1888 the duty was again raised to Rs. 2-8 per maund, and thenceforward until the policy of reducing the duty was renewed in 1903, the average cost was 19 lbs. The recent reductions of duty, *viz.*, to Rs. 2 per maund in 1903, to Rs. 1-8 in 1905, and to Re. 1 in 1907 have naturally resulted in a corresponding decline in the cost of salt which is now sold at 36 lbs. (18 *pailis*) to the rupee.

Prices of other common articles.

"The following are the present retail prices in Chanda bazar of the common necessaries of life most in demand. Bricks for building houses cost from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 per 1,000; country tiles Rs. 2-8 to Rs. 4 per 1,000; sand, 4 cart loads a rupee; bamboos, Rs. 2 to Rs. 7 per 100; small *tattas* for thatching 1'-6" × 1'-2" Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 per 1,000; large *tattas* 6' × 6' are sold at two to six

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rupee; small beams cost Re. 1, large Rs. 6 each; rafters or wattas if of teak cost Re. 1 each, of other kinds of wood Rs. 15 per 1,000. A bottle of country liquor holding 60 tolas or three-quarters of a seer, is sold at 10 annas or Rs. 1-4 according to strength. Country sugar is retailed at $2\frac{1}{4}$ seers to the rupee, other sugar at 4 seers, gur at 6 seers; potatoes 8 to 10 seers per rupee; brinjals 2 pice and onions 4 pice a seer; chillies 3 seers the rupee; cloves 14 annas a seer, cardamom 20 tolas to the rupee; cocoanut oil 12 annas, and linseed, til and castor oil 10 annas per seer, milk 8 seers to the rupee; ghee Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4 per seer; cotton seed (*sarki*) 17, and oil-cake 15 seers per rupee; tamarind fruit, two maunds of 12 seers each per rupee. Firewood costs Rs. 1-8 to Rs. 2 per cart-load; cow-dung cakes 4 annas per 100; karbi Rs. 6-4 per 100 bundles, grass Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 per 1,000 *pulas*. Cooking utensils are retailed at Rs. 1-12 per seer if of brass, at Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-12 per seer if of copper; if of the alloy of zinc and copper or brass called bharat the price is Rs. 1-2 per seer. Large iron buckets cost from Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4, and small from 8 to 10 annas a piece. Common kerosene oil is sold at Rs. 2-8 per tin or 2 annas a bottle. Among leather articles, mots cost from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20, hand buckets Rs. 3 to Rs. 5, rope, 75 feet long and 1½ inches in diameter Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 a piece; shoes, Re. 1 to Rs. 1-8 a pair. Common cloth sells at 3 to 4 annas a yard; a pair of ordinary dhotis fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-4 and the coarse cloth known as khadi is sold at Rs. 1-4 per than of 20 by 1½ cubits. Cotton and newar tape for cots is sold at from Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 for a piece 100 cubits long and 4 inches broad; ordinary sewing thread is sold at three pice a reel; a box containing 20 white muttas of No. 30 and weighing four seers is sold at Rs. 6. The prices of country carts are Rs. 40 to Rs. 100 for a dhamni, Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 for a rengdi, Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 for a khachar, Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 for a bandi, and Rs. 100 or Rs. 150 to Rs. 200 for a tonga"*

In the period that followed, a fall in the purchasing power of the rupee was visible. Apart from the fluctuations of a seasonal and temporary nature, the prices of all goods have been rising. During the First World War prices of almost all goods rose sharply. This trend of higher prices continued till the Great Depression of 1930. The depression which produced an adverse impact on the economies of the U. S. A., U. K., France and Germany had an adverse effect on the prices of primary goods in the international markets. This led to a momentous slump in the prices as well as demand for Indian goods in the international markets. The Indian economy received a severe setback. The slump continued till 1933, after which there was a revival of prices and demand.

The outbreak of hostilities in 1939 was an important event in the economic history of this country as well. Being a part of the

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District, 1909, Volume A: pp. 205–15.

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British Empire, India had to bear many of the economic evils forced on her. Prices shot up from the end of 1939. The acute shortage of consumers goods caused the prices to rise continuously. Consequent upon the shortage of goods there was a deplorable trail of black-marketing and hoarding. Consumers goods such as cloth, sugar, kerosene and many of the luxury goods were scarce. The Government enforced the rationing of consumers goods. The cessation of hostilities in 1945 brought down the prices to some extent. The next important event which brought about the rise in prices was the Korean War boom. The price rise in the international markets during the war found its reflection in the Indian economy which in turn affected the economy of Chanda district as well. After the Korean War boom there was a slight fall in prices, but it was only short-lived.

Prices did not show a consistent trend during the period between 1952 and 1958. The satisfactory harvest conditions during 1953, 1954 and 1955 were responsible for keeping the prices of agricultural produce well under control. Prices, however, started rising from 1956-57, and registered a high level in 1959-60. The level of prices came down in 1960-61 and 1961-62 mainly because of satisfactory harvests.

The outbreak of hostilities with China threatened the dislocation of the economy of India and brought about a sporadic trend of rising prices. With the declaration of National Emergency in October 1962 a need was felt to watch the behaviour of prices. In pursuance of Government policies, collection of the statistics of prices in the markets in Chanda district was started in November 1962. The price trends in the case of important commodities as elaborated in the *Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract, Chanda District** are furnished below.

Prices in 1963. The prices of most of cereals fluctuated during the year 1963. At the earlier part of year, the wholesale price of rice of fine variety was Rs. 62, medium Rs. 55 and coarse Rs. 50 per quintal but at the end of the year the prices of these three varieties increased to Rs. 84, Rs. 62 and Rs. 58, respectively. The wholesale prices of wheat remained almost stable. But the price of jowar (white) fell to Rs. 36 from Rs. 42 per quintal at the end of the year. Similarly the prices* of bajra declined from Rs. 31 to Rs. 27 at the beginning of the year.

The price of gram increased from Rs. 48 to Rs. 55 at the end of the year, which resulted in the increase of the price of gram dal from Rs. 52 to Rs. 65. *Arhar (dal)* increased considerably from Rs. 83 to Rs. 115. Similarly the price of *mung* increased

*Publication of the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra.

Prices are given per quintal except otherwise specified.

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from Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 at the end of the year. But the prices of *udid* and *masur dal* decreased slightly at the end of the year.

Sugar showed a gradual increase, and the rate was controlled at Rs. 1.29 per kilogram in fair price shops. But due to the scarcity of sugar, the price of *gul* nearly doubled during the year.

The price of edible oils increased in the middle of the year but slightly decreased at the end of the year. Groundnut oil decreased from Rs. 206.25 in the beginning of the year to Rs. 195 at the end of the year. There was a slight increase in the prices of meat, fish, eggs and vegetables during the year. The price of kerosene rose from 36 paise to 49 paise per litre by the end of the year.

The prices of cloth remained unaffected throughout the year. Marginal changes were noticed sometimes.

Prices in 1964:—During the 1964 calendar year the prices of most of the cereals fluctuated. The retail prices of rice of fine, medium and coarse varieties were 88 paise, 84 paise and 66 paise, respectively, per kilogram during the earlier part of the year. The price of the fine and medium quality rice decreased to 80 paise and 75 paise, respectively, during later part of the year. But coarse rice became slightly costlier because of fall in market arrivals. The wheat price of medium and coarse qualities rose from 70 paise and 58 paise to Rs. 1.25 and Rs. 1.07, respectively. The prices of jowar and bajri rose gradually from 43 paise and 48 paise to 60 paise and 55 paise, respectively, during 1964.

The prices of all pulses except *udid* increased during 1964. Gram and gram *dal* went up from 63 paise and 71 paise to Rs. 1.34 and Rs. 1.64 per kilogram, respectively, by December. *Arhar* dal increased nearly one and a half times from Rs. 1.06 to Rs. 1.57 at the end of the year. The prices of *mung dal* and *masur dal* increased from 83 paise and 81 paise to Rs. 1.20 and Rs. 1.41, respectively by the end of the year.

Groundnut oil price increased from Rs. 2 to Rs. 2.25 per kilogram. The market prices of meat, fish and vegetables registered a steady increase during the course of the year. Dry chillis experienced a decline in price from Rs. 2.85 to Rs. 2.50 per kilogram. Cloth and utensils however maintained stability of prices during 1964.

Wage Trends.

As stated earlier in this volume, agriculture is the principal means of livelihood of the people in Chandrapur district. It provides work to nearly 82.08 per cent of the working population as per the 1961 Census returns. Landless labourers comprise a large section of the population. It is therefore necessary to study the trends of wages of agricultural labourers and craftsmen.

The Chanda District Gazetteer published in 1909 throws a searching light on the wage trends during a period of about

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fifteen years between 1893 and 1908. The relevant account from the same is reproduced below :—

Statistics of Wages.—"An able-bodied agricultural labourer earned Rs. 4-8 per month in 1893, Rs. 5-2 in 1895, Rs. 4-12 in 1897 and Rs. 5 in 1898. His wages were reduced to Rs. 3-12 in 1899, a rate which continued till 1901, as a result of the famine of 1900. They recovered to Rs. 4-11 in 1902 and 1903 and at the present time (1909) the wages of agricultural labour vary from 2 annas to 3 and 4 annas a day. In the towns of Warora and Chanda coolies can earn 4 to 6 annas daily. These rates are for males only. Females get half the wages of males. A common blacksmith earned Rs. 9-8 per mensem in 1893. During the next four years his earnings varied between Rs. 10 and Rs. 10-8 and fell to Rs. 9-8 in 1898 as a result of famine in 1897. Since then they have improved and we find Rs. 11-4 recorded during the following three years. In 1902 they rose to Rs. 13-2 and in 1903 to Rs. 15 a month. Now (in 1908) he receives 8 annas a day in Sironcha, 12 annas in Chanda and up to a rupee in Warora. A common mason is shown as having earned Rs. 10-6 a month in 1893, Rs. 13 in 1895, Rs. 12-8 in 1897, Rs. 10-5 in 1899 and Rs. 11-4 in 1900. The wages improved in 1902 and 1903 when he received Rs. 13-2 as his monthly income. In 1908 he got 10 annas a day rising to a rupee in Warora. A common carpenter who is better paid than either the blacksmith or the mason earned Rs. 12 a month in 1893, Rs. 12-4 in 1896, Rs. 14 in 1898 and Rs. 12-9 in 1899. In 1900 he received Rs. 13-2 and since then his wages have decidedly improved, having risen to Rs. 14 a month in 1901, Rs. 15 in 1902 and Rs. 18-12 in 1903. In 1908 he was getting from 12 annas a day to Rs. 1-4, the latter being the rate obtainable in Warora.

Farm-servants.—"In Chanda tahsil the common term for an agricultural servant in regular employment is *awari*, and in Warora he is called *Saha korvya manus* or the man getting 6 *kuros*. In Sironcha the Telugu word *paleru* is used. The dependants of an *awari* or *Saha korvya manus*, i.e., his wife or his small son, if they assist him in his duties, are called *rapte*. Farm-servants receive the bulk of their wages in grain, an arrangement which tells in their favour when, as of recent years, the prices of agricultural produce range high. There has, it is true, been a tendency in the rice tract to reduce the actual amount of grain paid to the farm-servant, but this reduction has not been affected in anything like inverse ratio to the increase in the price of grain. Thus, at the first settlement the servant of a rice cultivator received 740 seers of rice as his yearly wage besides grain perquisites amounting to 315 seers: now he only gets 600 seers and grain perquisites amounting to about 130 seers, but meanwhile prices have risen roughly cent per cent. In the open-field tract the amount of grain remuneration has risen from 635 seers of juari at the last settlement

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to 725 seers at present, and thus, having regard to the rise in the price of juari, it is obvious that the farm-servant of this tract has considerably improved his position.

"At present the fixed monthly wage of a farm-servant in regular employ in the rice tract is 5 *kuros* of *dhan* per mensem in most tracts, and 6 *kuros* in the Warora tahsil. In the open field tract the monthly rate is 5 kuros and 2 *pailis* of juari. But in either case this remuneration is swelled by perquisites of various kinds. Thus in the open tract, the farm-servant gets a *paili* of each kind of grain sown; when employed in watching the crops he may take three *pailis* of juari each day as remuneration, and besides this he will probably have a fighting-cock to bear him company which with its living will pick up a free living among the juari pods: he has the right of *sarwa* or gleaning the field, and in addition to this he gets about three *kuros* for cutting and bringing the crop to the threshing-floor. In this latter task his wife assists, and the dues he receives for it are known as *wata-wadga*, because the woman holds out her cloth so as to form a hollow (*wata*) which is filled with ears of juari while the man gets a *wadga* or basketful of grain for his share of the work. Besides this the wife gets an allowance of three *kuros* for bringing food to the field: this is called *upsara*, and she also grinds the master's grain and makes cow-dung cakes for him, taking half of the latter in reward for her labour. In the rice tract the servant gets four annas as a *pourboire* during the damp process of transplantation: he has the right of gleaning, while at reaping time he takes a handful out of each *bojha* or headload that he carries to the threshing-floor. If employed on *rakhwali* or watching the crops, he can cut two *pailis* of *dhan* per diem. In both the rice and open tracts alike, there are various other perquisites and privileges. Thus each year the servant gets Rs. 2 to buy himself a blanket (locally called *waz*) and Re. 1 or Re. 1-4 to buy a pair of shoes and free food is given at the cost of the master at the festivals of Pola and Nagpanchami. Another right, known as *matera*, is that of taking the sweepings of the threshing-floor after threshing is over and extracting the grain from them. Again, being as it were the natural priest of the god of the threshing-floor, the farm-servant gets an allowance of grain called *khatdeo* for offerings prior to threshing. Other privileges are free firewood to the extent of two cart-loads and a rupee's worth of thatching grass. It is rather difficult to calculate what all these extras amount to in the aggregate, but they may roughly be estimated to average between half a *khandi* and one khandi, apart from the cash doles."

Casual agricultural labourers.— "Casual agricultural labourers, employed at periods of exceptional pressure, usually get two *pailis* a day, or, if required to watch a crop at night, three *pailis*. For sowing and weeding women are as a rule employed,

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and are remunerated at the rate of one *paili* a day for the former and three pice a day for the latter. For transplanting rice, a man is paid Re. 1 for five days and a woman Re. 1 for ten days. For reaping juari men get 4 *pailis* and women 2 *pailis* a day, for wheat the rate is two *pailis* of the grain for men and one *paili* for women. Other grains are usually paid for in cash at 2 annas a day. The picking of cotton is paid for by a share of from 1/16th to 1/20th of the amount picked.

Village grazier.—"The regular village grazier is called the *dhorki* and gets 1 anna per month for each head of cattle under his charge. The cattle are grazed at the owner's risk, and the grazier is exempted from making good any losses, an irresponsibility which is sometimes, though not often, abused. Two or three tenants often club together and hire a boy to look after their animals, while very well-to-do persons have a private grazier employed exclusively in their own service. Wealthy landlords hire a woman as *shenakari* to collect and stack the cow-dung of their cattle. She either stacks it for fuel or pits it for manure, and she has also other duties such as *leeping* the floor and whitewashing the walls.

Village Servants.—"Village servants in name and duties usually correspond to those found in other Districts of the Province, and their functions are for the most part so familiar that they require no detailed description. The Lohar or Khati gets 2 or 3 *kuros* a year for attending to each tenant's ploughs, but the tendency is, as elsewhere, growing yearly stronger to remunerate him by the job. So also with the Barhai or carpenter who is even more commonly paid by the job. The Mhali or barber (called Mangali in Sironcha) and Wathi or washerman (called Chakali in Sironcha) receive three to four *kuros* a year. On festive and ceremonious occasions they are generally given food and a small cash perquisite for drink in Sironcha. In some places the rate is one *kuro* of juari for each adult male in the family and perquisites amounting to about a *kuro* with some food on festivals. They are however not engaged by all tenants but only by malguzars and big tenants, poor tenants paying 2 pice each time they require their services.

"The Bhumak also called Deohari and in Sironcha Permadu worships the village gods and keeps off evil influences from the village. He also supplies *pan patrawali* or leaf-plates on festivals and at feasts, and cleans the cooking pots of Government officials visiting the village. For these services he receives one *kuro* or more according to circumstances from each tenant and perquisites amounting to about a *kuro*. He is sometimes given a piece of land rent-free (rent Rs. 3 or Rs. 4)."

"The Joshi or village priest has no fixed *hak*. He fixes the date of *sajoni* when the malguzar with his tenants starts ploughing. If he goes to the farm, every tenant gives him

from 4 to 8 *pailis*. He is generally paid by the job. His fee for officiating at a marriage may be Rs. 1-4 and for reciting *katha* Re. 1. The Chamar known as Madgi in Sironcha is not a regular village servant and is said to be remunerated by job work in Chanda and Garhchiroli tahsils and by a fixed contribution in Warora and Sironcha tahsils. In Sironcha he receives one *kuncha* of juari (14 seers) for each species of articles he supplies, e.g., for a pair of shoes one *kuncha*, for leather thongs one *kuncha*, and so on. Besides he is customarily allowed to collect the remnants of the harvest floor. In Warora he gets 4 *pailis* to a *kuro* of juari per plough for the repairs of shoes, etc. For an ornamental shoe for which this District is famous he generally gets from Re. 1 to Rs. 1-12. The ornamental work is generally done in silk and takes the shape of flowers or pictorial fishes. An ordinary pair of shoes will fetch from 14 annas to Rs. 1-4."*

With changes in the price level from time to time the wages of different categories of workers underwent fluctuations. However, the rise and fall in the wage level have not kept pace with changes that have taken place in the price level.

The wages of agricultural labour as well as of craftsmen showed a rising trend during the past few decades. The wages of casual labour as well as of fixed wage earners have increased, though the increase in the case of the latter has been lower than that of the former. The earnings of carpenters, blacksmiths and other skilled craftsmen have increased considerably. Skilled jobs in agriculture are paid at a daily rate ranging from Rs. 3.50 in the sowing and harvesting season.

Field workers are paid at rates varying from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3. Women engaged in agricultural operations, such as, weeding, winnowing, cutting and harvesting are paid Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 2 per day. Certain types of operations are paid on the basis of turnover of work. A female worker gets about Rs. 2 to Rs. 2.50 per day during the harvesting season.

The wage earnings of almost all categories of casual labour decline during the months between February and June. During this period the workers turn to work in the forests. The wage earnings of skilled forest workers are far better than those of agricultural labourers. The extremely rich and varied forests in the district are a perennial source of employment to a considerable section of population in the district. The labour intensive operations such as felling, sizing, afforestation, bunding, trenching, collection of *tendu* leaves, charcoal making and many others offer fair wages to the workers. The government schemes regarding scientific management of forests have gone a long way in expanding the avenues of employment and earnings of labourers in the district.

**Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Chanda District*, 1909, Volume A, pp. 215—220.

The system of *balutewari* which was the basis of the self-sufficient village economy of the past is still prevalent to a limited extent. It has lost its importance during the last three decades. The *balutedras* (village artisans) consist of barbers, potters, shoemakers, carpenters, blacksmiths, washermen, sweepers, *mahars*, etc. They are paid in kind for the services rendered by them. The payment in kind may consist of paddy, wheat and jowar which is given at the harvest time. But this system is very much on the decline. The agriculturists now prefer to pay in cash rather than in terms of food-grains. Perhaps this is due to the rising prices of agricultural produce. This has an adverse effect on the economic position of some categories of artisans who have been compelled to search for other means of livelihood.

CHAPTER 10—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE IN THE LAST CENTURY consisted mostly in providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of governmental activities into what were called "nation-building" departments namely, Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague Chelmsford Reforms, greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularisation of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the description that follows in this chapter and in chapters 11—17 the departments of the State operating in the Chandrapur district have been grouped as follows:—

Chapter 10 — General Administration.
Chapter 11 — Revenue Administration.
Chapter 12 — Law, Order and Justice.
Chapter 13 — Other Departments.
Chapter 14 — Local Self-Government.
Chapter 15 — Education and Culture.
Chapter 16 — Medical and Public Health Services.
Chapter 17 — Other Social Services.

CHAPTER 10. General Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

Up to 1874, the district had only three tahsils, *viz.*, Mul, Warora and Brahmapuri. In 1874, Upper Godavari district of Madras, was abolished and four tahsils were transferred to Chandrapur district and made into one tahsil with headquarters at Sironcha. In 1895, the headquarters of one of the tahsils was transferred from village Mul to Chandrapur. A new tahsil with headquarters at Gadhchiroli was formed in 1905 by transferring the zamindari estates from Brahmapuri and Chandrapur tahsils. A small zamindari tract from Chanda district was transferred to the newly formed Durg district in 1907. An area of about 600 square miles consisting of three tahsils, *viz.*, Cherla, Albaka and Nugur was transferred from Sironcha tahsil to Madras State in the same year.

There were no major changes in the boundaries of the district or its tahsils between 1911 and 1955. With the reorganisation of the States in 1956, the district along with other districts of Vidarbha region was transferred from Madhya Pradesh to Bombay State.

Rajura tahsil which was a part of Adilabad district of former Hyderabad State was transferred to Nanded district in 1956. It was transferred from Nanded district to Chandrapur district in March 1959. Because of the different sets of laws in force, Rajura is actually notified as an independent district and a division in itself and is placed under the Collector, Chanda district and the Commissioner, Nagpur Division for administrative purposes. However, with the implementation of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966, the question of merging Rajura tahsil in Chanda district is under the consideration of the Government and necessary steps are being taken in that direction.

The Chandrapur district consists of six tahsils, *viz.*, Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli, Sironcha and Rajura. There are six prants or sub-divisions, each comprising one tahsil.

The district now covers an area of 26,128.70 km² (10,088.3 square miles) and according to the Census of 1961 has a population of 1,238,070. The administrative divisions as they stand at present are shown below:—

Name of Tahsil (1)	Area		Population (1961 Census) (4)
	Sq. miles (2)	Km.² (3)	
1. Chandrapur	1,174·0	3,040·66	296,807
2. Warora	1,282·0	3,320·38	238,323
3. Brahmapuri	897·0	2,323·23	226,924
4. Gadhchiroli	2,870·0	7,433·30	277,398
5. Sironcha	3,089·0	8,000·51	108,994
6. Rajura	776·3	2,010·62	89,624
Total ..	10,088·3	26,128·70	1,238,070

CHAPTER 10. General Administration.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

Chandrapur district is included in Nagpur Division. The Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur has jurisdiction over Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, Akola, Amravati, Buldhana and Yeotmal districts also.

The Commissioner is the chief controlling authority of the division in all matters concerned with land revenue and the administration of the Revenue department. He acts as an important supervisory and controlling link between the Collector and the Government. Appeals and revision applications against the orders of the Collector under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966, and the Tenancy Law lie with him. Besides revenue matters, he is also responsible for supervision of the work of the Collectors in their capacity as District Magistrates. He is responsible for the development activities in the division and has to supervise the work of regional officers of all departments concerned with development.

The following duties have been specifically laid down for the Commissioner:—

(a) supervision of and control over the working of revenue officers throughout the division;

(b) exercise of executive and administrative powers to be delegated by Government or conferred on him by law;

(c) general inspection of offices of all departments within the division;

(d) inspection of local bodies on the lines done by the Director of Local Authorities in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay;

(e) co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all divisional heads of departments with particular reference to planning and development; and

(f) integration of the administrative set-up in the incoming areas.

COLLECTOR.

The Collector is the head of the district administration and in so far as the need and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of other departments also.

Revenue.—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees, water wherever situated) and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of the Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purpose, is liable to payment of land revenue except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract. Such land revenue is of three kinds, *viz.*, agricultural assessment, non-agricultural assessment and miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in propor-

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. COLLECTOR.

tion to its productivity. The assessment is revised every 30 years tahsil by tahsil after settlement proceedings. The revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records department before a revision is made and the Collector is expected to review the settlement report with great care and caution. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of 30 years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons and determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, it can be altered when agriculturally assessed land is used for non-agricultural purposes. In the same way, unassessed land used for non-agricultural purposes is assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, revenue fines, etc.

Statistics of land revenue collections.—The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who has to see that the revenue dues are recovered punctually every year and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for in the branch of the *wasul-baki-navis*, both at the tahsil level and the district level.

The following are the statistics relating to the land revenue collection in Chandrapur district for the year 1966-67 :—

No. of villages in the district—	
Khalsa	3,382
Inam	Nil.
	Rs.
Gross fixed Revenue including non-agricultural assessment and all other dues.	39,15,134
Deduct—	
Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forest.	Nil.
Net alienation of total inams	Nil.
Assessment of cultivable land unoccupied ..	Nil.
Free or specially reduced	Nil.
Remaining fixed revenue for Collection—	
Agricultural	Nil.
Government occupied land including specially reduced.	Nil.
Alienated lands	13,74,970
Building and other non-agricultural assessment ..	Nil.
Fluctuating miscellaneous revenue	1,07,940
Local Funds (Demand for 1966-67)	8,80,342
Demand	39,15,134
Remissions	5,941
Suspensions	25,116
Collections	22,47,261
Unauthorised balance	16,36,816

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamps Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty

Act (I of 1923), and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The Collector and his office have to undertake recovery of such dues whenever necessary.

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As regards the administration of the Forest Act the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with the Collector, and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the administration except in matters relating to the technique of forestry. As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts. In fact, he is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise arranges to have the policy of the department carried out. The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act and Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950 (for Rajura tahsil only) in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of these Acts.

Inams.—All *inams* have been abolished under the Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, and Hyderabad Abolition of Inams and Cash Grants Act, 1954, and donations or cash grants for charitable purposes, grant to religious, charitable and public institutions and to the descendants of the Ruling Chiefs under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, have been sanctioned.

Public Utility.—Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their agricultural operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government for the time being and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as could be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the need. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time. After the loans are advanced to the borrowers, it is the duty of the Prant Officers and the Tahsildars to see that the loans are not utilised for purposes other than for which the same were advanced.

Accounts.—The separation of the treasury and revenue cadres at the district level has come into force with effect from April, 1955. Before the separation of the treasury work from the Revenue department, the Treasury Officer was from Revenue department and he had to perform various important executive functions in that connection. After the separation, the Treasury Officer became a member of the cadre of Maharashtra State Accounts Service and functioned independently. The treasuries are under the administrative control of the Finance department.

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At the district headquarters the cash business has been taken over by the State Bank of India and at the tahsil headquarters of Sironcha and Rajura where there are non-banking treasuries, the cash business rests with the sub-treasuries managed by the Sub-Treasury Officers. All other sub-treasuries in this district are banking treasuries and the cash business is with the Bank. The accounts are submitted to the Accountant General and the instructions laid down in the Accounts Codes and Compilation of Treasury Rules are followed by the District Treasury. Before the separation of treasuries from Revenue department the Collector and the Accountant General carried out periodical inspections of treasuries. As a measure of administrative control, the Collector inspects the district treasury once in a year before the close of the financial year and the Deputy Collectors inspect the sub-treasuries similarly. The Collector does not, however, participate in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work the Treasury Officer is his delegate and representative.

Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters.—Among these functions of the Collector on the revenue side apart from hearing appeals from the decisions of the Sub-Divisional Officers under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966, and various other Acts may be mentioned: (1) the revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdar's Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Tahsildar's orders under the Act. (This power is delegated to the Deputy Collectors); (ii) appellate powers under sections 53 and 57 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879); (iii) the work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of civil court decrees; and (iv) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

Local Self-Government.—With the passing of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, vital changes were effected in the village panchayat administration. It is now looked after by village panchayats constituted for the villages. The Collector is empowered to hold elections and bye-elections to the municipalities and the village panchayats. The various Acts governing local bodies have conferred upon the Collector as the chief representative of government authority to supervise the actions of the local bodies and to give them advice.

Officers of other departments.—The officers of other departments stationed at district headquarters are: (1) Commandant, District Sailors', Soldiers' and Airmen's Board, (2) District Superintendent of Police, (3) District Commandant, Home Guards, (4) Superintendent, District Jail, (5) Director, Relief and Rehabilitation, (6) Superintending Engineer, Defence Project, Chandrapur, (7) Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications, (8) Executive Engineer, Minor Irrigation Division, (8) Executive Engineer, Organisation and Method Division, Electricity Board, (9) Divisional Forest Officers, (10) Civil Surgeon,

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(11) Executive Engineer, Public Health Works Division, (12) District Publicity Officer, (13) District Industries Officer, (14) Superintendent of Fisheries, (15) District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (16) District Employment Officer, (17) District Statistical Officer, (18) Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, (19) Sales Tax Officer, (20) Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, (21) Treasury Officer, (22) Consolidation Officer and (23) Town Planner.

The services of the officers at the district level in their particular sphere can be requisitioned by the Collector either directly or through their official superiors. These officers of the district have more or less intimate contacts with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions pertaining to the development schemes under Five-Year Plans.

District Magistrate.—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other executive magistrates in the district. He exercises the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Indian Penal Code.

When authorised by the State Government the District Magistrate may invest any magistrate subordinate to him with the necessary powers. Besides being in control of the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations in order that he may gain insight into the state of crimes in the limits of the police stations and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884) and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts and functions laid down thereunder.

Sanitation and Public Health.—The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are (a) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases; (b) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the daily sanitary administration of municipal committees and other sanitary authorities; and (c) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary condition of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer, Chandrapur.

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.—The Collector acts as the President of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

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His duties relating to the Board are to promote and maintain a feeling of good-will between civil and military classes, to look after the family interests of serving soldiers, and to implement in detail the policies of the State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

COLLECTOR.

Control of essential articles.—There were 337 fair price shops functioning in the district for the sale of rice, wheat etc. and 998 shops for the sale of sugar as on 15th March 1968, under orders from the Collector. The periodical inspection of these shops is done by the inspecting staff to ensure efficiency in their working and prevent malpractices.

Collector's Office.—The Collector's office is divided into four branches as under:—

(1) Establishment branch, (2) General branch, (3) Land revenue branch, (4) Registry and typing branch. The Deputy Collectors at the headquarters are kept in charge of these branches.

PRANT OFFICERS.

Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (I.A.S. Officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Maharashtra Civil Service, Class I). There are in all six prants or sub-divisions in the district which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Officers.

Deputy Collectors at Headquarters.—There are four Deputy Collectors at the district headquarters for purposes of administration. Their designations are as follows:—

1. Resident Deputy Collector and Additional District Magistrate;
2. Leave Reserve Deputy Collector;
3. Land Acquisition Officer; and
4. Deputy Collector for Tenancy Law.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Tahsildars, and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and any other law in force or by executive orders in regard to the tahsils in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself.

TAHSILDARS AND NAIB-TAHSILDARS.

Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildar. There is also one Additional Tahsildar for tenancy law posted at each of the tahsils. At each of the tahsils there are four to five Naib-Tahsildars to assist the Tahsildar in the efficient performance of the revenue, nazul and other work in the tahsil. Besides, there is one Sales Tax Naib-Tahsildar for recovery of sales tax and income-tax dues attached to Chandrapur tahsil. Besides these, the following are other officers of Tahsildars' grade:—

Special Land Acquisition Officer,

Assistant Director of Small Savings and

Movement Officers (Food).

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Each tahsil has been divided into revenue circles (four to five circles). Each such circle contains 90 to 110 villages. For every revenue circle a Revenue Inspector is appointed for the revenue work of that circle. Patwaris are appointed for halkas; each halka contains on an average six to eight villages depending upon the size of the village.

TAHSILDARS AND NAIB-TAHSILDARS. Duties.

(i) *Revenue.*—The Tahsildar's revenue duties are to enquire and report on cases under various sections of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and other Acts to the higher officers who have powers to dispose of the matters. There are certain powers under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966, vested in the Tahsildars under which they themselves can dispose of certain matters.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue he is to prepare the *Jamabandi* of the tahsil. The *Jamabandi* of a tahsil is an audit of previous years' accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue as well as the non-agricultural demand is settled. There are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon the fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewari* with the determination of which the Tahsildar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stones, sand, melon beds, etc., when the individuals apply for them.

The main burden of the work of collection of land revenue, tagai dues and other dues recoverable as arrears of land revenue falls on the Tahsildar. He can issue notices, impose fines, distrain and sell moveable or immoveable property under the provisions of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966. In short, he is to follow the procedure laid down in various sections of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966, and the Rules thereunder.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions of the lease or any irregularities or encroachments upon Government land and to take immediate cognizance.

Applications for grant of tagai are received by the Tahsildar who makes enquiries into them through the patwaris, inspects the sites for the improvement of which tagai is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. Under the provisions of the Agricultural Loans Act and the Land Improvement Loans Act there are certain limits up to which he himself can grant the loan. If the granting of the loan is not within his powers he enquires into the case thoroughly and submits his report in the case for the orders of the Sub-Divisional Officer or the Collector, whoever is competent to pass final orders regarding the grant of the loan.

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TAHSILDARS AND NAIB-TAHSILDARS. Duties.

The Tahsildar's duties regarding tagai do not end with the granting of it; he has to see that the loan in question is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken with it, watch the payment and make recoveries from the defaulters. The Tahsildars are primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) and Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950 within the areas under their respective charges.

Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars (Mahalkaris) have been appointed for each tahsil for the work in connection with the implementation of the Tenancy Law. The Tahsildars are in overall charge of the tahsil administration and are not in any way concerned with matters coming under the purview of the Tenancy Law for which Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars are appointed.

(ii) *Quasi-judicial.*—There are multifarious duties the Tahsildar has to do in his capacity as a tahsil officer. He is also to enquire in respect of disputed cases in connection with the Record-of-Rights in each village. The matters which the Tahsildar has to enquire into, are registered under appropriate heads mentioned in the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966.

(iii) *Magisterial.*—Every Tahsildar is the *ex-officio* Taluka Magistrate of his tahsil. The Naib-Tahsildars are also appointed as taluka magistrates. They are to hear chapter cases under the Criminal Procedure Code from various police stations allotted to them. They have to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrates informed of all the criminal activities in their charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in their charge with the aid of police.

(iv) *Treasury and accounts.*—The Tahsildar is in charge of the tahsil treasury which is called sub-treasury. The sub-treasury is under the control of the Naib-Tahsildar designated as Sub-Treasury Officer. All moneys due to Government in the tahsil from land revenue, forest, excise, public works, sales tax and income-tax dues and other receipts are paid into the sub-treasury and credited to the receipt heads and drawn from it under cheques and bills. The tahsil sub-treasury is also the local depot for stamps, general court-fee and postal of all denominations, and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit-holders. A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub- treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. The withdrawals are made from it to replenish sub-treasury balances. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank of India for remittance of funds.

The Tahsildar has to verify the balances in the sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by

the Tahsildar to the District Treasury at Chandrapur. The sub-treasuries are annually inspected by the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officer. The district treasury is also inspected every year by the Collector.

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TAHSILDARS AND NAIB-TAHSILDARS. Duties.

(v) *Other administrative functions.*—In addition to the duties mentioned above, he is responsible to the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officer. He has to keep them constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreak of epidemics and other matters.

He generally helps or guides the officers of other departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his tahsil is concerned. He is responsible for the cattle census. The Tahsildar is also expected to propagate co-operative principles in his tahsil. The Tahsildar's position in relation to the tahsil officers of other departments, e.g., the Station Officers of the Police department, the Sub-Registrar, the Range Forest Officer, Medical Officer, Postmaster, etc., is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their respective spheres.

Though the Tahsildar is not expected to work directly for local bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them.

REVENUE INSPECTORS.

In order to assist the Tahsildar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants, Revenue Inspectors are appointed for every Revenue Inspector's circle. Each such Revenue Inspector has under him 25 to 30 patwaris. They form a link between Tahsildar and the village population.

The main duties of the Revenue Inspector as laid down in various manuals concerning revenue matters, and particularly the Revenue Inspector's Manual are as follows :—

(1) to supervise the work of Patwaris;

(2) to prepare, maintain and check *rasid-bahis*;

(3) to visit each patwari circle in his charge once in three months and each village once in each touring season;

(4) to submit report to Tahsildar and the Sub-Divisional Officer with a copy to District Superintendent of Land Records regarding condition of crops, rainfall, prices of foodgrains, fodder and water condition when called upon to do so;

(5) to report the occurrence of any calamity, i.e., outbreak of cattle disease, epidemic or any thing unusual affecting the condition of the people, crop or cattle;

(6) to conduct survey or measurement of land, prepare any maps or superintend any survey operations whenever required to do so by the revenue officers;

(7) to make local enquiry in respect of correctness of entries in village records and collect information relating to land or agriculture when required by any revenue officer;

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REVENUE INSPECTORS.

(8) to make immediate reports regarding damage from ha... storms, locust, floods, fires, etc., and failure of water-supp... permanent deterioration of land from diluvion, etc.;

(9) to attest all entries made by the patwaris in *kha*... relating to any land improvement to ensure the exemption ... such improvements from assessment;

(10) to watch the proper utilization of loans granted un... Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists Loans A... and report cases of misappropriation to Tahsildar for neces... action;

(11) to detect and report the cases of diversion of agricult... loans to non-agricultural purposes;

(12) to maintain a register of survey appliances passed by ... patwaris and to check the instruments once in every th... months;

(13) to check and sign the traced maps, copies of *Kha*... and *Kistbandi* prepared by the patwaris in connection with ... acquisition work: and

(14) to certify mutations only when they follow from ... execution or cancellation of a conditional sale or relates to ... imposition or discharge of a mortgage.

POLICE PATILS.

The police patil is the principal village official. Prior to January, 1963 there were revenue patils functioning at most ... the villages. From 1st January, 1963 the posts of revenue patils have ... have been abolished and equal number of revenue patils have been appointed as police patils under section 5 of the Bombay Village Police Act, 1867. In smaller villages only one person wa... doing the duties of revenue as well as police patil. The po... patil's duties are laid down in Bombay Village Police ... (VII of 1867).

PATWARI.

Generally one patwari is appointed for six or eight villages which are small. The charge depends on the size of the villa... and *khasara* numbers under each charge. The villages in ... charge comprise a *halka*. His main duties are —

(*i*) to prepare *panchsala khasara* as per roster approved ... the Collector;

(*ii*) to write land revenue or rental demand in *rasid-bahi*...

(*iii*) to prepare *kistbandi goshwara*;

(*iv*) to prepare statement of sales and leases for selected villages in the prescribed form;

(*v*) to prepare grazing lists for issuing *charai* passes;

(*vi*) to prepare tenants' list after *girdawari* every year;

(*vii*) to report cases of diversion of agricultural land to non-agricultural purposes;

(*viii*) to report regarding breaches of condition of *nist... wajib-ul-arz*;

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PATWARI.

(*ix*) to submit forecast reports of every crop in time to the district officers;

(*x*) to report about farm prices of commodities sold in weekly markets from selected villages;

(*xi*) to help in the recovery of land revenue and other Government dues during the visit of revenue officers;

(*xii*) to prepare *irsal-patti*; and

(*xiii*) to supply necessary village records to *chakbandi* officers and also to help them in their work.

VILLAGE SERVANTS.

The village servants or kotwals are appointed on fixed remuneration. There is generally a kotwal appointed by Government where the village is small. More than one are appointed where the village is big. They assist the village officers to collect land revenue, to summon villagers to the *chavdi*, to carry the land revenue to the tahsil office, to help the patil in the detection of offences and to help to apprehend known criminals and to keep law and order in the village.

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CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

WITH THE DAWN OF INDEPENDENCE AND WITH THE CHERISHED GOAL OF ESTABLISHING A WELFARE STATE, Government activities and expenditure have increased manifold. It is, therefore, imperative that other sources besides land revenue are also explored to augment the revenue of the Government exchequer. Taxes, both Central and State, form the core of the Government revenue.

In what follows is described in brief the functioning of those Government departments which are entrusted with the administration of these taxes.

DEPARTMENT OF LAND RECORDS

LAND RECORDS.

Original Survey and Settlement.

The Chandrapur district originally consisted of eleven *parganas* and 20 *Zamindaris* comprising an area of 25123 km² (9,700 sq. miles) containing 2273 inhabited villages and 328 deserted ones. The present Sironcha tahsil excluding the Ahiri estate was not a part of the present Chandrapur district. This portion of the Sironcha tahsil was taken in exchange from the Nizam of Hyderabad in the year 1860. Subsequently in the year 1907, the Ahiri *Zamindari* was included in it, thus forming the present Sironcha tahsil. Similarly, Gadhchiroli tahsil as it exists at present was carved out of portions taken from Chandrapur and Brahmapuri tahsils in the year 1905. The present Chanda district consists of the above tahsils on the east of Wainganga river and three *cis*-Wainganga tahsils of Chanda, Warora and Brahmapuri on the west of Wainganga. Rajura tahsil which was formerly attached to Nanded district in Aurangabad Circle is now transferred to Chandrapur district. But it is technically a district and a division administered under the Hyderabad Land Revenue Act.

Rayatwari, zamindari and *malguzari* systems of land revenue were prevalent in the district prior to the implementation of the Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, in March 1951. The rights of intermediaries were abolished under the provisions of this Act. The land revenue system now prevalent in the district is *rayatwari* and is based on a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of assessment of every field. The original survey settlements were introduced in the district between 1820 and 1826 and the revision settlements between 1863 and 1870. On the expiry of the 20 year term of the revision settlement, the second revision settlement was undertaken between 1897 and 1906. Further revision settlements of *cis*-Wainganga tahsils and of Sironcha and Gadhchiroli tahsils, introduced between 1918 and

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1923 and 1922 and 1924, respectively, still continue in force. The entire district, with the exception of 410 Maskati villages, has been surveyed and settled. The district is however overdue for revision.

LAND RECORDS.

Original Survey and Settlement.

The boundaries of villages are surveyed by fixing traverse stones with the help of theodolite machine and field to field survey is carried out, according to possession on spot, by chain and optical square method. Survey records in respect of theodolite survey are maintained by the District Superintendent of Land Records but no field books of individual survey numbers in respect of survey undertaken have been maintained. Boundary marks have not been fixed for each survey number in *ex-zamindari* and *ex-malguzari* villages but such boundary marks have been constructed in Rayatwari villages.

In the earlier period of settlement, the exterior boundaries of villages were laid down and the interior measurements proceeded with. But subsequent to the promulgation of the 'Excess Work Rules', the outer boundaries were defined only after the measurement of the fields, tanks and village sites and calculation of the proportionate allowable work.

Soil Classification.

Work regarding Soil Classification was undertaken at the time of settlement effected during the years from 1897 to 1906 and was again taken at the resettlement effected beween 1918 and 1923. Village maps were prepared showing the fertility of the soils in different colours. No new soil classification has been undertaken thereafter. The maps showing fertility of the soils in different colours prepared during the resettlement are preserved in the Revenue Record Room of the Collectorate. Survey number-wise classification is shown in the settlement misal which too is preserved in the Revenue Record Room of the Collectorate.

Settlement and Assessment.

Before the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, came into force, the settlement procedure, as prescribed under the Settlement Code of the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1891 was followed. This Act after being in force for nearly 35 years was repealed by the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1917, and subsequently by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code of 1954 (II of 1955). Under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954:—

(1) 'Settlement' indicates the results of the operations of a "Revenue Survey" carried out in order to determine the land revenue payable on all agricultural lands and the period during which such results are to be enforced is called "term of settlement" (Section 55) and this period shall in no case be less than 20 years [Section 80 (2)].

(2) The Settlement Officer appointed by the State Government under Section 59 (1) is required to examine fully the past revenue history of the area under settlement with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on economic conditions of the area during the period of current settlement with particular reference to the various statistical data available.

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Settlement and Assessment.

The Settlement Officer collects information in respect of the following matters in the manner prescribed under Section 70 and the rules under Section 73 by local enquiries in as many villages as possible—

(1) Position of the group and the number of villages which it contains;

(2) Important natural features, communications and trade;

(3) Population;

(4) Soils and any distinctive features in the system of agriculture in the group;

(5) Cultivation, irrigation and the number of ploughs;

(6) Cropping;

(7) Distribution of the occupied area between different classes of holders of land;

(8) History of assessment and the present pressure of assessment of soil class;

(9) Appreciation of general circumstances of the group with special reference to:—

(a) whether the area under cultivation has expanded or contracted;

(b) whether the existing assessment has been collected with care or not;

(c) whether the material conditions of the people are prosperous or otherwise;

(d) markets and communications;

(e) history of prices of main staple crops;

(f) selling and letting values of land, consideration paid for leases, sale prices of land and principal money on mortgages;

(g) figures of profits of cultivation, and

(h) such other factors as may be directed to be dealt with under separate instructions.

(10) Extent of enhancement, if any, and the justifiable standard rate; and

(11) Estimated increase in the revenue demand as a result of his settlement proposals and proposed term of settlement.

The standard rates approved by the State Government will be so fixed that the aggregate enhanced assessment on the agricultural lands shall not exceed the existing assessment by 50 per cent as laid down under Section 76 (6).

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The assessment of a holding in which improvements have been effected at any time during the period of current settlement by or at the expense of the holder thereof, is fixed, as if no such improvements had been made, under Section 76 (6) in order to induce the cultivators to invest money for improvement of their lands.

The Settlement Officer formulates his proposals of settlement on the above basis and submits the same to the State Government in statements 1 and 2 prescribed by rules made under Section 73.

The assessment is fixed *khatawise* and on the whole due consideration is given to the practical side of fixation of assessment with a view to its unimpeded recovery during the period of settlement. Assessments whether original or revised, are notified in the village in form C and are proclaimed by beat of drums in the village concerned at least a fortnight prior to the date specified for such a declaration. During the announcement of assessment of each survey number any error in area or assessment of any holding due to mistake of survey or mathematical miscalculations pointed out by any person, are corrected.

Provision is made for putting forth any objections by the agriculturists and the notice of the intention of the State Government to make settlement is duly published together with the proposals based on the forecast for determination of "Revenue Survey" [Section 63 (2)].

The forecasts and the proposals together with the objections received thereunder from agriculturists and other persons interested are placed before each of the two Houses of the State Legislature before issuing the notification of proposed Revenue Survey (Section 64).

On approval of the proposals regarding the 'Factor Scale' and assessment rates made under rule 27 of Section 87 of the Code, assessment on each holding is calculated. The revised assessment is not to exceed the prior assessment by 50 per cent. The unit rate suited to each village is fixed in the group. This unit rate multiplied by the factor for each class of soil is the acreage rate applicable to the village and on the basis of this acreage rate, the deduced assessments on individual holdings are calculated and final figures of assessment eventually fixed (Rule 28 under Section 87).

A settlement, ordinarily remains in force for 30 years [Section 80 (1)] but the State Government may, for reasons to be recorded in detail, fix the term which may be less than 30 years but which shall in no case be less than 20 years [Section 80 (2)].

The Settlement Officer prepares the following papers (Section 45):—

(a) *khewat* or statement of persons possessing proprietary rights in the mahal, including inferior proprietors or leases or

mortgages in possession, specifying the nature and extent of the interest of each; CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. Settlement and assessment.

(b) *khasara* or field book, in which shall be entered the names of all persons cultivating or occupying the land, the right in which it is held and the rent, if any, payable;

(c) *jamabandi* or lists of persons cultivating or occupying land in the village;

(d) field map of the village except when otherwise directed;

(e) the village administration paper (*wajib-ul-arz*); and

(f) such other papers as may be prescribed under the rules.

Every Record of Right must necessarily contain (i) *khewat*, (ii) *khasara*, (iii) *jamabandi* and (iv) field map.

Prior to the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, no Record of Rights was introduced in the district. Record of Rights.

In the districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Bhandara and Chandrapur only interim Record of Rights was introduced as per Section 115 (1) of the Code. The full-fledged Record of Rights under Section 103 is yet to be prepared. The Record of Rights under Sections 103 and 115 (1) of the Code includes:—

(a) names of all persons, other than tenants, who are holders of land;

(b) names of all occupancy tenants and protected lessees and other tenants;

(c) nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions of liabilities, if any, attached thereto;

(d) rent or land revenue, if any, payable by such persons, and

(e) such other particulars as may be prescribed.

The provisions of the Central Provinces Grazing and Nistar Act of 1948 specify the rights of public in Government land. As per Section 3 (1) of the Act, the right of a resident of a village in respect of cattle grazing and collection of jungle produce (called as Nistar rights) is regulated.

Functions of the Land Records department are as follows:— Functions.

(i) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping a careful note of all changes by conducting field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in survey records;

(ii) to collect and provide statistical information necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land;

(iii) to simplify the procedure and reduce the cost of litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other land records for the purpose;

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LAND RECORDS. Functions.

(iv) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of Record of Rights by periodical inspection and maintenance and repairs of the boundary marks of individual fields;

(v) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations;

(vi) to organise and carry out surveys of village sites on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance;

(vii) to maintain up-to-date all village maps by incorporating necessary changes as and when they occur;

(viii) to maintain all tahsil maps up-to-date, to reprint them and to arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to public; and

(ix) to train revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

Administrative set up.

The district formed a part of the Madhya Pradesh State till the Reorganisation of States in November 1956. There was a separate survey and settlement department in Madhya Pradesh State. The Chief Controlling Officer for the Land Records Department in Maharashtra State is the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records with headquarters at Poona. He is assisted at regional levels by two Deputy Directors, of Land Records with headquarters at Bombay and Nagpur, respectively. The Deputy Director of Land Records, Bombay Region, is in charge of Bombay, Poona and Nasik circles while the Deputy Director of Land Records posted at Nagpur controls Nagpur and Aurangabad circles. Each of these five circles is supervised by a Circle Superintendent of Land Records who is responsible to the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records through the Regional Deputy Director of Land Records. The jurisdiction of the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur Circle, extends over all the eight districts of Vidarbha region. Under him are the District Superintendents of Land Records (District Inspectors of Land Records) who in turn are assisted by District Assistant Superintendents of Land Records.

District Superintendent of Land Records.

The land records work in the district is directly supervised by the Collector who is the administrative head of the department in the district. The District Superintendent of Land Records, Chanda, works under the direct guidance of the Collector. He is the principal inspecting agent in respect of all technical work and is responsible to the Collector for exercising effective control over the land records staff and for maintaining or exacting the requisite quota of work. He is subordinate to the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur Circle, in respect of technical matters only.

The District Superintendent of Land Records, Chandrapur, is assisted by two Assistant District Superintendents of Land Records, the one posted at headquarters, assisting him in his office work and the other in his field work. His field staff consists of Nazul Maintenance Surveyors, District Surveyor, Cadastral Surveyors, Nimatandar and *Pot-hiss* Surveyors. The District Superintendent of Land Records is both a Revenue and a Survey Officer. His main duties are—

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LAND RECORDS. District Superintendent of Land Records.

(a) to supervise, and take a field test of the measurement, classification and *pot-hissa* work done by the district, cadastral and maintenance surveyors;

(b) to inspect land records work of villages in Patwari Circles including *khasara* (Crop Statement), Record of Rights, tenancy work and also certification of mutation;

(c) to check Land Revenue Demand Register, Day Book and *rasid Bahis*, etc.;

(d) to check vital statistics, *siwai* income, grazing list, mining or quarrying leases;

(e) to see that the mining or quarry areas are not used or occupied without payment of compensation for surface rights;

(f) to determine surface rent for mining of quarrying leases;

(g) to inspect the work done by the Revenue Inspectors and *'Patwaris* borne on Collectors' establishment doing mainly land records work with a view to secure uniformity without forsaking local peculiarities of procedure throughout the district;

(h) to detect cases regarding diversion of agricultural lands to other purposes and their regularisation through the Sub-Divisional Officers;

(i) to detect encroachments on Government lands;

(j) to inspect rain gauges; and

(k) to check sub-divisions (*pot-hissas*).

The main duties of the other Land Records Officials are as follows:—

Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors.

The Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors look after nazul surveys and maintain them up-to-date. Nazul surveys, unlike in Western Maharashtra districts, are restricted to Government land including roads, public places, etc., used ordinarily for residential purposes. There is a nazul map and maintenance *khasara* for each one of the three nazul towns in the district, i.e., Chandrapur, Ballarpur (commonly known as Ballarshah) and Desaiganj (Wadsa). The detail survey is done in all these towns on a traverse frame work by optical square. On this survey is constructed a maintenance *khasara* which is a sort of a Record of Rights. The nazul staff of the Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors maintain the traverse frame work, the detailed survey and the maintenance *khasara* up-to-date by periodical inspections according to the programme sanctioned by the Nazul Officer, who is ordinarily the Deputy Collector of the sub-division in the district in

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which the nazul town falls. Thus the nazul staff is under the administrative control of the Nazul Officer for day to day administration and under the technical control of the District Superintendent of Land Records.

LAND RECORDS.

District and Cadastral Surveyors.

The District and Cadastral Surveyors look after the district measurement work arising from:—

(i) land acquisition;

(ii) Civil Court decrees;

(iii) alluvion and diluvion;

(iv) grant of land for agricultural and non-agricultural purposes;

(v) division or conversion of agricultural land into non-agricultural use;

(vi) encroachment cases;

(vii) application for confirmation of boundaries, and

(viii) applications of family partitions, sales, etc.

Pot-hissa Surveyors.

The *Pot-hissa* Surveyors attend wholly to the measurement of new sub-divisions as appearing in village Record of Rights under the supervision and control of the *nimatandar*. It is the duty of the *nimatandar* to supervise the work of the *Pot-hissa* Surveyors and take percentage test of the work.

Special Schemes.

In addition, the Land Records department is entrusted with the execution of the following special schemes:—

1. Consolidation of holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

2. Survey of village *gaothans*.

The Consolidation Officer, Chandrapur, is the District Officer entrusted with the preparation and execution of consolidation of holdings schemes under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act. He is assisted by four Assistant Consolidation Officers. The subordinate staff of each Assistant Consolidation Officer comprises — six Surveyors under one *nimatandan* to asssist him in the measurement of sub-divisions and bringing the Record of Rights up-to-date and preparation of the scheme of consolidation, and one Circle Inspector to assist him in the execution of the scheme of consolidation of holdings after confirmation by the Settlement Commissioner or Government as the case may be. The Consolidation Officer is expected to test work in each village before the scheme is sanctioned and has also to see that it is properly enforced after it is sanctioned. The work on the consolidation scheme was started in the beginning of 1960 in Chandrapur, Warora and Brahmapuri tahsils of the district.

The work in respect of scheme of survey of village *gaothan* is in progress in the district and by March 1967, survey work in respect of 20 villages had been completed. The survey in respect

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of four other villages was in progress in addition to the city survey of Ballarshah which was sanctioned along with eight other towns of Vidarbha region.

REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT

REGISTRATION. Functions.

The main functions of the Registration department are:—

(1) Registration of documents under the Indian Registration Act, 1908;

(2) Maintenance of records of all the registered documents for the use of public for inspection and copies thereof;

(3) Registration of marriage memoranda under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953;

(4) Registration and solemnization of marriages under the Bombay Special Marriages Act, 1954, and

(5) Recovery of extra stamp duty leviable under Section 158 (c) of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, and maintenance of the accounts of the extra stamp duty thus recovered.

Organisation.

The Chief Controlling Officer for registration work in the State is the Inspector-General of Registration* with headquarters at Poona. Under him there is a District Registrar for each district who supervises the registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. Under the District Registrar, Chanda, there are six Sub-Registrars at Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli, Sironcha and Rajura, respectively. The Sub-Registry offices at Gadhchiroli and Sironcha are under the *ex-officio* Sub-Registrars, *i.e.*, Tahsildars. The jurisdiction of the Sub-Registrars is co-terminous with the revenue tahsils in the district. The Sub-Registrars are assisted by the necessary staff.

The District Registrar carries out the instructions of the Inspector-General of Registration in all departmental matters and if he has any suggestions to make for the improvement of the registration system, he submits them for the consideration of the Inspector-General of Registration. The Sub-Registrars seek the guidance of the District Registrar in matters of day-to-day administration. The District Registrar visits the Sub-Registry offices in his district at least once in every two years and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector-General of Registration for his information. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under Sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under Sections 25 and 34 of the Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents for registration and also the delay in appearance of the executants provided the delay in such cases does not exceed four months, and to direct that the documents concerned be

*This post has now been redesignated as 'Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records.'

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REGISTRATION.

Organisation.

registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the registration fee. He is empowered to order refunds in the case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover, and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the depositor's death.

The Sub-Registrar at the district headquarters is authorised to exercise and perform in addition to his own duties, the powers and duties exercised and performed by the District Registrar under Section 30 (1) of the Indian Registration Act, 1908, together with powers conferred by Sections 25, 34 and 74 to 76 of the Act in respect of only such documents as he is empowered to register under Section 30 (1) of the Act.

Senior Sub-Registrars are appointed as Inspectors of Registration. They inspect the work of all Sub-Registry Offices in their charge. Chanda district along with the districts of Nagpur and Bhandara falls within the jurisdiction of Inspector of Registration, Nagpur division.

Registration of documents.

Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) registration of certain documents affecting immovable property is compulsory while it is optional in respect of documents in which the value of the immovable property involved is less than Rs. 100. All documents relating to moveable property are optionally registrable, excepting gifts which are compulsorily registrable under Section 123 of Indian Registration Act, 1884. Documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid are registered. A record of such registered documents is kept in each registration office and extracts of documents affecting immovable property in respect of which Record of Rights is maintained are sent to the Tahsildars concerned for making mutations. Certified copies, from the preserved records, of registered documents are also issued to the parties who apply for them.

The Sub-Registry Offices at Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri and Sironcha were brought under photo-copying system from the beginning of 1964. In all 10,940 documents of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,05,45,743 were registered in the district in 1964. Of these, 10,768 were compulsory and 172 documents were optionally registrable. The number of wills registered during the same year was 35. Income from the registration fees was Rs. 1,25,025 while the expenditure was Rs. 24,493 during the same period.

Fees are levied for registration according to the prescribed scale, but the State Government have exempted or partially exempted the levy of registration fees in respect of documents pertaining to the co-operative societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

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REGISTRATION.

Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953.

The Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1953, was extended to Vidarbha region in April, 1964. 224 marriage memoranda were received for registration during 1964. The Sub-Registrar at the district headquarters has been declared as Marriage Officer for the district under the Special Marriages Act, 1954. One such marriage was solemnized during the year 1964.

The Sub-Registrars also issue encumbrance certificates regarding the agricultural property of the intending borrowers applying for loans to the Land Development Mortgage Bank in the district under various land improvement schemes for growing more food. In such cases half the usual fee is charged for loans exceeding Rs. 2,000, those not exceeding Rs. 2,000 being exempted.

The District Registrars in Vidarbha region are appointed as Registrars of Births and Deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act, 1886.

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT

SALES TAX.

Introduction.

Sales Tax, the most important source of revenue to the State, was first introduced in the former State of Madhya Pradesh from June 1947, under the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act (XXI of 1947). The Act was amended by the State Legislature from time to time, the important amendments being those effected by the Amendment Act of 8th October, 1948, 11th April, 1949 and 1st December, 1953. The Act was repealed on 1st January 1960 by the Bombay Sales Tax Act (LXXVI of 1959). Up to the end of November 1953, the Act provided for the levy of tax only on sales of goods excluding those mentioned in Schedule II appended to the Act. By the Amendment Act (XX of 1953), however, provision was made to tax the purchase price of the goods purchased on the strength of the declarations prescribed under Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Rules [26 (3) of 1947] and utilized for purposes other than those specified in the declaration, *i.e.*, if resold, out of the former State of Madhya Pradesh or used unauthoritatively in the manufacture of goods.

Dealers liable to pay Tax.

Under Sub-Section (v) of Section 4 of the Act, dealers whose turnover of sales exceeded Rs. 25,000 (even though it be of tax-free goods) in a year were liable for registration and consequently were liable to pay tax in accordance with other provisions of the Act. The limit of such turnover for importers and manufacturers was Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000, respectively; and the limit of turnover for societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act (1912) dealing exclusively in goods produced or manufactured by society or its members without the aid of hired labour was at Rs. 2,500.

Classes of Tax.

Unlike the Bombay Sales Tax Act (1953), the Central Provinces and Berar Act (1947), provided levy of tax only at the point of sale, *i.e.*, it was a single point tax. The provisions of Section 4 (6) of the Act, which came into force from 1st December, 1953, do

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not actually amount to purchase tax but are only intended to seal off loopholes for evasion of sales tax on goods purchased on the strength of declarations.

Classes of Tax.

No tax was levied on goods specified in Schedule II which consisted of 43 entries. Goods specified in part I of Schedule I, were taxable at one anna in a rupee up to 7th April, 1957. This rate was changed to 7 paise, after the introduction of decimal coinage system. The goods specified in part II of Schedule I, were taxable at 3 pies in a rupee up to 7th April, 1957, and at 2 paise from 8th April, 1957, onwards. All other goods not covered by any of the entries of Schedule I or II were taxable at 6 pies in a rupee up to 7th April, 1957, and at 3 paise from 8th April 1957, onwards.

The scheme of the Act (1947) was such that no tax was imposed on the sale of goods made in the course of inter-State trade and commerce. Further, tax on a particular transaction was to be paid only once. Generally, the wholesalers or manufacturers were not required to pay tax, unless they sold their goods directly to unregistered dealers or customers. The goods directly required in the manufacture of articles for sale could also be purchased free of tax by manufacturers by giving a declaration in the prescribed form to the seller.

Current Sales Tax Act.

The Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, which came into force on 1st January 1960, is applicable to the entire State of Maharashtra. The new Act embodies the recommendations of the Sales Tax Enquiry Committee and has, by repealing and replacing various sales tax laws in force in different regions of the State, introduced absolute uniformity in five sales tax regions of the State.

In the initial stages a dealer who held goods purchased before 1st January, 1960, from a registered dealer in the old Bombay State area was, on the resale of those goods, liable to pay tax under the new Act subject to certain modifications and the benefit of Section 8 (a) of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1953, was denied to him. Similarly, exemptions granted under the earlier laws to certain classes of goods generally or conditionally were in some cases, withdrawn under the new law.

The Bombay Sales of Intoxicants Taxation Act, has now been repealed and spirituous medical preparations containing more than 12 per cent of alcohol by volume (but other than those declared by Government to be not capable of causing intoxication) are now taxed under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, at the rate of 30 paise in a rupee at the first stage only. Similarly, country liquor and foreign liquor brought in India including spirits, wines and fermented liquors are taxed at the rate of 45 paise in a rupee.

Schedule 'A' of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, lists the exempted goods subject in some cases to conditions and Schedules B to E, the taxable goods. Taxable goods are broadly divided

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into five classes: (i) goods declared as important to inter-State trade, taxable only at first stage (Schedule B, Part I); (ii) goods declared as important to inter-State trade, taxable only on the last sale (Schedule B, Part II); (iii) other classes of goods taxable only at the first stage of sale (Schedule C); (iv) 9 classes taxable only at the last stage of sale (Schedule D); and (v) 21 classes specified and all other goods not specified elsewhere in any Schedule, taxable at the first stage and on the last sale and again to a very small incidence at the retail stage.

Current Sales Tax Act.

The tax at the first stage is called the 'Sales Tax', on the last sale as the 'General Tax', and that at the retail stage, the 'Retail Sales Tax'. Sales Tax and the General Sales Tax, as the names imply, are payable on sales. However, when a registered dealer purchases goods from an unregistered dealer or from the Government, he pays purchase tax. On the resale of these goods the dealer has not to pay sales tax or general sales tax as the case may be. The registered dealer does not become liable to purchase tax if he resells the goods without alteration within three months and in that case, on such resale he pays in the routine way, sales tax or general sales tax or both, as may be due. The purchase tax is not a separate tax and is only intended to seal off loopholes for evasion.

Classes of Dealers.

The new Act creates five classes of dealers, viz. :—

(1) Registered Dealers:—Every dealer liable to pay tax must obtain a registration and failure to do so is regarded as an offence.

(2) Licensed Dealers:—Every registered dealer who makes annual sales of over Rs. 50,000 to other registered dealers may obtain a licence, on the strength of which he can make purchases, free of general sales tax for resale within the State. Such licensed dealers will thus generally be the wholesalers or semi-wholesalers.

(3) Authorised Dealers:—Every registered dealer whose annual sales in inter-State or export trade are more than Rs. 30,000 worth of goods or who sells that quantity to another authorised dealer who resells it in inter-State trade or export may obtain an authorisation against which he can purchase goods free of all taxes (or at a reduced rate under certain circumstances) for inter-State or export resale either by himself or another authorised dealer to whom he sells them.

(4) Recognised Dealers:—Any registered dealer whose annual turnover of sales exceeds Rs. 25,000 of taxable goods manufactured by him may obtain a recognition against which he may make tax-free purchases of goods for use directly in manufacturing taxable goods for sale, save, generally speaking, for goods on which the tax is at the rate of two per cent or less and machinery.

(5) Permit-holders:—A registered dealer whose commission agency purchases on behalf of principals disclosed in his books exceed Rs. 30,000 per year, may obtain a permit, on the strength

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. SALES TAX. Classes of Dealers.

of which he may make purchases tax-free or at a reduced rate, in certain circumstances for his principals.

Under the new Act, the turnover limit requiring registration is Rs. 10,000 for a manufacturer and Rs. 30,000 for every other dealer. Dealers who are not liable to registration because their turnover has not exceeded the limits specified under the Act but are registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, will be liable to pay tax under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, under conditions specified in the Act.

Care is taken to see that the tax, as far as possible, would not be recovered in excess of what is intended by the law. This is done by set-offs allowed under the law.

Administrative Organisation.

The Sales Tax Officer is the administrative head of the Sales Tax department at the district level and exercises powers delegated to him under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, and the rules made thereunder. His duties consist in registering, licensing and assessing the dealers irrespective of their turnover. He has to see that outstanding taxes are recovered and tax-evasion is detected. He is also empowered to compound certain offences under the Act.

Immediately above, the Sales Tax Officer is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, who is responsible for the general administration of the offices within his range. He is also the first appellate authority. He guides the Sales Tax Officer in complicated matters. Against the appellate order passed by the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, second appeal could be made before the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax. Against the second appellate order, the dealer could either prefer revision before the Board of Revenue or the Commissioner of Sales Tax. In the latter case, however, the decision of the Commissioner is final whereas the order of the Board of Revenue is subject to reference on points of law before the High Court.

Statistics of Collection.

The following statement gives the amount of sales tax collected during the period from 1957-58 to 1959-60 :—

Year	Amount Collected (Rs.)
1957-58 ...	.. 10,59'544
1958-59 ...	.. 8,78,026
1959-60 ...	.. 10,81,417

MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT

MOTOR VEHICLES. Introduction.

The Motor Vehicles department of the State, with its headquarters at Bombay, deals with the administration of the Bombay Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, as amended by Act 100 of 1956; the Bombay Motor Vehicles Rules, 1959; the Bombay Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1958; the Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958: and the Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act, 1962.

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. MOTOR VEHICLES. Introduction.

Under the Motor Vehicles Act all the motor vehicles have to be registered, all drivers have to obtain a licence which is issued only on their passing a prescribed test of competence, the hours of work of drivers of public vehicles are regulated, and third party insurance of all private vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. The Act vests the State Government with powers to subject all vehicles to strict mechanical tests and to effectively control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, to specify their routes as also the chargeable freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

The State Transport Authority for the State is vested in a committee composed of officials as well as non-officials of which the Director of Transport is the *ex-officio* Secretary. Regional Transport Authorities with similar committees and with the Regional Transport Officers acting as *ex-officio* Secretaries have been set up for convenient regions of the State. The State Transport Authority constituted under Section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, regulates and co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Transport Authorities in the matter of control of motor transport in their respective regions. Two sub-committees known as appellate committees consisting of the members of the State Transport Authority have been set up to hear and decide appeals filed by the parties aggrieved against the orders passed by the Regional Transport Authorities, one under Sections 13, 16 and 21-F and the other under Section 64 and Rule 136 of the Bombay Motor Vehicles Rules, 1959. The second committee also hears revision applications under Section 64-A.

Regional Transport Authority.

The State today has five Regional Transport Authorities with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Thana, Nagpur and Aurangabad. Sub-regional offices have also been set up at Nasik, Kolhapur and Amravati. Regional Transport Authority for Nagpur region has jurisdiction over Chandrapur district and also over the districts of Akola, Amravati, Bhandara, Buldhana, Nagpur, Wardha and Yeotmal. It is vested in a body of six members, including the Secretary, four officials and two non-officials, being nominated by the State Government under sub-section (1) of Section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act. The Regional Transport Authority controls different transport vehicles in the region and deals with the issue of permits to them in accordance with the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time.

Director of Transport.

The overall control of this department is vested in the Director of Transport, Bombay. He is assisted by two Deputy Directors placed incharge of administration, and taxation and inspection wings, respectively. Whereas a region is headed by a Regional Transport Officer, the sub-regions are placed under the charge of Assistant Regional Transport Officers. An inspection wing has been created in the office of the Director of Transport to enable the head of the department to exercise effective control over the

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Regional Transport Officer.

working of the subordinate offices and to ensure that they function properly.

The Regional Transport Officer, besides being *ex-officio* Secretary of the Regional Transport Authority, acts as a licensing and registering authority for motor vehicles under Chapters II and III, respectively, of the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. He is also invested with powers of prosecuting offenders under the Motor Vehicles Act. The immediate subordinate to the Regional Transport Officer, Nagpur, at the headquarters is the Regional Supervisor. He assists the Regional Transport Officer in executing his duties; looks after the office administration and acts for him in his absence. The Regional Supervisor has under him a team of Motor Vehicles Inspectors and Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors who are technically qualified and are declared as inspecting and testing authorities for the purpose of granting certificates of mechanical fitness to transport vehicles, for holding tests of competence and issue driving licences, conductors' licences and authorisation to drive public service vehicles.

The Motor Vehicles Inspector has also to perform the following duties among others:—

(1) to inspect vehicles involved in accidents whenever required by the police;

(2) to carry out service tours for the enforcement of the various Motor Vehicles Acts;

(3) to report infringements to the Regional Transport Officer for further action, and (4) to collect taxes. Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors carry out routine office work and assist the Inspectors in carrying out inspections of vehicles. They look after the work of Inspectors when the latter are on tour or on special duty.

The Regional Transport Officers and the Assistant Regional Transport Officers are also declared as taxation authorities under the Taxation Acts in their respective regions and sub-regions. In order to facilitate expeditious disposal of tax acceptances, Supervisors and Inspectors of Motor Vehicles have also been notified as taxation authorities and can assess, levy and collect taxes. Under the Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1958, the Taxation Authority determines the class and rate of tax payable, after the vehicle is registered. If the vehicle is a non-transport vehicle (motor cycle or car) the tax is assessed according to the unladen weight of that vehicle. If the vehicle is a goods truck or a taxi or a passenger bus, the tax is assessed on the basis of the registered laden weight or the sitting capacity as the case may be.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicle Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designated and used solely for agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The rules under this Act require that every vehicle be registered. Every

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MOTOR VEHICLES.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax as determined. He has also to state the limits within which he intends to use the vehicle, i.e., whether only within the limits of a particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State. A token for the payment of the tax is issued by the taxation authority and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use. A fresh declaration is to be made every time the tax is to be paid. Before issuing the token in respect of the payment of the tax, the taxation authority has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid. Every owner of a motor vehicle has to give an advance intimation of his intention of keeping his vehicle in non-use during any period for which he desires to be exempted from the payment of tax, and declare the place of garage while in non-use.

The Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958, envisages levy and payment to the State Government of a tax on all passengers carried by stage carriages (including stage carriages used as contract carriages) at 10 per cent inclusive of the amount of the fares payable to the operators of the stage carriages except where such stage carriages ply exclusively within a municipal area or exclusively on such routes serving municipal and adjacent areas as may be approved by the State Government. Similarly the public as also the private carriers have to pay taxes leviable under Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act, 1962, on the basis of freight charges collected by them.

With a view to ensure prompt and effective recovery of Government dues separate taxation wings for the administration of Bombay Motor Vehicles Act, 1958, have been set up in all the offices of this department. These are placed under the charge of Assistant Regional Transport Officers in major regions and Regional Supervisors in sub-regions. There is an enforcement and prosecution section in the office of the Regional Transport Officer to launch prosecutions against the offenders for breach of provisions of the various enactments.

Liaison with Police Department.

This department has liaison with the Police department which helps in checking motor vehicles periodically and in detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to references from the Motor Vehicles department regarding the verification of the character of the applicants for public service vehicle authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi-cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of vehicles off the road, recovery of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc. The District Magistrate renders all possible help to this department in connection with the imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits and location of motor-stands at various places, etc.

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration.

Stamp Department

STAMPS. Organisation.

The Superintendent of Stamps, Bombay, is the authority who controls the supply and sale of stamps in the State. In Chandrapur district the Collector acts as the administrative head of the Stamps department. There being no independent officer in-charge of the stamps, the work is looked after by a clerk under the overall supervision and guidance of the District Treasury Officer, who is in-charge of the local depot at Chandrapur. He is responsible for the maintenance of stock of stamps, their distribution to the local depots and their sale to the public. The Collector is empowered to grant refund of the value of unused spoilt and obsolete stamps presented to him within the prescribed period. A branch depot is located at every tahsil headquarters and is in charge of the Tahsildar in his capacity as Sub Treasury Officer.

To suit public convenience stamps are sold not only at local and branch depots but also at various other places by authorised stamp vendors. In Chandrapur district there are 16 such vendors. Judicial and non-judicial stamps above the value of Rs. 300 in each case are sold at the treasury and sub-treasuries while the stamps below this value in each case are sold by the authorised vendors.

INCOME.

In 1964-65, the total income realised from stamp duty for judicial and non-judicial stamps amounted to Rs. 2,04,175.49 and Rs. 5,05,125.38 respectively. The vendors are also allowed a small discount and this discount during the same year stood at Rs. 14,585.56 on both judicial and non-judicial stamps.

CHAPTER 12—LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT ARE MANIFOLD AND THOSE RELATING TO MAINTENANCE OF LAW AND ORDER, and security of life and property of citizens are carried out through Police, Judicial, Social Welfare and Jail departments. In what follows is detailed the functioning and set-up of these departments in the district.

The Police Department

POLICE. Functions.

The primary functions of the police are prevention and detection of crime, maintenance of law and order, apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or private or public property of which they may be placed in-charge, and prosecution of criminals. They have, however, various other duties to perform, such as control and regulation of traffic, serving of summonses and warrants in criminal cases, inspection of explosive and poison shops and extinguishing fires and such other duties as giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, passport and naturalisation inquiries, etc.

Organisation.

Under Section 4 of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) the superintendence of the police force throughout the State vests in and is exercisable by the State Government. In exercise of the powers conferred upon it by Section 6 of the said Act, the State Government appoints the Inspector-General of Police for the direction and supervision of the police force. The Inspector-General of Police whose headquarters is at Bombay, is thus the head of the police force in the State. It is the province of the Inspector-General of Police to watch over the recruitment, education, housing and equipment of the police force, to regulate its internal organisation and method of working and to look after the welfare of the police force. He is assisted in his office by three Assistant Inspectors-General of Police (who are officers of the rank of a Superintendent of Police) and the Superintendent of Police, State Traffic Branch who is *ex-officio* Assistant Inspector-General of Police.

For the purpose of administration, Maharashtra State is divided into four police ranges, *viz.*, Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad, besides three Commissionerates of Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police who is second in the police hierarchy is in-charge of the Greater Bombay police force. The Commissioners of Police in-charge of the Nagpur and Poona Commissionerates are of the rank of Deputy Inspector-General of Police. The State

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice. POLICE. Organisation.

C.I.D. is divided into two branches, *viz.*, (i) Intelligence and (ii) Crime and Railways, each under a Deputy Inspector-General. Both the Deputy Inspectors-General are assisted by one or more assistants of the rank of a Superintendent of Police and a number of Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables. There are Criminal Investigation units at important places in the State, each under a Deputy Superintendent of Police assisted by the necessary subordinate staff. The State Reserve Police Force Groups are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Armed Forces. The Police Training College, Nasik, the Regional Police Training Schools at Khandala, Jalna and Nagpur and the Motor Transport and Wireless Organisations are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Training and Special Units, Bombay.

Each range in the State which is in-charge of a Range Deputy Inspector-General is sub-divided into districts corresponding to the revenue districts and every such district is placed in-charge of a Superintendent of Police. Under Section 17 (1) of the Bombay Police Act, the District Magistrate has control over the Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district concerned in matters of policy and administration of law within the district but he cannot and does not interfere with questions of recruitment, internal economy or organisation of the district police force.

The Superintendent of Police is the executive head of the police force in the district. His primary duties are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and contented and to ensure, by constant supervision, the proper and effective prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his district.

Each district in turn is divided into two or three sub-divisions. Each sub-division is placed under the charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer who is of the rank of an Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police and who is responsible for the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in the sub-division in his charge. Subject to the general orders of the District Superintendent of Police, he is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division. He has to hold detailed inspection of police stations and out-posts in his charge at regular intervals.

Each sub-division has one or more Circle Police Inspectors who are entrusted with the task of detection of crime and supervision of bad characters and gangs in their circles. The supervision and co-ordination of the detection work of different police stations in the circles is also entrusted to the Circle Inspectors.

At the district headquarters, the District Superintendent of Police is assisted by an Inspector who is called the Home Inspector. He is more or less a personal assistant to the District Superintendent of Police and supervises the work of the Superintendent's office. He also carries out the same duties at

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice. POLICE. Organisation.

the headquarters during the absence of the District Superintendent of Police and the Sub-Divisional Officer. In case of bigger districts, the local intelligence branches (district special branches) and local crime branches have separate or independent inspectors.

Each district sub-division is divided into a number of police stations each such police station being kept in charge of a Sub-Inspector of Police. The Sub-Inspector is responsible for the prevention, investigation and detection of crime within the area in his charge and for seeing that the orders of his superiors are carried out and the discipline of the police under him is properly maintained. He has, under him, the required number of Head Constables and Constables. The Head Constables report to the Sub-Inspector all crimes in their beats and assist him in the investigation and detection of those crimes. When in-charge of a particular post or circle of villages, the Head Constables act in all police matters in co-operation with the heads of the village police. When attached to police stations, the Head Constables hold the charge of the stations in the absence of the Sub-Inspector and attend to all routine work including investigation of crime. The Constables perform such duties as may be entrusted to them by the Sub-Inspectors and the Head Constables.

The control and administration of the Railway Police is vested in the Superintendent of Police who has a parallel organisation on the lines of the District Police. He functions under the supervision and control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Crime and Railways (Criminal Investigation Department), Maharashtra State, Poona and the Inspector-General of Police.

Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau.

With a view to eradicating the evils of corruption and for a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of the Government, the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau has been created under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police designated as Director, Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau, Maharashtra State, with headquarters at Bombay. The Bureau has its offices in all the districts and has four units with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur each in-charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police. The unit for Greater Bombay is in-charge of a Deputy Commissioner of Police.

State Reserve Police Force.

With a view to strengthening the Armed Forces, which may be required at any place in the State to deal with any serious disturbance and other similar emergency, the State Reserve Police Force, trained more or less on military lines and equipped with modern weapons, has been organised under the Bombay State Reserve Police Force Act, 1951 (Bombay Act No. XXXVIII of 1951), and stationed in groups at important centres in the State. Each group is under the control of a Commandant (who

POLICE.

Training Institutions.

is an officer of the rank of a Superintendent of Police assisted by the necessary staff of officers of different ranks. The groups are provided with wireless and motor transport sections.

The Police Training College, Nasik, provides the initial training for officers of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector, and conducts refresher training course for qualified Head Constables in the duties of Police Sub-Inspector. It is under the charge of a Principal, who is of the rank of a Superintendent of Police. He is assisted by a Deputy Superintendent of Police designated as Vice-Principal and by the necessary number of Police Inspectors, Police Prosecutors, Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables who are employed as instructors.

Regional Police Training Schools at Khandala, Jalna and Nagpur impart training for Unarmed Constables and are in-charge of Principals, who are of the rank of Deputy Superintendents of Police. The Principals are assisted by the necessary staff of Inspectors, Police Prosecutors and others.

Recruits of the Greater Bombay Police are trained at the Police Training School, Naigaum, which is headed by an Assistant Commissioner of Police.

Women Police Branch.

Women police branches exist in Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur cities and in some of the important districts including railway police districts. The main functions of this branch are to help in the recovery of abducted women, to attend to the convenience and complaints of female passengers at important railway stations, to apprehend and search female offenders, to help in the administration of the Bombay Children Act and the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, to man the police telephone exchanges, to keep vigilance at places of worship or public entertainment, etc. They also help the senior Police officers at the time of holding inquest on dead bodies of women.

Arms Inspection Branch.

There is an arms inspection branch consisting of an Inspector of Police and the necessary subordinate staff to undertake periodical inspection of the police arms and to ensure their proper maintenance. The branch is under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Armed Forces.

Motor Transport.

A motor transport section for the whole State under the control of a Superintendent of Police designated as Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport is organised for maintaining a fleet of motor vehicles and water craft for police duties. It consists of (1) a district motor transport section at the headquarters of each district and each State Reserve Police Force group, (ii) the central motor transport workshop together with mobile units at Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur; and (iii) the mobile repair unit for police water-craft with headquarters at Thana. The district and State Reserve Police Force motor transport sections which consist of motor vehicles and in some districts water-craft are under the administrative control of the Superintendents of Police of the districts or the Commandants of the groups, as the case may be, and under the technical supervision of the Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport.

Wireless Grid.

A wireless grid for the whole State under the control of a Superintendent of Police designated as the Superintendent of Police, wireless, is organised for facilitating quick communication amongst the police units in this State and also with those in other States. The grid consists of high frequency wireless telegraphy circuits and radio telephone circuits frequency net work with static and mobile transportable stations and broadcast service stations. There are wireless stations at the headquarters of each district, State Reserve Police Force group and in the three Commissionerates of Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur. The wireless personnel in Bombay and those attached to the districts and State Reserve Police Force groups are under the administrative control of the Commissioners of Police, Superintendents of Police and the Commandants of the State Reserve Police Force groups concerned, respectively.

Recruitment.

Recruitment to the cadre of Assistant Superintendents of Police who belong to the Indian Police Service, is made by the Government of India on the recommendations of the Union Public Service Commission. They are attached to the National Police Academy, Abu, for a training period of one year duration and after successful completion of this training they are sent to the States concerned for further training. In the State, the probationers are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for three months and in the districts for practical training for nine months before they are given independent charges as Sub-Divisional Police Officers. An Assistant Superintendent of Police is considered eligible for promotion to a senior post in the Indian Police Service cadre after confirmation in the Indian Police Service in the vacancy in the direct recruitment quota.

Seventy per cent of the total number of appointments on the sanctioned cadre of Deputy Superintendents of Police are filled in by promotion from the lower ranks of the district police force and the remaining 30 per cent by direct recruitment which is made by the State Government from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Candidates appointed by direct recruitment are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a Police is considered eligible for promotion to a senior post in years of their probationary period, they are required to pass departmental examinations prescribed by Government.

After their training for one year at the Police Training College, they are required to undergo military training for five weeks and thereafter practical training in the districts for the remaining period of the probation. They are considered for promotion to Indian Police Service cadre after they put in eight years' service as Deputy Superintendents of Police.

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POLICE.

Recruitment.

Appointment of Inspectors of Police are made by the Inspector-General of Police from amongst the Sub-Inspectors of Police who are found fit for promotion by the Selection Board comprising the Inspector-General of Police as the Chairman and Commissioner of Police and Deputy Inspector-General of Police as members. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made to the posts of Inspectors of Police.

Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector-General of Police both by promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the district police force and by direct recruitment. 50 per cent of the vacancies are filled in by direct recruitment. Of the remaining 50 per cent, 25 per cent of the vacancies are filled in by departmental candidates passing through the Police Sub-Inspector's course at the Police Training College, Nasik, and the remaining 25 per cent by promotion of officers from lower ranks.

Candidates for direct recruitment may be either from outside the police or from the police department. These candidates are in the first instance, selected for training in the Police Training College, Nasik, as Police Sub-Inspectors. The selection is made by the Inspector-General of Police assisted by a Committee consisting of the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, a Deputy Inspector-General of Police and the Principal, Police Training College, Nasik.

The Police Constables are recruited directly and the Head Constables generally from the rank of Constables. However to attract better men, recruitment of Head Constables is made direct from qualified candidates up to one-third of the vacancies.

The Chandrapur district is divided into two sub-divisions *viz.*, (1) Chandrapur division and (2) Brahmapuri division with headquarters at Chandrapur and Brahmapuri respectively. Each sub-division is headed by a Sub-Divisional Police Officer. There are 25 regular police stations and 18 out-posts in the district. Out of these 25 police stations, one is city/town police station, 5 tahsil police stations and 19 other police stations. There is an armed headquarters at Chandrapur.

Strength.

The strength of the district police force which was 567 in 1956 steadily increased to 1,103 in 1964.

The composition of the police force in 1964 was as under:—

Designation (1)	Permanent (2)	Temporary (3)	Total (4)
1. Superintendent of Police	1	..	1
2. Deputy Superintendents of Police ..	1	1	2
3. Police Inspectors	2	1	3
4. Sub-Inspectors	33	14	47
5. Head Constables	95	141	236
6. Police Constables	437	377	814
Total ..	569	534	1,103

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The expenditure on the establishment of the district for the year 1964 was Rs. 19,83,468. The ratio of police to area and population worked out to one policeman per 23.68 k.m.² and 1,122 persons.

POLICE.

Literacy.

Of the total strength of 53 officers and 1,050 men in Chandrapur district at the close of the year 1964, 11 men were illiterate.

Armament.

The armament of the Chandrapur district police in 1964 consisted of 3 Thompson machine Carbines, 353 rifles of .303 bore, 358 muskets of .410 bore, 59 revolvers of .455 bore and .38 bore for the use of Police and 8 rifles of .22 bore for imparting training to the public in rifle shooting. A tear smoke squad consisting of 2 head constables and 10 constables has been formed for the district.

The district had a fleet of 11 motor vehicles in 1964.

In 1964, the district had a wireless station and also a mobile set at the police headquarters at Chandrapur. There were also static wireless stations one each at Sironcha, Yetapalli, Dhanora, Purda and Bhadrawati. Besides, two temporary static stations are installed every year at Gadhchiroli and Sasti during the rainy season as these places become inaccessible during the monsoons due to flooded rivers and nallahs.

Crime.

The following statement shows the crime reported to Chandrapur police during the year 1964 and the preceding four years:—

..	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
(*a*) Cognizable cases (Class I to VI)	3,394	3,463	3,732	3,028	3,569
(*b*) Non-cognizable cases	7,452	Not	available.		

The important crimes reported during the year 1964 and the preceding four years were as under:—

	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
1. Murders and cognizable crimes	21	15	17	14	17
2. Dacoities	..	..	..	..	2
3. Robberies	11	7	9	6	12
4. Attempted murders	2	2	2	3	4
5. House breaking and thefts ..	316	262	260	303	293
6. Thefts and cattle thefts ..	528	509	541	621	731
7. Cheating	10	12	12	21	29
8. Receiving stolen property ..	..	..	..	..	1
9. Riots	13	17	10	15	20
Total ..	901	824	857	973	1,099

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Crime.

The incidence of the reported cognizable crimes per thousand population of the district during the quinquennium 1960—64 was as under:—

1964	..	..	2·74
1963	..	..	2·79
1962	..	..	3·01
1961	..	..	2·44
1960	..	..	3·39

Prosecuting staff and Prosecutions.

In 1964 there were six Police Prosecutors in the district. They conducted prosecution of police cases in Magisterial Courts. The total number of cases conducted by the Police Prosecutors during the year 1964 was 1,896. The prosecuting *Jamadars* conduct minor cases.

Village Police.

At the village level the district police are helped by the village police. Under the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867), the control of the village police is with the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate may, however, delegate any of his powers to the Superintendent of Police. Each inhabited village has a police *patil*. The police *patil* is required to collect information regarding suspicious strangers and important occurrences in the village and send it to the police station. He has to keep a strict watch over the movements of notorious characters under surveillance of the police. He is also required to give information to the police station of any offence committed in the village. When a beat duty policeman goes to the village, the police *patil* has to give him all the information he possesses about all events in the village. The police *patil* is also responsible for maintaining law and order in the village.

In 1964, the number of the village police including police *patils* was 2,335.

Home Guards.

The Home Guards is a voluntary body organised under the Bombay Home Guards Act (III of 1947), and is intended to augment the ordinary police force in emergency in relation to the protection of persons, security of property and public safety and such other services to the public as they may be called upon to perform. It is especially a civilian body but is nevertheless bound by discipline of a standard equal to that of the police. The district unit of the Home Guards organisation consists of a Commandant who is assisted by several subordinate officers in command of divisions, companies, platoons, sections, etc. Appointments of Home Guards are made by the District Commandant from amongst the persons who are fit and willing to serve as Home Guards, and appointments of officers are made after a period of service in the ranks and on consideration of the capabilities of the Home Guards concerned. Home Guards are initially trained in *lathi*, weapons, control of traffic, prohibition and excise laws, first-aid, mob fighting, guard and escort drill, etc. A Home Guard gets powers, privileges and obligations under the Home Guards Act and the rules made thereunder only when called out for duty on special occasions. At other times, a Home Guard is on the same footing as an ordinary citizen. When he is called out to aid the police he gets duty allowance as admissible according to the orders of Government.

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POLICE.

Home Guards.

In 1964, the Home Guards Organization of Chandrapur district consisted of the District Commandant, Staff Officers and 2,849 Home Guards (2,744 males and 105 females). The units were functioning at various places in the district.

Village Defence Parties.

There were no Village Defence Parties in the district in 1964.

Housing.

Officers of and below the rank of Police Inspectors are entitled to rent-free quarters. In 1964, out of 50 officers and 1,050 men, 38 officers and 410 men were housed in Government quarters. The remaining officers and men lived in private buildings on hire.

During 1964, 18 constables' quarters were built in this district.

Police Welfare.

The district police has its own welfare fund. The fund is financed by subscriptions from the members of the police department of the district except the clerks whose monthly emoluments are over Rs. 150 and class IV servants. Special performances of shows, etc., are also held in aid of welfare. Numerous facilities such as medical aid provided through the police dispensary, freeships to school-going children and monetary help for purchase of books, monetary assistance to the widows of the policemen to cover funeral expenses and their journey to their native places, children's park, *balak* mandir for children, sewing class for ladies and sports are made available to the members of the police force. There is a Government mess and canteen at the police headquarters at Chanda.

THE JAIL DEPARTMENT

JAILS. Location.

There is a district prison at Chandrapur and four magisterial lock-ups located at Warora, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli and Sironcha. The district prison at Chandrapur is classified as class II prison and is mainly meant for the confinement of short term casual prisoners and local undertrial prisoners.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Prisons exercises general control and superintendence over all prisons and sub-jails in the State subject to the orders of the State Government. He is assisted by the Deputy Inspector-General of Prisons, the Superintendent of Jail Industries and other necessary staff.

The district prison at Chandrapur is in charge of a Superintendent who is vested with executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment, etc., subject to the orders and authority of the

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice. JAILS.

Regional Deputy Inspector-General of Prisons, Eastern Region, Nagpur and Inspector-General of Prisons. The Superintendent, Chandrapur District Prison, is assisted in his work by the necessary executive, ministerial and technical staff. Prisoners promoted to the rank of convict overseers and night watchmen are utilised for prison services.

Recruitment.

The post of Inspector-General of Prisons is generally filled in by the appointment of an I.A.S. Officer or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of Superintendent of Central Prison (including the holder of the post of Deputy Inspector-General) or by transfer of a suitable officer belonging to the Maharashtra Medical Service, class I, or by direct recruitment. The Superintendent of a Central Prison is an officer promoted from the rank of Superintendents of District Prisons. The seniormost Superintendent of Central Prison is usually appointed to the post of Deputy Inspector-General on the advice of the State Public Service Commission. Superintendents of District Prisons are appointed both by recruitment or by promotion from amongst Jailors, Grade I, in the proportion of 1:2. Jailors in Grade I are also appointed either by direct recruitment or by departmental promotion in the proportion of 1:2. Appointments to the posts of Jailors, Grade II, are made by the Inspector-General by promoting Jailors, Grade III. Appointments to the posts of Jailors, Grade III, are made by the Inspector-General, 50 per cent of which are made by direct recruitment and the remaining 50 per cent by giving promotions to suitable departmental candidates.

Training.

The Superintendents of Prisons and Jailors receive theoretical as well as practical training in Jail Officers' Training School at Yeravada on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work. A separate training class of three months' duration for non-commissioned officers has been started to impart practical knowledge of the duties which are expected of a jail guard.

A physical training instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities, both to the inmates of the jail as also to the jail guards.

Thus due care is taken to give every jail officer and every jail subordinate, adequate opportunities to acquaint himself with the theoretical as well as the practical side of his duties in order to enable him to discharge them satisfactorily. The training programmes have, in fact, gained an important place in the jail administration which aims at reformation.

Guarding Establishment.

Of the guarding establishment only a part is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to re-inforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison or in extramural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny, escape or other emergency. It is also available to mount guard over particularly dangerous prisoners or prisoners sentenced to death who are termed as 'condemned prisoners'.

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice. JAILS.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as class I or class II by the court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence committed. They are further classified as casuals, habitants, undertrials, etc. Prisoners are also grouped as "short-termers', 'medium-termers', and 'long-termers'. Prisoners with a sentence up to 3 months are classed as 'short-termers'. Those sentenced to a period of more than three months but not exceeding two years are classified as 'medium-termers' and those sentenced to two years and above are classified as 'long-termers'. Headquarters sub-jails are meant for confinement of short-term and undertrial prisoners only. There is no separate class of 'political prisoners' but certain rules which do not allow grant of facilities and privileges to other prisoners on the score of the length of sentence are relaxed in their favour under the specific orders of the Government.

Work is arranged according to prisoners' health. On admission, a prisoner is examined by the medical officer, who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. A work allotment committee, constituted for central and district jails, assigns suitable work to prisoners after taking into consideration their health conditions, aptitude, experience, etc. Prisoners are engaged in prison maintenance services, prison farms and industries.

Wages.

The prisoners engaged in various prison occupations are paid wages as per the rules.

Remission of Sentence.

Prisoners are granted ordinary remissions, such as annual good conduct remission, State remission, blood donation remission, remission for conservancy work and remission for physical training as per the rules.

Release on Parole and Furlough.

A prisoner may be released on parole in case of serious illness or death of any member of his family or his nearest relative or for any sufficient cause prescribed under the rules. The period spent on parole is not counted as part of the sentence. If any prisoner is found to violate parole rules, he is liable to be punished. Enquiries as regards the genuineness of the grounds advanced in the application are made through the local revenue and police authorities. Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which is counted as a part of the sentence.

Advisory Board.

The cases of long term prisoners are initially reviewed by an Advisory Board. Deserving prisoners are released prematurely under the orders of Government by remitting the unexpired portion of their sentences.

A Board of Visitors comprising official and non-official visitors is appointed as per the rules.

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Education. Literacy classes are conducted for prisoners and school books provided at Government cost. Prisoners who desire to prosecute higher studies are also extended necessary facilities. One lecturer has been appointed at the district prison to give lectures in ethics to the prisoners on Sundays and jail holidays.

Recreational and Cultural Activities. Documentary and full length films are shown to the prisoners, ordinarily once a month, by the Publicity Department. Newspapers are also supplied at Government cost as per the scale laid down under the rules. A library is also organised for their benefit.

Welfare of Prisoners. Matters pertaining to the welfare of the prisoners are attended to by the prison officers as per the rules.

Discipline. Emphasis is always laid on the maintenance of good discipline in the prison. Positive and constructive discipline is treated as the basic foundation for wholesome changes in the attitudes of the prisoners.

Jail Reforms. A Jail Reforms Committee was appointed by the Government in 1946 and in its report published in 1947, the Committee made several recommendations calculated to bring about the reformation of the prisoners. The Government accepted many of the recommendations. The rules as to the treatment to be meted out to the prisoners have since been liberalised. With the abolition of Whipping (*vide* Bombay Act XXXIX of 1957), flogging as a Jail punishment has been stopped altogether. Punishments such as penal diet and gunny clothings no more continue. Rules regarding letters and interviews have also been liberalised.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

JUDICIAL.

District Judge. The District Judge, Chandrapur, is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the district court. Under Article 233 of the Constitution of India, appointments, postings and promotions of the District Judges[1] are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than District Judges to the judicial service[2] are made by the Governor in accordance with the rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the district court and the courts subordinate to it, including the postings and promotions of, and the grant of leave to persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of District Judge, is vested in the High Court.

[1] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term 'District Judge' includes Additional District Judge, Assistant District Judge, Chief Judge of a Small Causes Court, Additional Sessions Judge and Assistant Sessions Judge.

[2] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill post of a District Judge and other civil and judicial posts inferior to the post of a District Judge.

CHAPTER 12 Law and Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Civil Courts. The District Court is the principal Court of original jurisdiction in the district. It is also the Court of appeal from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate Courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District Judge exercises general control over all the District Civil Courts and their establishments, and inspects their proceedings.

Subordinate to the District Judge are two cadres of Civil Judges, Senior Division and Junior Division. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject matter. Appeals in suits or proceedings wherein the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value are taken to the district court while in those wherein the subject matter exceeds Rs. 10,000 in value are taken direct to the High Court.

At Chandrapur, there are four Courts of Civil Judges one of Senior Division and three of Junior Division. Besides Chandrapur, there are two Courts of Civil Judges (Junior division) at Warora and one each at Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli and Rajura. The court of 3rd Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) and the Judicial Magistrate, First Class, Chandrapur, goes on deputation to Sironcha and works there for a week every month.

Criminal Courts. The District Judge, Chandrapur, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by the Judicial Magistrates after preliminaries and hears appeals against the decisions of the Judicial Magistrates. He acts as the Special Judge for conducting cases unded Section 161 of the Indian Penal Code and cases under the Prevention of Corruption Act, in the district. The Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorised by law but any sentence of death passed by him is subject to confirmation by the High Court.

The Civil Judges in the district are also Judicial Magistrates, First Class, and they try criminal cases falling in their respective jurisdictions. They are competent to pass the following sentences—

1. Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law, and
2. fine not exceeding Rs. 2,000.

The separation of judiciary from the executive was effected in the district from September 1, 1959 and the Judicial Magistrates were brought under the control of the Sessions Judge. Prior to this date they were under the control of the District Magistrate and were called Judge-Magistrates, First Class.

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Criminal Courts.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are detailed in paragraphs III-A, IV and V of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping peace or for good behaviour, however, lie from the Executive Magistrates to the Court of Sessions (Section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government have powers by notification to direct that appeals from such orders made by a magistrate other than District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Sessions. Again, under Section 406-A of the Code, any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept or rejecting a surety under Section 122, may go in appeal against such an order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions. Under Section 435 (4), the High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under Sections 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary orders in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger) and 145 (procedure where dispute as to immovable property is likely to cause breach of peace) even though such proceeding was before an Executive Magistrate.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrate of the First Class are detailed in Schedule III, Part III of the Criminal Procedure Code. They may be invested with additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court and these additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code.

Other Law Officers.

In 1965, there were three other law officers functioning in the district, *viz.*, the District Government Pleader and the Public Prosecutor, the Assistant Government Pleader and Assistant Public Prosecutor at Chandrapur and the Subordinate Government Pleader at Rajura.

Bar Association.

There were six associations of lawyers in the district located at Chandrapur, Warora, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli, Rajura and Sironcha, with a total membership of 78. These bar associations hold discussions on legal topics and at times arrange cultural programmes. The associations also send deputations to the authorities concerned in connection with legislative and other cognate matters affecting the public in general and legal profession in particular. Protection of common interests of the members of the bar is one of the important objectives of these associations.

Nyaya Panchayats.

In 1965, there were 20 *nyaya panchayats* functioning in the district.

Statistics of Suits in the Civil Courts.

In various Civil Courts in the district, 1,193 suits were pending at the beginning of the year 1963. During that year, 1,541 suits were instituted and 1,815 suits revived making a total of 3,356 suits. In all 2,432 suits were disposed of and 1,117 suits were pending at the end of the year. Of 3,356 suits, instituted and revived, 1,169 suits were either for money or moveable property; 445 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 869 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 153 were above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000; 21 were of value above Rs. 5,000 and value of the remaining 53 suits could not be estimated in terms of money. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 8,61,558.

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Statistics o Suits in the Civil Courts.

Out of 2,432 suits disposed of, 187 were disposed of without trial; 321 *ex-parte*, 215 on admission of claims; 356 by compromise; 510 after full trial and 843 by transfer.

There were 109 appeals (including miscellaneous appeals) pending at the beginning of the year 1963. During that year, 91 appeals were instituted, 84 were disposed of and 116 were pending at the end of the year. Of the 84 appeals disposed of, 7 were either dismissed or not prosecuted, 13 confirmed, 11 modified, 23 reversed and 13 remanded for retrial.

Statistics of Suits in the Criminal Courts.

In the year 1963, 5,835 offences were reported in the Criminal Courts of Chanda district. Persons under trial numbered 12,793; persons whose cases were disposed of, 8,935; persons discharged or acquitted, 2,503; persons convicted 6,333; persons committed to sessions, 56; and persons died or transferred to other States, 43. Five persons were sentenced to imprisonment for life, 342 to imprisonment, 4,668 to pay fine, 96 released on admonition and 50 were ordered to furnish security.

Statistics of Suits in Sessions Court.

In the Sessions Court, 32 offences were reported during 1963. During the same period persons under trial numbered 64, while those whose cases were disposed, 55. Number of persons acquitted or discharged was 35 and those convicted 20. During the same year 56 persons were committed to Sessions of whom 48 were tried in the Sessions Court. Of these again 30 were acquitted and 18 were convicted and committed to imprisonment. Of these only 5 were sent for life imprisonment.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The revenue and expenditure of the Judicial department in Chandrapur district for the year 1963-64 was Rs. 14,315 and Rs. 3,15,121, respectively.

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

Legislation.

In Maharashtra State, there are five pieces of social legislation, the aim of three of which is to protect children and to prevent juveniles, adolescents and young adults from becoming habitual criminals. They are (1) The Bombay Children Act (LXXI of 1948), (2) The Bombay Borstal Schools Act (XVIII of 1929) and (3) The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act (XIX of 1938). The remaining two, *viz.*, the Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959 and the Bombay Habitual Offenders Act, 1959, deal with the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders.

While the Children Act deals with children below 16 years of age the Bombay Borstal Schools Act, 1929, is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21. The Probation of Offenders Act provides for supervision of offenders of any age, especially those

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING.)

between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation for life. The Women's and Children's Institutions Licensing Act, 1956, is also being implemented. Under the provisions of this Act, every social welfare institution is required to obtain licence for safeguarding the interests of the children, girls and women entrusted to its care.

Children Act.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also to the trial of youthful offenders. It gives protection to four principal classes of children, *viz.*, (1) those who are neglected, destitute or living in immoral surroundings and those who are in moral danger; (2) uncontrollable children who are reported as such by their parents, (3) children who are used for begging and such other purposes by mercenery persons and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of elderly persons or by themselves commit offences under various laws of the land. Such children are taken charge of either by the police or by officers known as probation officers and in most cases are kept in Remand Homes. A Remand Home is primarily a place where a child can be safely accommodated until its case is decided by the juvenile court. It is also a place where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs can be fully provided for, after wise and careful consideration. After the enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents are completed they are placed before juvenile courts and dealt with according to the provisions of the Children Act. If the home conditions are found to be satisfactory and if what is needed is only friendly guidance and supervision, they are restored to their parents and placed under the supervision of a trained probation officer. If the home conditions are unwholesome and uncongenial, the children are committed to institutions known as 'certified schools' or 'fit person institutions'.

The term 'fit person' includes a fit person institution which in relation to the care of any child means any association or body of individuals whether incorporated or not, established for or having for its object the reception or protection of children or the prevention of cruelty to children or which undertakes to bring up or to give facilities for bringing up any child entrusted to its care in conformity with the religion of its birth. In all these schools or institutions the children receive formal education and training according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book binding, tailoring, agriculture, weaving poultry farming, gardening, cane work, knitting, etc. Youthful offenders when implicated in any offence along with adult offenders have to be tried separately in juvenile courts. The technique employed in juvenile courts is entirely different from that in other courts. Juvenile courts are held in Remand Homes. Penal terms such as 'sentence' and 'conviction' are substituted by 'commitment', and the term 'punishment' is described as treatment. The children are regarded as innocents and victims of circumstances or of the wrong treatment received from the adults.

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

Children Act.

Adolescent offenders coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Kolhapur. Factory work and agriculture form two of the main heads of vocational training. Weaving, smithy and manufacture of furniture and stationery are some of the other vocations taught to these offenders. The adolescents sent to this school are given such individual training and formal education and are subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as will be conducive to their reformation. However, boys found to be too incorrigible or unsociable to be kept in the Borstal School are transferred to the juvenile section of the Yeravada Prison. Similarly, if the Inspector-General of Prisons is of the opinion that any prisoner in the juvenile section can be better treated to his advantage if he is sent to the Borstal School, he is accordingly transferred. Both juveniles and adolescents, when they have finished a certain period of residence in the institutions to which they are sent and have acquired some proficiency in trade, are released under a licence as prescribed under the rules, to live in homes, or if they are destitutes, in 'After Care Hostels' (institutions run by non-official agencies) under supervision and efforts are made to find employment for them.

Machinery to enforce legislation. Non-Official.

For the proper enforcement of the legislative enactments mentioned above, machinery, both official and non-official, is provided. The non-official machinery is provided by the Maharashtra State Probation and After Care Association, Poona, with a network of affiliated bodies called the District Probation and After Care Associations. These associations provide Remand Homes and After Care Hostels and also employ probation officers to conduct enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of the delinquents and also to supervise the young persons released either directly by courts or on licence from certified schools and Borstal School. As regards the offenders dealt with under the Probation of Offenders Act, the work of the district association pertains to making preliminary enquiries regarding the cases of alleged offenders referred to them and to carry out, in selected areas, supervision of offenders released on probation.

Official.

The official agency for this purpose now is the Correctional Administration Wing of the Directorate of Social Welfare.

In 1957, the Government constituted the Directorate of Social Welfare and set up a single organisation to look after various social welfare activities of the Government at the executive level

CHAPTER 12. Law and Order and Justice.

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

Official.

on a co-ordinated basis. The Directorate of Social Welfare took over the activities of the Juvenile and Beggar's department and other social activities, *viz.*, the education of the blind, dumb and mentally retarded, youth welfare, recreation and leisure-time activities (including cultural activities), matters pertaining state homes, district shelters, reception centres under the moral and social hygiene programme, training for research in social work (including socio-economic surveys) and management of destitute homes. The Directorate of Social Welfare also issues licences to institutions doing social welfare under the Women's and Children's Institutions Licensing Act, 1956.

All this work is being executed by the Directorate of Social Welfare through the Divisional Social Welfare Officers at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad who in turn implement various schemes through the District Social Welfare Officers, Chief Officers under the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act and Superintendents of the Remand Homes, Certified Schools, Beggars' Homes, Schools for the Physically Handicapped and other institutions under the Social and Moral Hygiene Programme.

There is one Remand Home at Chandrapur with 120 inmates on remand under the Children Act. In addition, one 'fit person institution', *viz.*, *Bal Seva Mandir*, is functioning at Chandrapur for care and treatment of court committed children.

CHAPTER 13—OTHER DEPARTMENTS

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Organisation.

THE BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT at the district level is under the dual control of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad, respectively. The sphere of activities has been divided into two sectors. The works regarding major district roads and the roads of the lower order, buildings required by the Animal Husbandry department and other departments at the tahsil level, all constructional activities under the block development schemes and all the works relating to tanks which will irrigate less than 80.93 hectares (200 acres) of land are the responsibility of the Zilla Parishad, while the works relating to National Highways, State Highways, the buildings required for the administrative departments in the State sector, construction and maintenance of electric installations in Government buildings are entrusted to the department in the State sector.

Chief Engineer.

The Chief Engineer who is also the Joint Secretary to the Government is the head of the department at the State level. Under him are the Superintending Engineers of Buildings and Communications Circles and Electrical Engineer to the Government. Each circle, comprising five or more divisions, is controlled by a Superintending Engineer. The divisions are in charge of Executive Engineers and sub-divisions are under Assistant or Deputy Engineers. The Chandrapur division comes under the control of Buildings and Communications Circle, Nagpur, and has four sub-divisions under it, *viz.*,—

(1) Chandrapur sub-division, Chandrapur; (2) Sindewahi sub-division, Sindewahi; (3) Wardha Bridge Construction sub-division with its headquarters at Ballarshah; and (4) Aheri sub-division, Aheri. An additional division, under the charge of an Executive Engineer, has been created to look after the East Pakistan * refugee rehabilitation work in the district.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general professional control over public works in charge of the department within his circle. It is his duty to inspect the state of various works within his circle and to ensure efficient administration with maximum economy. He has to examine the condition of surveying and mathematical instruments at the headquarters of the divisions and control the allotment of funds for various constructional and maintenance works in the divisions. He is required to ensure the efficiency of the subordinate officers and petty establishments and to report

*Now Bangla Desh.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Superintending Engineer.

Executive Engineer.

whether the staff actually employed in each division is necessary or adequate for the management. The Superintending Engineer is empowered to transfer and post the Deputy Engineers and Overseers within his circle in the interest of administration. However, Executive Engineers of the concerned divisions are consulted before posting these officers to the sub-divisions under their control.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his circle for execution and management of all works within his division. He has to see that proper measures are taken to preserve all the buildings and works in his division and to prevent encroachments on Government land under his charge. He is also *ex-officio* professional adviser to all departments of the State in regard to matters under their control within the limits of his charge.

The Chandrapur division has about 603.50 km (375 miles) of State Highways under it. During the Third Five Year Plan, the division undertook improvements to those roads and construction of 26 bridges.

Electrical Circle.

The functions of the Electrical Circle under the Buildings and Communications department are execution of electrical works in Government buildings and carrying out advisory, administrative and executive duties pertaining to generation and use of electricity and administration of Indian Electricity Act, 1956; Indian Electricity Rules, 1956 and Electricity Duty Act, 1963.

The Electrical Circle is headed by the Electrical Engineer to Government whose jurisdiction extends over the whole State. The Electrical Circle is divided into two wings, *viz.*, the executive wing and inspection wing at the divisional level. The executive wing has four electrical divisions each under the charge of an Executive Engineer with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad. Chanda district falls under the jurisdiction of the Deputy Engineer, Electrical sub-division, Nagpur.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT

IRRIGATION AND POWER. Organisation.

The Irrigation and Power department in Chandrapur district deals with major irrigation works under execution, medium irrigation works under maintenance, minor irrigation works under maintenance as well as under construction and water-supply and drainage works.

At the State level, the overall administrative control of major, medium and minor irrigation works is distributed in a functional manner between four Chief Engineers and Director of Minor Irrigation. The Superintending Engineer who is responsible to the Chief Engineers and Director of Minor Irrigation for the works in their respective spheres is placed in charge of a circle normally consisting of four to five divisions. A division is headed by an Executive Engineer. Each division normally comprises four to five sub-divisions. A sub-division is placed in charge of

an Assistant Engineer or Deputy Engineer. The sub-divisions are divided further into sections each in charge of an Overseer. There are about 35 Overseers in each division. The section is generally formed for maintenance of about 5,000 acres of irrigated land or where capital expenditure of rupees one to two lakhs is involved.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER. Organisation.

In Chandrapur district, the Executive Engineer, Minor Irrigation Division, is responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Vidarbha Irrigation Circle (East), Nagpur. The Executive Engineer, Irrigation Project Division, is responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Vidarbha Irrigation Construction Circle (East), Nagpur.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general financial and technical control of the works in the circle. It is his duty to inspect various works within his circle and to ensure that the system of management and working prevailing in his circle is efficient and economical.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his circle for execution and management of all works within his division. The Assistant and Deputy Engineers are responsible to the Executive Engineer for management and execution of works within the jurisdiction of their sub-divisions. The Overseers are responsible to the Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers as the case may be for execution and management of all the works within their respective sections.

Activities.

Major Irrigation Works.—There is only one major irrigation project under execution in the district, *viz.*, Diva Nadi Project in Gadhchiroli tahsil. The project, as administratively approved for Rs. 226.91 lakhs, envisages construction of a 69 ft. high earthen dam across the Diva Nadi and Koka nalla near Regree village. The project has a culturable command of 30,860 acres, of which 30,500 acres of mixed crop-pattern have been proposed to be irrigated by the project. Whereas gross capacity of Diva lake would be 2,160 Mcft., the net capacity would be 1,976 Mcft. Only one canal taking off directly from the reservoir is proposed which would be 20 miles in length, serving 45 villages of Gadhchiroli tahsil.

The construction work on the dam proper has not yet been started owing to some doubts regarding the capability of the dam for storing water in view of the fissured and highly jointed nature of the rock at the dam site. Various experiments are in progress to find out the most economical way of sealing the dam seat so as to make it water-tight. The project is likely to be completed by the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan.

Medium and minor irrigation works.—There is no medium irrigation scheme under execution in the district. There are, however, three existing medium irrigation tanks (*i.e.*, those constructed during the pre-plan period and having irrigation potential of more than 4,000 acres) in addition to other minor irrigation tanks in the district under maintenance with the Executive

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. IRRIGATION AND POWER. Activities.

Engineer, Minor Irrigation Division, Chandrapur. The projected irrigation potential of medium tanks is 38,170 acres while that of the minor tanks is 9,098 acres. As against 47,268 acres of the irrigation potential created under these tanks in the State sector, 45,598 acres of area was irrigated during 1964-65.

The work of repairs and renovation of all the *ex-malguzari* tanks falling in the State sector is looked after by the *Ex-Malguzari* Tanks Division with headquarters at Brahmapuri. These *ex-malguzari* tanks irrigating more than 250 acres individually number 75. The work of repairs to and renovation of 48 tanks estimated to cost Rs. 89.47 lakhs is in progress.

Public Health.

Public Health Engineering Wing of the Irrigation and Power department deals with Government and municipal water-supply and drainage schemes and also individual rural water-supply schemes costing Rs. 5 lakhs and above.

Till July 1963, there was no divisional office of this wing in the district and water-supply schemes in the district were executed and maintained on behalf of the local bodies by the Executive Engineer, Public Works Division, Nagpur. A separate Public Health Works Division was created for the district for the execution of water-supply and drainage scheme of the Defence Project, Chandrapur. This division is in charge of the Superintending Engineer, Nagpur Public Health Circle, Nagpur, and has five sub-divisions under it. Besides the execution of the water-supply and drainage schemes of the Defence Project, this division also looks after the execution of water-supply and drainage schemes of the municipalities in the district, undertakes execution of rural water-supply schemes costing Rs. 5 lakhs and above, and looks after the maintenance of Chandrapur and Warsi (Yeotmal district) water works. Water-supply scheme for the Basic Training College at Kelapur is also entrusted to this division.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

AGRICULTURE. Organisation.

All the agricultural activities in the State, prior to the formation of the Zilla Parishad, were in charge of Agriculture department under the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona. With the inception of Chandrapur Zilla Parishad, agricultural activities in the district were divided into two sectors, *viz.*, the State sector and the District sector. The Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad in the District sector is headed by the Agricultural Development Officer while the State sector has the Director of Agriculture as its head. Though the Agricultural Development Officer is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad in administrative matters, the advice of the Director of Agriculture prevails in technical matters. The Agricultural Development Officer carries out the agricultural development programme as per the directions of the Agriculture department in the State sector. He is assisted in his

work by District Agricultural Officer, District Campaign Officer, Agricultural Officers, Agricultural Supervisors, Agricultural Assistants and other necessary staff. CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. AGRICULTURE. Organisation.

Schemes such as town compost, sugarcane development, cotton extension, taluka seed farms, experimental and research farms, soil conservation and *gram sevak* training have been retained under the State sector while those relating to *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, paddy pilot, horticultural development, construction of taluka godowns, air compressor blasting and tractor ploughing, rural compost, fertiliser distribution, plant protection and appliances on 50 per cent subsidy, green manuring, intensive cultivation of food-crops and pulses, distribution and stocking of seed, vegetable cultivation and distribution of cement, iron and steel have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

A brief account of the schemes falling in the District sector is given in Chapter-14.

Agricultural Schemes under State Sector.

The following is a brief description of the schemes in the State sector.

(i) *Scheme for Development of Local Manurial Resources.*—This scheme includes four sub-schemes, *viz.*, town compost, rural compost, green manuring and hand flush latrines, the last three being operated by the Zilla Parishad, Chandrapur. The object of the scheme is to induce such local bodies as municipal committees, cantonment boards and bigger village panchayats with papulation of 5,000 and above to start the work of compost scheme from night soil and other organic town waste.

(ii) *Hybrid seed production programme.*—This scheme was started in the district in 1966. Its object is to increase food production by distributing and producing hybrid seeds like hybrid maize, hybrid jowar, etc. During 1966-67 *rabi* season, commercial hybrid jowar and hybrid maize were taken on 105 acres and 118 acres, respectively. Government have now permitted to take hybrid seed production programme on cultivators' fields. Accordingly two panchayat samitis have been entrusted with this programme. The area to be brought under commercial hybrid jowar and maize in 1967-68 has been set at 50,000 and 3,500 acres, respectively.

(iii) *Taluka seed farms.*—There are nine taluka seed multiplication farms in the district. The object of the scheme is to multiply the foundation seed on the taluka seed farms and distribute the same to the progressive cultivators. These farms are under the charge of an Agricultural Officer who is assisted in his work by nine Agricultural Supervisors, six Agricultural Assistants and other necessary staff.

(iv) *Soil Conservation.*—Soil conservation activities in the district are under the charge of the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Chandrapur who is assisted in his work by five Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officers, five Agricultural

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

AGRICULTURE.

Agricultural Schemes under State Sector.

Officers, 26 Agricultural Supervisors and other necessary staff. The district is divided into five sub-divisions, *viz.*, Warora, Rajura, Chandrapur, Brahmapuri and Gadhchiroli.

Soil conservation by contour bunding and by terracing of paddy land is a plan scheme. The object of the scheme is the preservation, improvement and prevention of erosion of soil, improvement of water-supply, introduction of drain farming method, improvement in method of cultivation, bringing waste and fallow land under cultivation, eradication of perennial or other kinds of wood or vegetation which is likely to be injurious or prone to interfere with the cultivation.

Gadhchiroli and Brahmapuri, sub-divisions in particular are meant for terracing work, *i.e.*, compartmental paddy bunding work to convert open fields into paddy compartments. In other sub-divisions both technical graded bunding and other terracing work is being adopted.

(v) *Air compressor and blasting scheme.*—This scheme was initiated in the district in 1963-64. The object of the scheme is to deepen the wells on the cultivators' fields for irrigation purposes. The district has been allotted six air compressor units.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

Functions.

Treatment of sick animals, control of cattle epidemics, castration, and breeding of healthy cattle are the primary functions of the Animal Husbandry department. Besides, the department also advises the people in hygienic methods of animal management and for propaganda purposes participates in cattle and poultry shows held from time to time at various places in the State.

Organisation.

Animal husbandry activities in the district are controlled and supervised by the District Animal Husbandry Officer who is now under the control of the Zilla Parishad. In the performance of his functions he is assisted by the necessary staff, both technical and non-technical.

A chain of 14 full-fledged veterinary dispensaries and 38 veterinary aid centres has been established throughout the district. The work of treating and vaccinating the animals and poultry birds against various contagious diseases is carried out by the veterinary officers and stockmen attached to these institutions. Besides these activities, they are concerned with animal husbandry development schemes at tahsil and village level, such as posting of premium bulls under various schemes, supply of improved rams and poultry for the improvement of local non-descript live-stock, etc.

During the year 1964-65, 57,726 cases were treated for both contagious and non-contagious diseases, 9,461 castrations were performed, 197 specimens including blood smear, stools, urine samples and skin scrappings were examined for confirmatory

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

diagnosis of diseases. During the same year, 274,028 preventive vaccinations were performed against the contagious diseases like Rinder pest, Haemorrhagic-septicaemia, Black-quarter, Anthrax, Ranikhet, Fowl-pox and South-African horse sickness.

Artificial Insemination.

Artificial insemination is a new technique for improving live-stock in the shortest possible time. There is one full-fledged artificial insemination centre at Chandrapur with three sub-centres at Bhadrawati, Mul and Gadhchiroli. In 1964-65, 647 inseminations were carried out at all these centres.

Poultry Development.

There is one poultry breeding centre at Chandrapur and two poultry demonstration centres at Mul and Bhadrawati. These centres sell hatching eggs and distribute birds of exotic breeds for improving the local flock of birds. Training in scientific methods of rearing and management of poultry is also given at these centres. During 1964-65, loans amounting to Rs. 5,223 and subsidies amounting to Rs. 3,094 were given to deserving poultry farmers.

Besides these activities, intensive poultry development schemes have been undertaken by six panchayat samitis. Under crash programme schemes three panchayat samitis distribute pure birds and hatching eggs to the cultivators at concessional rates.

There is one cattle breeding farm at Chandrapur which is under the control of the Animal Husbandry department. The animals of Gaolao breeds are maintained at this farm. Besides, there are four supplementary cattle breeding centres located at Aheri, Brahmapuri, Gondpipri and Sindewahi. In order to protect old and useless cattle, one *Gosadan* has been started at Somnath near Mul and 900 acres of forest land has been transferred to the *Gosadan* for grazing and cultivation of grass.

In order to give encouragement to the cattle breeders, cattle-*cum*-poultry shows are organised in different blocks of the district every year and outstanding bulls and birds are awarded prizes. Introduction of various cattle development schemes such as premium bull schemes, supplementary cattle breeding centres, key village centres, artificial insemination centres etc., have brought improvement in local non-descript cattle with regard to its milch qualities.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

FORESTS.

Organisation.

Forest department is headed by the Chief Conservator of Forests with headquarters at Poona. For administrative purposes, forest areas of the State have been divided into circles, each in charge of a Conservator of Forests. Forests of Chanda district along with those of Rajura tahsil of old Hyderabad State constitute the present Chandrapur Circle (Forests) controlled by the Conservator of Forests with headquarters at Nagpur.

Before the merger of *ex*-proprietary forests in April 1951, the area was divided into two divisions controlled by Divisional Forest Officer, North Chandrapur Division and Divisional

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. Organisation.

Forests Officer, South Chandrapur Division, respectively. After the merger of *ex*-proprietary forests a third division, *viz.*, East Chandrapur Division was constituted. All these divisions formed part of the Nagpur Circle. In 1959, to cope up with the increased pressure of work, the area of the Nagpur Circle was split up and a separate controlling unit for Chandrapur district was created. Soon after, this measure also was felt inadequate and further division of the circle into six divisions was carried out. These six divisions are each in charge of a Divisional Forest Officer. Besides, there are four more divisions, two divisions looking after the preparation of Working Plans, one division entrusted with the Ballarshah integrated unit and timber depot and a special division for the execution of exploitation work in areas earmarked for the purpose of refugee rehabilitation. Rajura sub-division which is contiguous to this district was carved out of the territory of the *ex*-Hyderabad State during the State's reorganisation in 1956. Then it formed part of Nanded Forest Division. In 1958 it was detached from Nanded division to form an independent sub-division of Chandrapur Circle. With the formation of revised administrative units in 1964, this sub-division was brought under the jurisdiction of Central Chanda Division.

These divisions are divided into sub-divisions each placed in charge of a Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, who looks after the administration and the management of the sub-division. The sub-divisions are further divided into Ranges, each placed in charge of a Range Forest Officer. Ranges are further sub-divided into Rounds and Rounds into Beats managed by Round Officers and Beat Guards, respectively.

Below enumerated are the names of ranges in various divisions with their headquarters and area under their jurisdiction after reorganisation of administrative units in 1964:—

1. *South Chanda Division — Allapalli Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. Kamlapur ..	.. Kamlapur	214	554·26
2. Dechali ..	.. Jimalgatta	152	393·68
3. Pranhita ..	.. Kamlapur	197	510·23
4. Jimalgatta ..	.. Jimalgatta	176	455·84
5. Sironcha ..	.. Sironcha	236	611·24
6. Asaralli ..	.. Asaralli	130	336·70

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. Organisation.

2. *Allapalli Division — Allapalli Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. Allapalli	Allapalli	73	189·07
2. Pedigundam	Pedigundam	154	398·86
3. Aheri	Allapalli	147	380·73
4. Primilli	Primilli	298	771·82
5. Ghot	Ghot	319	826·21
6. Markanda	Markanda	88	227·92
7. Laggam	Laggam	107	277·13

3. *Bhamragarh Division — Allapalli Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. Bhamragarh	Bhamragarh	411	1,064·49
2. Tadgaon	Tadgaon	203	525·77
3. Gatta	Gatta	234	606·06
4. S. Yetapalli	Yetapalli	333	862·47
5. N. Yetapalli	Yetapalli	298	771·82

4. *Central Chandrapur Division — Chanda Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. Rajura	Rajura	40	103·60
2. Wansadi	Wansadi	179	463·61
3. Virur	Virur	71	183·89
4. Kothari	Kothari ..	108	279·72
5. Dhaba	Dhaba	83	214·97
6. Ballarshah	Ballarshah	89	230·51

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. Organisation.

5. *West Chandrapur Division — Chandrapur Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. Chandrapur	Chandrapur	85·7	221·96
2. Mul	Mul	149·7	387·72
3. Moharli	Moharli	168·0	435·12
4. Kolsa	Kolsa	188·4	487·96
5. Warora	Warora	99·0	256·41
6. Nagbhir	Nagbhir	234·4	607·10
7. Chimur	Chimur	81·8	211·86

6. *East Chandrapur Division — Chandrapur Headquarters.*

Range (1)	Headquarters (2)	Area Sq. miles (3)	Area Km.² (4)
1. North-Sindewahi ..	Sindewahi	139	360·01
2. South-Sindewahi ..	Sindewahi	151	391·09
3. Wadsa	Wadsa	134	347·06
4. Armori	Armori	108	279·72
5. Gadhchiroli	Gadhchiroli	193	499·87
6. Pendhari	Pendhari	275	712·25
7. Dhanora	Dhanora	178	461·02
8. Murumgaon ..	Murumgaon	181	468·79
9. Kurkheda	Kurkheda	158	409·22
10. Bedgaon	Bedgaon	198	512·82

Divisional Forest Officer.

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the exploitation and regeneration of the forests according to working plan prescriptions and other orders from the Conservator and the Chief Conservator of Forests. He conducts sale, enters into contracts, realises revenue and controls expenditure and deals finally with forest offence cases.

The Range Forest Officer with the help of Round Officers and Beat Guards is responsible for carrying out all silvicultural works, construction, repairs and maintenance of all buildings, roads, bridges and compounds; transport of material to sale depots and other miscellaneous works in his range.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. Divisional Forest Officer.

The Forester and Forest Guards mainly look after the protection of the forest growth against damaging factors. They assist the Range Forest Officer in the execution of regular works and in patrolling the forest area.

Extent of Forests.

Chandrapur is the richest district in the State in respect of forest wealth. The district has the largest proportion and extent of forests in Maharashtra. The forests range from well known valuable teak of Allapalli to low quality miscellaneous ones of Warora and are spread over an area of 18,290.58 km² (7,062 sq. miles). The forest area forms 69.99 per cent of the total geographical area of the district as against the average of 17.56 per cent for Maharashtra. The major part of the land covered with forests is plain with some small hillocks scattered here and there. Bigger hills are confined to southern and south-eastern portions of the district only.

Legal Status.

Before 1950, entire forests in the district, which were under the control of the Forest department, constituted Reserved Forests. Yet vast tracts were in private possession of *malguzars* and *zamindars*. With the abolition of *ex*-proprietary rights over these forests in April, 1951, these areas came under Government possession. The proprietary rights over the forests of Aheri Range which were taken on 50 years' lease by Government in July, 1920 also vested in the Government. Most of these forests have now been declared as Protected Forests and measures are now in progress to constitute them as Reserved Forests under chapter II of the Indian Forests Act, 1927. The area under Reserved Forests is 7,560.21 km² (2,919 sq. miles) while that under the Protected Forests is 10,730.37 km² (4,143 sq. miles).

System of Management.

In the natural forests the rule of "Survival of the fittest" prevails unless human agency interferes. Left to themselves the forests under the influence of natural environments which include climate, rainfall, soil conditions and the micro-organisms, may not necessarily have a healthy growth that can be usefully or advantageously employed. Again some of the essential species may not grow in the quantity that would meet the requirements. In such a state, the forests would be more of a liability than an asset. To avoid this situation and also to utilise the forests to the fullest extent, scientific management was applied to these forests after the Forest department undertook control of the forests in 1879. In the beginning the low demand and paucity of trained staff were the main limiting factors in the application of these techniques on a full scale. But with the passage of time, the changed circumstances have permitted the spread of departmental activities on scientific lines. At present the scientific management consists of preparation of working plans for different forest tracts, regeneration of the worked areas and realisation of sustained forest revenue. Depending upon the type of forests, terrain and the demand for

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS.

System of Management.

forest produce, the following systems are prescribed in different working plans in the district:—

1. Conversion to uniform age by periodic blocks.
2. Selection, improvement or selection-*cum*-improvement system.
3. Coppice with reserve.
4. Clearfelling and plantations.
5. Bamboo working.

Agencies of Exploitation.

The departmental staff looks after the correct implementation of the working plan prescriptions. The exploitation of the forests is carried departmentally or through the agency of contractors or societies—

(i) *Departmental*: Initially departmental agency used to work the interior forests which were very valuable and for which the contractors could not normally come forward. Howere, in course of time, the departmental agency was found more profitable and the system is now being adopted in other valuable forest areas. Forests of Allapalli are worked under this system.

(ii) *Contractors*: This is the main agency working in the forests. It is now being gradually replaced either by the co-operative societies or by the departmental agency.

(iii) *Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies*: With the spread of co-operative movement in the country, the Forest department too opened its area for working by the Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies. Two such societies, *viz.*, Barda and Mul Jungle Kamgar Societies in West Chandrapur Division were established for the first time in 1958-59. In 1965, there were in all 17 societies working in different forest divisions of the district.

Labour.

The bulk of labour to carry out the different forest operations comes from adjoining revenue villages. It was, however, found difficult to procure such labour for working the interior parts of the forests. The department, therefore, established small villages known as forest villages mainly to serve as a source of labour. There are 68 forest villages in the district.

Special Activities.

The department has opened a unit comprising saw-mills, seasoning kilns and a preservation plant at Ballarshah. Its object is to give treatment to secondary timber to enhance its durability and strength and thus introduce it as a substitute for teak whose cost has enormously increased due to shortage of supply. All miscellaneous timber is sawn into popular size. For the purpose of seasoning, it is stacked in the kilns and the shutters are closed and the water vapour is let in the chambers through pipes. The pressure is then controlled and within four to seven hours, depending upon the kind of species, the timber gets seasoned.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments FORESTS. Special Activities.

The department has also taken up the erection of mechanised logging units as a part of developmental activities under the Five Year Plans. Erection of two such mechanised units is going on at Ballarpur and Allapalli. The object behind such units is to improve the efficiency of logging by doing away with existing outmoded, inefficient and wasteful tools of logging. The mechanised logging would effectively increase the forest output by saving considerable time in felling and conversion of timber.

The department opened a technical school at Chandrapur in 1960 to train staff of the Foresters' rank. The school has arrangement to train 64 students every year. The course is of one year's duration. From 1965, a six monthly refereshers' course for foresters has also been started. Thirty-two students are trained in each term under this course.

The department has also established a national park around Tadoba tank The area of the park is about 194.25 km² (75 sq. miles) and is entirely in the Moharli Range of West Chandrapur Division. It is approachable from Chandrapur and Khadsingi, a small village on Warora road. The entire area was previously a game sanctuary. There is, therefore, abundance of game of various types, *viz.*, tiger, panther, chital, sambhar, chinkara, nilgai, wild pig, bear, porcupine and a variety of birds. In summer when the tank becomes the only water source for the animals in the area, it is a feast to the eyes to see a variety of animals resting around the tank. The department has also provided for a guest house and a rest house for the visitors wishing to camp in the forest.

The district contributes forest revenue annually to the tune of Rs. 1.60 crores on an average to the exchequer. The expenditure incurred annually on different activities amounts to about Rs. 62 lakhs.

Wild Life.

It would not be amiss if here a mention is made of the wild life in which the Chandrapur forests abound. The forests of this district are natural abodes of a variety of wild birds, beasts and reptiles. The most important of these are peacock, jungle fowls, ducks, geese, partridges, pigeons, parrots amongst the birds and tigers, panthers, wolves, hyaenas, bears, wild pigs, bisons, chitals, sambhars, antelopes, chinkaras, nilgais, barking deer amongst the wild beasts.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

The Directorate of Industries which in the early years played an advisory and regulatory role, is now playing a more positive role in the matter of industrialisation. Consequently, the tasks of the department have progressively become both extensive in scope and diverse in function. The work of the Directorate of Industries is mainly confined to the development and progress of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in the State.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

The organisation of the Directorate of Industries can be divided into four parts, *viz.*, (1) Head Office, (2) Regional and District Offices, (3) Institutions and (4) Statutory Boards or Corporations with which the Directorate is concerned.

The Industries Commissioner heads the Directorate of Industries. He is also the Central Stores Purchasing Officer and the Controller of Weights and Measures. The division of the work in the head office is functional while in the regions it is territorial. At the regional levels, the Deputy Directors of Industries are in charge. Industries Officers are the District Officers of the Directorate and under each Industries Officer, there are a number of Industries Inspectors. Being field officers, who constantly come in contact with the industrial units, they constitute a vital part of the organisation.

The regional organisation follows the pattern of revenue divisions. The Collector in each district is made the *ex-officio* Deputy Commissioner of Industries. He is assisted by the Industries Officer and a number of Industries Inspectors. Now the District Industries Officers are directly working under the respective Collectors and Deputy Industries Commissioners and indirectly under Regional Officers. There are Deputy Directors of Industries at Bombay, Poona and Nagpur Regional Offices and Assistant Director of Industries at Aurangabad Regional Office. These officers give technical assistance to the Collectors and bring about technical co-ordination among the District Officers under them. They act as technical advisers and pay greater attention to the developmental aspect and advise the prospective entrepreneurs in regard to the problems faced by them. The Industries Officers have to work in close collaboration with the Regional Officer in respect of common matters and functions.

Functions.

The main function of the Directorate of Industries is to foster the growth of industries in the State. For the sake of convenience, this function can be considered under the following heads—

(*i*) Large-scale industries.

(*ii*) Small-scale industries.

(*iii*) Cottage and village industries.

(*iv*) Miscellaneous.

Thus the duties of the Collectors and Deputy Industries Commissioners, so far as small-scale industries are concerned, are —

(*i*) to assist the parties in securing land, water, power, transport facilities etc.,

(*ii*) to develop suitable sites in industrial estates so as to offer to the small entrepreneurs ready built work-sheds with power and water arrangements and with community facilities such as post office, canteen etc., on co-operative basis in suitable areas;

(*iii*) to grant financial assistance by way of loans under State Aid to Industries Rules and subsidy on power consumption and to sponsor grant of such assistance in institutions like State Bank of India, Maharashtra State Financial Corporation, National Small Industries Corporation and Maharashtra State Small Industries Development Corporation for hire purchase of machinery;

(*iv*) to assist the parties in securing raw materials both imported and indigenous;

(*v*) to assist the parties in marketing products by registration with Central Stores Purchase Organisation, Directorate General of Supplies and Disposals, New Delhi, National Small Industries Corporation, New Delhi, and by pursuading them to join the Quality Marketing Scheme; and

(*vi*) to collect quarterly statistics of production and labour.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Functions.

So far as the cottage and village industries are concerned, the functions carried out by the Directorate are—

(*i*) to organise training-*cum*-production centres;

(*ii*) to grant financial assistance to artisans for the formation of industrial co-operatives, and

(*iii*) to encourage the industries by marginal preferences in State Purchase Programmes.

Items (i) and (ii) of this work have, however, now been entrusted to the Zilla Parishads, the work remaining with the Directorate being technical inspection of centres and advice, co-ordination of training, financing etc. In addition, the Directorate also performs certain other functions such as (i) Central Purchase of Stores required by Government departments and institutions and (ii) enforcement of Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958.

Under the Act, the functions of the Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur, whose jurisdiction extends over Chandrapur district along with other districts in the Vidarbha region, relate to the enforcement and administration of Weights and Measures Act, collection of revenue in the form of fees for verification and/or reverification and stamping of weights and measures. He is also authorised under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Amendment Act, 1964, to grant and/or renew licences to repairers of measuring instruments, etc., and to applicants complying with the prescribed requirements, under intimation to the Directorate of Industries. He is designated as Deputy Controller of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Amendment Act, 1964. He also renders all possible assistance to the occupiers of factories with a view to obtaining statistical returns complete in all respects in good time. He also collects industrial and commercial information on a voluntary basis as and when required by the State or Union Government. He

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments.

at the headquarters of the district and one Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries each at Sindewahi and Brahmapuri.

FISHERIES. Developmental Activities.

Pisciculture is given considerable importance in this district. As the natural waters are lacking in large densities of quick growing varieties of carps such as Catla, Rohu and Mrigal, the tanks in the district are being surveyed with a view to bringing, on a progressive scale, as much area of water surface as possible, under pisciculture with these three types of fishes. Imported varieties of fish such as the common carp, *Cyprinus carpio* var. *communis*, Grass carp *ctenopharyngodon idellus* and Giant gourami-*Osphronemus gauramy* are also being introduced in certain tanks. Intensification of stocking of carp fry or 'babies' of these fish is being undertaken every year, so much so that fry requirements within the district increased from merely one million in 1961 to four million in 1965. Small nursery or rearing tanks are being constructed at several places to grow baby fish (fry) to a fingerling stage for releasing them into large reservoirs. The major quantity of the fry is obtained from outside the State, but progressive efforts are being made to produce as much fry as possible within the district itself by using harmone infection method (induced spawning).

To give an increasing fillip to 'fish-seed' production in the district and to undertake the investigations on prawn resources and their culture, a separate fresh water fisheries research substation has been proposed in the Fourth Five Year Plan alongwith additional refrigeration and transport facilities for increased catches from tanks and lakes.

In socio-economic field, the fishermen in the district have been organised to form co-operative societies. There are 26 co-operative societies with a total membership of 1,800. Financial assistance is granted by way of adequate subsidy in the purchase of fishery requisites such as nylon and cotton twine. The co-operative societies and private fish culturists get some reduction in the price of imported carp fry, on the purchases made through Block Development Officers. The financial assistance is also granted by way of loan and subsidy for construction of rearing and nursery tanks, desilting and renovating tanks and screening of the outlets — all measures undertaken eventually towards better production of fish.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

STATE TRANSPORT. Introduction.

Nationalisation of passenger transport services in Chandrapur district, which now forms part of the Nagpur division of Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, was started in 1953. The services, initially run by the Central Provinces State Transport Services were subsequently purchased by the State Government in 1955 and renamed as the Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur. After the reorganisation of States in November, 1956, the operations were looked after by a separate department under the erstwhile Government of Bombay called

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. STATE TRANSPORT. Introduction.

the 'Transferred Road Transport Undertakings Department'. From 1st July, 1961, the Transferred Road Transport Undertakings department was abolished and Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur, along with State Transport Services in the Marathwada region were amalgamated with the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation and the reorganised Corporation was named as the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation.

Organisation.

The officer-in-charge of the Nagpur division is designated as the Divisional Controller and is a class I officer. He is immediately under the control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head assisted by the following departments and branches, *viz.*, (1) Administration, (2) Traffic, (3) Mechanical Engineering, (4) Accounts and Audit, (5) Statistics, (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering, (9) Secretarial, (10) Legal, (11) Central Workshop and (12) Organisation and Methods.

The head of the division is responsible for the operations in Nagpur division and is assisted by 12 class II officers who are charged with the following functional responsibilities:—

Administration and Traffic.—There are three officers at the head of this activity. The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters relating to traffic and operation. He is assisted by the Divisional Traffic Superintendent. The Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration. Matters relating to publicity in the division are also looked after by the Labour Officer.

Accounts and Statistics.—These branches are manned by two officers, *viz.*, the Divisional Accounts Officer and the Divisional Statistician.

Technical.—The technical side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer. Besides, there are as many depot managers as there are depots, who are wholly responsible for the working of the respective depots in the division.

The operations in Chandrapur district were first started in 1953 with three routes *viz.*, Nagpur-Chandrapur, Wardha-Chandrapur and Nagpur-Chimur, which were operated from depots situated outside Chandrapur district. The total route length of these routes was 455.4 kilometres. By the end of December, 1964, there were seven routes serving Chandrapur district with a total route length of 883.2 kilometres. There is no depot situated in Chandrapur district and the operations are looked after by the depots situated outside the district in Nagpur division. Nagpur division, of which Chandrapur district forms a part was holding 318 vehicles plying on 197 routes with a total route length of 9,165.2 kilometres. The vehicles put on

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Functions

undertakes investigations in connection with cases of trade disputes with parties in the district referred to by the Indian embassies abroad or foreign embassies in India. Cases of breaches of the provisions of the Trade and Marks Act, 1958, and/or Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper Use) Act, 1950, are also investigated by him. In addition, he is empowered to sanction loans under the State-Aid to Industries Rules up to a limit of Rs. 1,000 in each case, to applicants in his jurisdiction, subject to the condition that the total amount so sanctioned by him does not exceed Rs. 5,000 in any one year. His miscellaneous duties extend to investigation of applications (for industrial purposes) from parties in his jurisdiction for licence under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, for requirement of power, water, land acquisition, erection of buildings and for issue of essentiality certificate in connection with the applications for import quota for raw materials and machinery, export and purchase of controlled materials such as iron, steel and cement.

The Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur, is assisted in his work by other subordinate staff stationed at Nagpur. So far as Chandrapur district is concerned he is assisted by an Industries Officer stationed at Chandrapur and four Industries Inspectors.

In many respects the office of this Directorate at the district level (controlled by the Industries Officer) is a part and parcel of the Collector's office. But so far as the enforcement of the Weights and Measures Act is concerned, the Industries Officer also acts as the Inspector of Weights and Measures under the Act and is empowered to pay surprise visits for the proper implementation of the Act.

Industries Inspectors.

The duties assigned to the former Inspectors of Weights and Measures under Bombay Weights and Measures Act, 1932 and the Rules thereunder are now carried out by the Industries Inspectors in addition to the duties prescribed under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Amendment Act, 1964 and the Rules thereunder wherever this Act is in force. The main purpose of this Act is to provide for the adoption and compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weight or measure or weighing or measuring instrument may be sold, delivered or used for trade, unless it has been verified or re-verified in the manner prescribed by the Rules made under the Act and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. Fees are fixed for verification, stamping, etc. It is the duty of the Inspectors to carry out verification and stamping and collect the fees.

Weights and Measures Acts.

The Standard of Weights and Measures Act, 1956 has established the standard weights and measures based on the metric system. The change over to the metric system, which was spread over ten years, has now been completely implemented in the State. The Government of Maharashtra have enacted

the complementary legislation, *viz.*, Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Amendment Act, 1964 and have framed necessary rules thereunder. CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Weights and Measures Acts.

The metric system of weights was introduced in the municipal areas of the district from October, 1959, with a transitional period of two years for continued use of existing weights side by side with metric weights. The use of metric weights was thus made compulsory in the municipal areas of the district from October 1, 1961. The system was also extended to the remaining areas of the district from April 1, 1960 with a transitional period of two years for the use of existing weights.

Collection of Statistics.

The Industries Inspectors have to carry out duties in connection with the collection of statistics from scheduled industries coming under first Schedule of the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 employing 10 to 49 workers. The Government of India have delegated to them the powers for collecting quarterly production statistics from such units under Industrial Undertakings (Collection of Information and Statistics) Rules, 1959. The units are required to furnish quarterly statistical returns in the prescribed *pro forma*. The Inspectors have to ensure that the factories concerned maintain proper accounts and registers and have to render assistance in completing the returns. They have also to attend to the work connected with the conduct of *ad hoc* surveys of various small scale industries at the instance of the State and Central Governments. Besides they have to carry out duties in connection with the registration of small-scale industrial undertakings in order to have a correct picture of various small scale industries in the State.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

FISHERIES. Water Resources.

Chandrapur district is endowed by nature with good potential of water resources. It is traversed by five perennial rivers—Wardha, Wainganga, Pranhita, Indravati and Godavari—all running a length of about 480 kilometres, and 14 small seasonal rivers and their tributaries. Besides these fluvial waters, there are four reservoirs and as many as 12,000 tanks including the puddles known as *bodi*, all varying considerably in their dimensions, and having a total water surface area of about 41,000 acres. Of these only 4,000 tanks are considered to be perennial and the rest are either short or long seasonal. In respect of the total water resources, the district occupies the second highest position in fresh water fisheries potential in the State, next only to Bhandara.

Developmental Activities.

Considering the potentials of water resources from the viewpoint of fisheries development and at the same time to ameliorate the socio-economic condition of the fishermen, the Department of Fisheries has established an office exclusively for the district, under the charge of a Superintendent of Fisheries, Chandrapur, who is assisted in his technical work by one Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries and one Inspector of Fisheries

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. STATE TRANSPORT. Organisation.

the road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 42.90 exclusive of the seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily distance covered by these vehicles during December, 1964 was 54,415 kilometres carrying on an average, 98,876 passengers per day.

The light and heavy repairs to the buses are carried out at the divisional workshop which is situated at Nagpur. Further, after the operation of every 24,000 kilometres, the vehicles are routed by the depots to the divisional workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition a number of depot workshops, are situated at Nagpur, Amravati, Bhandara, Wardha, Yeotmal and Talegaon for daily maintenance of vehicles. Subsequently, however, a depot was started at Chandrapur. Regular daily and weekly servicing of 8,000 kilometres docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

For the convenience of the travelling public in the district the Corporation has provided a temporary bus station at Chandrapur and a bus stand with a refreshment room and a *pan-bidi* stall at Warora.

The Corporation has not undertaken goods transport in the district so far.

Co-operative Department

CO-OPERATION. Introduction.

The principle of co-operation plays an important role in the agro-industrial economy, particularly so in the sphere of rural credit societies. The primary object of the co-operative movement is the uplift of persons with limited means and elevation of their economic standard. The movement also aims at equitable distribution of national wealth. With these aims and views the movement is making steady and sure headway with the help of selfless and devoted workers. Because of its high aims and democratic approach towards the economic problems, the movement is bound to assume an enviable role in the nation building programme.

The activities of the Co-operative department extend to the fields of rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operatives, regulated markets and money-lending business. All these activities are governed under the various enactments. The Co-operative department is entrusted with the administration of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960; the Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1935; the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, 1932; the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946; the Bombay Warehousing Act, 1959 and the Rules made thereunder.

Organisation.

After the formation of the Zilla Parishads in 1962, the activities pertaining to co-operative movement in the district came under the dual control of the State Government and the Zilla

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

Parishad. The Co-operation and Industries department of the Zilla Parishad is responsible for the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc., of all types of co-operatives in rural areas having authorised share capital of Rs. 50,000 or working capital up to Rs. 5 lakhs. The supervision and control over regulated markets is also entrusted to the district sector. All other schemes are looked after by the department in the State sector.

The Commissioner for Co-operation and Registrar of Co-operative Societies with headquarters at Poona is the head of department at the State level. At the divisional level is the Divisional Joint Registrar who also works as Registrar of Money-lenders for his division. He is assisted by a Divisional Deputy Regiserar and three Divisional Assistant Registrars. The audit of the co-operative societies which is the statutory function of the Registrar is attended to by the Divisional Special Auditor.

The activities under the State sector in the district are placed under the administrative control of the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Chandrapur who is a class I officer in Maharashtra Co-operative Service and upon whom have been conferred various statutory powers by the Government. Under the Bombay Warehousing Act, 1959, the District Deputy Registrar has to work as 'Prescribed Authority' and under the Bombay Money-lending Act, he has to work as the Registrar of Money-lenders. The District Deputy Registrar is assisted by two Assistant Registrars whose jurisdictions extend over the areas specified by the District Deputy Registrar. The Assistant Registrars have to work as Public Enquiry Officers for the purpose of processing loan applications of Land Development Bank along with the District Deputy Registrar, the Block Development Officers and the Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Under the Money-lenders Act, the Assistant Registrars have to work as Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders within their respective jurisdictions.

Co-operative Officers.

The District Deputy Registrar and the Assistant Registrars are assisted in their work by the Co-operative Officers, Assistant Co-operative Officers and Industrial Supervisors. These officers are not expected to exercise any statutory powers under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1960 but they have to perform certain statutory functions as and when they are appointed for the purpose. The Co-operative Officers, however, enjoy statutory powers under section 13-A of the Bombay Money-lenders Act, in respect of records of Money-lenders.

Supervising Unions.

There are 18 supervising unions with 51 supervisors. Their services are placed at the disposal of the supervising unions which are federal bodies registered under the Act and they exercise control and supervision over the affiliates. One of the supervisors in each supervising union works as the secretary of

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Audit.

the supervising union whose main duty is to supervise the working and development of union and the agricultural credit societies in his charge. He is assisted by two or three supervisors according to the volume of the work.

The audit of the co-operative societies is the statutory duty of the Registrar under section 81 of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act and accordingly he, by himself or through the person authorised on his behalf, audits every society at least once a year. The audit staff of the district, which is now separate from the regular administrative wing, consists of one District Special Auditor, one Functional Special Auditor assisted by necessary number of auditors and sub-auditors. The audit staff in the district is under the administrative control of the Divisional Special Auditor who is a class I officer at the divisional level.

The District Special Auditor makes arrangement for audit of all societies in the district, for which purpose a list of societies at the end of the co-operative year (*i.e.*, on 30th June) is prepared and societies are allotted to different members of audit staff, according to the volume of business and size of the societies. The Act also provides for appointment of certified auditors with necessary qualifications. The societies which can get their accounts audited by certified auditors are notified in the Government Gazette and accordingly, these societies make arrangements to get their accounts audited through the certified auditors from approved panel.

Agricultural Credit Societies.

Till the end of June 1967, the district had 1,653 co-operative societies of which the agricultural credit societies alone numbered 1,204. Among the agricultural credit societies, 999 were service co-operative societies, 177 primary credit societies and 28 large size societies. The total membership of the agricultural credit societies at the end of the year 1966-67 stood at 86,650. The Government contributed Rs. 3,03,500 towards the share capital of these societies. These societies advance loans to the members for agricultural purposes and also undertake supply of fertilisers, insecticides, etc., to the agriculturists. Steps have already been taken to link credit with marketing and processing. Some of the agricultural credit societies in the district have undertaken marketing activity for the benefit of the members.

There were also 27 non-agricultural credit societies in the district at the end of the year 1966-67 comprising one urban co-operative bank, one urban credit society, three thrift credit societies, one mill hand society and 21 salary earners' societies.

Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960.

The Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act of 1960 provides that all disputes concerning the constitution, election of officers, conduct of business and management of societies shall be referred to the Registrar. Accordingly, the District Deputy

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION.

Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960.

Registrar and Assistant Registrars act as arbitrators for deciding the disputes in the district referred to them. Under the Act, the Divisional Joint Registrar is empowered to appoint the persons to work as Registrar's nominees to whom the disputes can be referred for decision in case the District Deputy Registrar or the Assistant Registrar is not in a position to decide the dispute. All these officers are selected from legal practitioners of good standing. The powers regarding the award of decision in the dispute are exercised by the Assistant Registrars concurrently with the District Deputy Registrar and the Divisional Joint Registrar in respect of all the societies in their respective jurisdictions.

Co-operation and Industries Officer.

Consequent upon the establishment of the Zilla Parishad, one of the three Assistant Registrars was transferred to it. He works as Co-operation and Industries Officer and is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He also acts as the Secretary of the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is delegated with certain powers of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies so far as registration of new societies and amendments to the bye-laws of certain types of societies coming within the purview of the Zilla Parishad, are concerned. The Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad is assisted in his work by the Block Development Officers and Extension Officers.

District Co-operative Board.

Training and education in co-operation and propaganda for spread of co-operative movement in the district are carried out by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union, Bombay. The membership of the Board is of two classes—ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district, and associate comprising individuals. A nominee of the financing agency, the District Deputy Registrar and the Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are the *ex-officio* members of the Board. The membership of the Board stood at 962 in 1968.

Farming Societies.

In 1968, there were 37 farming societies in the district of which 3 were joint farming societies and the remaining 34 were collective farming societies. Of these 37 societies, 12 fell under pilot project area while the remaining 25 societies came under non-pilot area. Mul and Sindewahi blocks have been selected as pilot project blocks. The membership of these societies stood at 927 and the paid-up share capital was Rs. 2.25 lakhs. These societies commanded an area of 121 hectares.

Housing Societies.

In 1966-67 there were 43 housing societies in the district. Of these 17 were backward housing societies, 5 societies working under low income group housing scheme and 21 societies were of flood affected persons. Of 17 backward housing societies, 7 belonged to scheduled castes, 8 to scheduled tribes and 2 societies came under other backward class scheme. During the same year, these societies had 1,526 members and the paid-up capital worth Rs. 54,700.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Industries Societies.

At the end of the year 1967-68, there were in all 166 industrial societies in the district, of which 46 were forest labourers' societies, 57 labour contractors' societies and 63 other types of societies such as potters' societies, oil ghanis societies, etc.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY. District Publicity Officer.

The Directorate of Publicity, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay has a District Publicity Office situated at Chandrapur in charge of the District Publicity Officer. He gives wide publicity to the developmental activities and varous schemes undertaken by the State Government.

The media of documentary films, newspapers, booklets, periodicals and other visual aids is used for the purpose of educating the people. The District Publicity Officer issues news items and feature articles to the local newspapers of the district. He keeps close contacts with the officials as well as the social workers, press and the main currents in the public life of the district and acts as a liaison between the people of the district and the Government.

The District Publicity Officer arranges sale and distribution of the publications issued by the Directorate of Publicity as also by the Government of India. He also distributes wall posters, folders, booklets, leaflets etc., brought out by the Directorate of Publicity. He maintains library of documentary films produced or released by the Directorate. These films are loaned to the Panchayat Samitis, colleges, high schools and social institutions, having cine-projectors for exhibition.

Besides this, the Directorate of Publicity also runs Information Centre under the supervision of the District Publicity Officer. The Centre fully equipped with varied information, charts, maps, models, exhibits, etc., serves as a useful medium for explaining to the people of the district the progress of various schemes and projects under the Five Year Plans. The Centre provides for a free reading room where newspapers, magazines, maps and charts giving information about the district, booklets on Government activities in the district and books of general interest and other reports are kept for ready reference. The District Publicity Officer organises cultural programmes, film shows and *kavi sammelans* etc., in the Information Centre. The cine-equipment alongwith mobile publicity van have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

Under the Contributory Community Listening Scheme, 233 villages in the district have been provided with radio sets. Under the scheme any village desirous of having a radio set is required to pay Rs. 175 towards installation and Rs. 60 as maintenance charges. The radio sets are installed in public places such as village panchayat office, village *chavdi*, village library, etc.

CHAPTER 14—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. INTRODUCTION.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT IS CONDUCTED by various statutory bodies such as the municipalities, the village panchayats and the Zilla Parishad enjoying local autonomy in different degress. The progress of these institutions could be marked in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitution, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise which had gone on widening with the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Bombay Amendment) Act, 1957 (Bombay Act XVI of 1958) has reached the widest limit possible, *viz.*, universal adult franchise. Every person who :—

(a) is a citizen of India ;

(b) has attained the age of 21 years ; and

(c) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification—

is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950, reservation of seats was provided in the municipalities and in the District Local Board, for women, Muhammedans, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Harijans and Tribes, and in the village panchayats, for women, Muhammedans, Harijans and Tribes. The above enactment abolished the reservation of seats for Muhammedans, Christians and Anglo-Indians but continued it for ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India (*i.e.*, till 25th January 1960), so also for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes who more or less represent Harijans and tribes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have gradually been conferred upon the local bodies culminating in the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 for the administration of the areas under their charge. This has resulted in the participation of the people in the local government creating facilities for training to shoulder higher responsibilities.

After the reorganisation of the State in 1956 and consequent transfer of Vidarbha region of Madhya Pradesh State and Marathwada region of former Hyderabad State, the municipalities in the State came to be administered under different laws for instance, Bombay area of the State under Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901 and Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925 ; Vidarbha area of the State under Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922, and Marathwada region of the State under Hyderabad District Municipalities Act, 1956. The Divisional Commissioners used to exercise control and authority over the municipalities in their respective jurisdictions.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. INTRODUCTION.

In order to provide for a unified pattern for the Constitution, administration and powers of municipalities and to make better provision, therefor, the Government appointed a Committee to advise it on aforesaid matters. After considering the report of the Committee, the Government decided to unify, consolidate and amend the laws relating to municipalities in the State and enacted in the Sixteenth Year of the Republic of India an Act, known as "The Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965".

Under the Act, the Director of Municipal Administration exercises control and authority over all institutions of local self-government in the State. The Act also empowers the Collectors to exercise control and authority over all local self-governing institutions in their respective jurisdictions. The powers of the Director of Municipal Administration and the Collector of Municipal Administration and the Collector have been defined in Chapter XXIII of the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The total area in the district under the administration of the municipalities in 1961, was about 82.880 km² (32 square miles) with a population of 99,180. The following statement enumerates the municipalities in the district along with their years of establishment, population, number of seats allocated to them, etc.

TABLE No. 1

Municipality	Year of establishment	1961 population	Total number of municipal councillors	Seats reserved	
				Scheduled Castes	Women
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Chandrapur ..	1867 ..	51,484	35	1	3
Rajura ..	1954 ..	4,376	10	..	..
Warora ..	1867 ..	14,148	13	1	1
Ballarpur ..	1949 ..	20,351	12	..	..
Desaiganj ..	1961 ..	8,821	15	N.A.	N.A.

The municipalities at Chandrapur and Warora have completed 100 years. According to the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965 (XL of 1965) Chandrapur municipality is declared as 'A' class municipality, Ballarpur as 'B' class and the rest three *viz.*, Warora, Rajura and Desaiganj as 'C' class municipalities. The four municipalities except that at Desaiganj covered 94.43 per cent of the urban population or 7.30 per cent of the total population of the district in 1961.

The State Government have powers to declare by notification any local area of which the population is not less than 10,000 to be a municipal area; to alter the limits of a municipal area so as to include therein or to exclude therefrom such local area as

may be specified in the notification; to amalgamate two or more municipal areas; to split up any municipal area into two or more municipal areas; and to declare that the whole of any local area comprising a municipal area shall cease to be a municipal area:

Provided that no such notification is issued by the State Government without consulting the municipal council or councils and other local authorities.

The term of office of a municipality is for five years which may be extended by the State Government in exceptional circumstances to a term not exceeding in the aggregate six years. Under the Act, every municipality has to be presided over by a President elected from amongst the councillors. Each municipality is to have a vice-president elected from amongst the councillors.

The government of municipal district vests in the municipality. The President as the head of the municipality has to:—

(a) preside, unless prevented by reasonable cause, at all the meetings of the council and regulate the conduct of business at such meetings;

(b) watch over the financial and executive administration of the council;

(c) perform such executive functions or exercise such powers as are conferred upon him by or under the Act or any other law for the time being in force;

(d) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the council in matters of executive administration and in matters concerning the accounts and records of the council; and

(e) furnish to the State Government or the Director of Municipal Administration or the Collector or any other Government officer authorised by the State Government from time to time, such reports, returns or records as may be prescribed by rules or as may be called for at any time by the State Government, the Director, the Collector or such officer.

The President may, in cases of emergency, direct the execution or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the council and immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the service or safety of the public and may direct that the expenses of executing such work or doing of such act be paid from the municipal fund:

Provided that—

(a) he does not act under this section in contravention of any order of the council prohibiting the execution of any particular work or the doing of any particular act; and

(b) he reports forthwith the action taken and the reasons therefor to the Standing Committee and the council at their respective next meeting.

The Vice-President has to —

(a) preside in the absence of the President at the meetings of the council ;

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties as the President may from time to time depute to him ;

(c) during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

Section 62 of the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965, stipulates constitution of a Standing Committee and the following five Subjects Committees for every 'A' and 'B' class councils :—

(*i*) Public Works Committee.

(*ii*) Education Committee.

(*iii*) Sanitation, Medical and Public Health Committee.

(*iv*) Water-supply and Drainage Committee.

(*v*) Planning and Development Committee.

The new Act also stipulates the constitution of a Standing Committee for every 'C' class council which may also appoint such Subjects Committee as it may deem necessary.

Functions.

The Act stipulates the obligatory duties and the discretional functions of the council.

The former includes all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter covers those which, despite being legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential.

A council may, at its discretion provide, either wholly or partly, out of the municipal property and funds for —

(a) laying out, whether in areas previously built upon or not, new public streets, and acquiring the land for that purpose, and the land required for the construction for the buildings or curtilages thereof to abut on such streets ;

(b) establishing or maintaining public hospitals, institutions for pre-primary and secondary education, libraries, museums, lunatic asylums, gymnasiums, *akhadas* and homes for disabled and destitute persons, and constructing and maintaining buildings therefor, along with such other public buildings like town halls, municipal offices, shops, *dharmashalas*, open air theatres, stadia and rest houses ;

(c) laying out or maintaining public parks and gardens, and also planting and maintaining road-side and other trees ;

(d) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on of the offensive trades ;

(e) acquisition and maintenance of grazing grounds, and the establishment and maintenance of dairy farms and breeding stud ;

(f) establishing and maintaining a farm or factory for the disposal of sewage ;

(g) constructing sanitary dwellings for poorer classes ;

(h) promoting the well-being of municipal employees or any class of municipal employees and of their dependents ;

(i) providing accommodation for servants employed by the council ; and

(j) making contributions towards the construction, establishment or maintenance of educational institutions including libraries and museums, any hospital, dispensary or similar institution providing for public medical relief, or any other institution of a charitable nature.

Municipal Taxation.

(l) Subject to any general or special orders which the State Government may make in this behalf, a Council is empowered to impose taxes listed below :—

Compulsory Taxes.

(a) a consolidated property tax on lands or buildings or both situated within municipal area, based on their rateable value ;

(b) an octroi ;

(c) a tax on professions, trades, callings and employments ;

(d) a tax on cinemas, theatres, circus and other performances and shows ;

(e) a tax on advertisements other than advertisements published in newspapers.

Provided that the maximum and minimum rates at which the taxes aforesaid are levied in different classes of municipal areas and other matters relating to imposition, assessment, collection and exemptions thereof also such as may be prescribed by rules.

(2) The consolidated tax on property shall include —

(a) a general tax ;

(b) a general water tax ;

(c) a lighting tax ;

(d) a general sanitary tax.

Other Taxes.

Subject to any general or special orders which the State Government may make in this behalf, a Council may impose any of the following taxes, *viz.*,

(a) a tax on all vehicles (excluding motor vehicles as defined in the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939), boats or animals used for riding, draught or burden and kept for use within the municipal area, whether they are actually kept within or outside such area ;

(b) a toll on vehicles and animals used as aforesaid, entering the municipal area but not liable to taxation under clause (a) ;

(c) a tax on dogs kept within the municipal area ;

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. MUNICIPALITIES. Municipal Taxation. *Other Taxes.*

(d) a special sanitary tax on private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by municipal agency;

(e) a drainage tax;

(f) a special water tax for water supplied by the council in individual cases, charges for such supply being fixed in such mode or modes as shall be best suited to the varying circumstances of any class of cases or of any individual case;

(g) a tax on pilgrims resorting periodically to a shrine within the limits of the council;

(h) a special educational tax;

(i) any other tax which under the Constitution of India the State Legislature has power to impose in the State.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes referred to in the preceding paragraph have to be sanctioned by the State Government. The rates at which the taxes are levied by the municipalities do not always enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous Government grants both recurring and non-recurring. For instance grants are made by the Government to municipalities towards water-supply and drainage schemes, expenditure on controlling epidemics, payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc.

These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Control over Municipalities.

Control over the municipalities in the district is exercised by the Collector, Chandrapur district, Director of Municipal Administration and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immovable property occupied by a municipality or any institution under its control or management or any work in progress under it or under its direction. He may also call for or inspect any extract from any council's or its committee's proceedings and any book or document in the possession of or under the control of the council or any of its committees. The Director of Municipal Administration or the Collector may require a council to take into consideration any objection which appears to them to exist to the doing of anything, which is about to be done or is being done by on behalf of such council.

The Collector has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit the execution of any of its order or resolution, if in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or lead to a breach of peace or is unlawful. In case of emergency the Collector may provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act, which may be executed or done by or on behalf of a council and the immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the health or safety of the public; and may direct that the reasonable expense of executing the work or doing the act, with a reasonable remuneration to the person appointed to execute or to do it, shall forthwith be paid by the council.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. MUNICIPALITIES. Control over Municipalities.

Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Director of Municipal Administration is empowered to require a municipality to reduce the number of persons employed by it and also the remuneration assigned to any member of the staff. When the Director of Municipal Administration is informed, on a complaint made or otherwise that default has been made in the performance of any duty imposed on a council by or under the Act or by or under any enactment for the time being in force, the Director, if satisfied after due inquiry, that the alleged default has been made, may by order fix a period for the performance of that duty and communicate such order to the council. If the duty is not performed within the period so fixed, the Director may appoint some person to perform it and may direct that the expense of performing it, with a reasonable remuneration to the person appointed to perform it, be forthwith paid by the council.

If in the opinion of the State Government—

(a) a council is not competent to perform duties imposed upon it by or under the Act or any other law for the time being in force, or

(b) persistently makes default in the performance of such duties or in complying with the lawful directions and orders issued by the Collector, the Director, the State Government or any other authority empowered under the law to issue such directions or orders to a council, or

(c) exceeds or abuses its powers or

(d) a situation has arisen in which the administration of the Council cannot be carried out in accordance with the provisions of the Act, or

(e) the financial position and the credit of the council is threatened,

the State Government may, by an order published in the official Gazette, appoint a Government Officer as the Administrator of the Council for a period not exceeding three years.

Audit of Municipal Accounts.

The audit of all local fund accounts is provided for under the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act, 1930. The Director of Municipal Administration, on receipt of the report of the Chief Auditor may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of illegal payment.

In addition to the audit provided for under the provisions of the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act, 1930, an 'A' class or 'B' class council has to make arrangements for audit of its account by a Municipal Auditor at such intervals and in such manner as may be prescribed and a 'C' class council may, or if so required by the State Government make arrangements for the audit of its accounts at such intervals, in such manner and by such agency as may be prescribed.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD.

In keeping with the recommendations of Balawantrai Mehta Committee, the Maharashtra Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act was passed in 1961, with a view to assigning the Zilla Parishads, local government functions and entrusting them with the execution of certain works and developmental schemes of the State Five-Year Plans. It also aimed at the democratic decentralisation of Governmental machinery with a view to promoting the development of democratic institutions and securing a greater measure of participation by the people in the plans and in the Local Government affairs.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the following departments of the State operating in the district, have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad :—

(1) General Administration Department.

(2) Local Self-Government excluding Municipalities and municipal boroughs.

(3) Developmental Departments :—Agriculture, Veterinary, Forest, Co-operation (including Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries), Industries, Public works and Road Transport.

(4) Welfare Departments:—Education (excluding training colleges and higher education), Technical and Industrial Training, Medical and Public Health, Labour, Prohibition and Excise, Backward Classes, Community Projects and National Extension Service, Social Welfare.

(5) Miscellaneous Departments.

Under the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 which came into force from 1st May 1962, all Janpad Sabhas, District Local Board, District Development Board and District Village Panchayat Mandal, were abolished and their work was vested in the Zilla Parishad.

The following offices of the Government have also been taken over by the Zilla Parishad :—

(1) District Village Panchayat Mandal.

(2) Agriculture Department.

(3) Education Department.

(4) Animal Husbandry Department.

(5) Co-operative Department (Partial).

(6) Social Welfare Department.

(7) Publicity Department, excluding Publicity Officer.

(8) Industries Department, excluding District Industries Officer.

(9) Health Department, excluding malaria eradication.

(10) Works, excluding national highway.

(11) Irrigation up to 101.171 hectares (250 acres).

(12) Dry farming.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Subjects of Activities.

The following is a brief description of the subjects of activities of the various departments.

Agriculture :—

(a) Establishment, management, maintenance and the giving of grants to Agricultural Schools, for matters other than the (i) laying down of syllabus, (ii) prescription of text books, and (iii) conducting annual examinations.

(b) Crop competitions.

(c) Crop protection.

(d) Crop campaign (including *kharif* and *rabi* crop campaigns and intensive paddy cultivation).

(e) Compost and green manures.

(f) Distribution of fertilisers, agricultural implements and agricultural quota of iron, steel and cement.

(g) Demonstration of improved agricultural practices.

(h) Model demonstration or subsidiary seed farms.

(i) Importation and distribution of improved seeds.

(j) Establishment and maintenance of godowns.

(k) Advancement and improvement of agriculture.

(l) Eradication of noxious plants.

(m) Acclimatisation of exotics.

Animal Husbandry :—

(a) Veterinary aid (excluding district veterinary hospitals but including veterinary dispensaries, veterinary aid centres and village veterinary chests).

(b) Improvement of breed of cattle, horses and other live-stock (including artificial insemination sub-centres, key village centres, premium bull centres, fodder development plots, silo pits, formation of taluka and district live-stock improvement association and the like and distribution of improved breed of sheep).

(c) Distribution of improved poultry.

(d) Orgnisation of cattle shows and rallies.

Forest :—

Village forests and grazing lands (including measures for development of village woodland for purposes of pasture and fuel).

Social Welfare :—

(a) Educational development of backward classes, including, measures relating to grant of scholarships, freeships and examination fees to backward class students and establishment and maintenance of hostels and schools for them as also giving of grants to aided hostels for construction and maintenance of hostels and supply of other aids to such hostels and schools.

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(b) Economic development of backward classes, including:—

(i) giving of financial assistance to individual cultivators in the form of loans and subsidies for the purpose of purchasing agricultural requisites;

(ii) giving financial assistance to individual artisans in the form of loans and subsidies for cottage industries and professions;

(iii) supply of spinning wheels to Vimukta jatis;

(iv) development of communications in backward areas;

(v) maintenance of co-operative stores and grant of subsidies to multipurpose co-operative societies for maintenance of staff (so far as co-operative societies having a working capital of not less than five lakhs of rupees each and having jurisdiction over less than a district are concerned);

(vi) establishment of handicraft centres;

(vii) development of cattle breeding and poultry farms.

(c) Removal of untouchability.

(d) Programmes for welfare of backward classes.

(e) Training of backward classes in improved methods of hereditary occupations including technical education.

Education :—

(a) Establishment, management, maintenance, inspection and visiting of primary and basic schools, including grants-in-aid to schools but excluding items relating to :—

(i) laying down of syllabus,

(ii) prescription of text books,

(iii) conducting scholarship examinations,

(iv) conducting primary school certificate examination and standard IV examination, and

(v) such other powers as are vested in the State Government, under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

(b) Establishment, management, maintenance and inspection of secondary schools, excluding items relating to :—

(i) prescription of curriculums,

(ii) prescription of text books,

(iii) rates of and conditions for maintenance grants,

(iv) permission for conversion of high schools into higher secondary schools,

(v) rates of fees,

(vi) laying down general conditions for recognition,

(vii) conducting of primary and high school scholarship examinations, and

(viii) such other powers as may be specifically entrusted to the Director of Education or reserved for the State Government under the Grant-In-Aid Code.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Subjects of Activities.

In the case of private secondary schools only grants are recommended and disbursed on the receipt of sanction from the Director of Education.

(c) Grant of loans and scholarships to students in respect of primary and secondary education.

(d) Construction and maintenance of primary and secondary school buildings of the Zilla Parishad.

(e) Other educational objects, and

(f) Provision of equipment and playgrounds for schools.

Medical :—

(a) Taluka dispensaries, including their upgrading,

(b) Hospitals, excluding civil and cottage as also big hospitals,

(c) Subsidised medical practitioners' centres,

(d) Rural medical relief centres and public medical relief,

(e) Grant of financial assistance to institutions giving anti-rabic treatment to indigent persons, and

(f) Grants-in-aid to private charitable hospitals, dispensaries, maternity homes and such other institutions.

Ayurvedic :—

(a) Ayurvedic and Unani dispensaries (including the giving of grants to such dispensaries), and

(b) Replenishing stock of Ayurvedic medicine chests in villages.

Public Health:—

(a) Primary Health Centres,

(b) Mobile hygiene units,

(c) Combined medical and public health units,

(d) Vaccination,

(e) School health service,

(f) Measures for treatment of anti-yaws,

(g) Maternity and child welfare centres,

(h) Maintenance of medicine boxes in villages,

(i) Facilities for health education,

(j) Rural sanitation,

(k) Taking of necessary measures in the interest of public health, and

(l) Reclamation of unhealthy localities (including grant of loans to private persons or associations for the purpose).

Buildings and Communications :—

(a) Construction, maintenance and repairs of :—

(i) village roads,

(ii) other district roads,

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Subjects of Activities.

(iii) major district roads,
(iv) bridges on abovementioned roads.

(b) Rural parks and gardens,

(c) Construction of administrative and other buildings in connection with Zilla Parishad's requirements.

(d) Means of communication other than roads.

(e) Public ferries.

(f) Maintenance of trees in the vicinity of roads, and

(g) Telephone lines.

Public Health Engineering:—

(a) Rural water-supply.

(b) Protected water-supply for fairs in rural areas.

(c) Rural drainage, and

(d) Works for preservation of water for drinking, bathing and cooking, from pollution.

Irrigation :—

Minor irrigation works (only those works which irrigate 250 acres or less).

Industries :—

(a) Local Industries
(b) Local Arts.

} Only to the extent of grant of loans up to rupees ten thousand in each case in respect of small scale or cottage industries.

(c) Training Institutes and Schools excluding research institutes and institutes meant for an area larger than a district.

(d) Training-*cum*-Production Centres and Production Centres.

(e) Sales depots and emporia.

(f) Giving of grant-in-aid and loans to individual craftsmen.

(g) Giving of stipends to trainees.

(h) Promotion and development of cottage and village industries.

(i) Organising marketing facilities for cottage and village industries' products.

(j) Giving of grants-in-aid and loans to industrial Co-operatives.

(k) Handlooms, and

(l) Executive work relating to enforcement of Weights and Measures Act.

Co-operation :—

(a) Registration of co-operative societies (only in respect of those societies whose working capital does not exceed rupees five lakhs each and whose jurisdiction is less than a district).

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Subjects of Activities

(b) Approval to bye-laws of the types of societies mentioned above.

(c) Appeals arising out of non-admission of members to the types of societies mentioned above.

(d) Administrative supervision over co-operative societies (only to the extent of examination of the general working of societies, their management and financial position, with a view to improving the business standards adopted by the societies and their office-bearers and also extending their activities).

(e) Promotion and extension in respect of all types of co-operative societies.

(f) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies for financial assistance from the State Government.

(g) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies (such as may be specified by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies) to concerned federal societies in respect of participation in share capital.

(h) Taking shares in co-operatives in those cases in which State Government can take shares subject to conditions laid down by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies and

(i) Supervision and control over agricultural produce markets.

Publicity:—

(a) Mobile publicity vans,
(b) Organising district exhibitions,
(c) Publicity through recreational activities, and
(d) Rural broadcasting.

Community Development :—

(a) Community Development Programme, and
(b) Local Development Works Programme.

Social Education:—

(a) Community recreation centres.
(b) Adult literacy centres,
(c) Sports, games, playgrounds, equipment and welfare organisations,
(d) Kisan Melas,
(e) Conducting visits,
(f) Dissemination of information.
(g) Short camps,
(h) Women's organisations,
(i) Children's organisations.
(j) Mobile cinema vans.
(k) Libraries and reading-rooms and
(l) Fairs, shows and exhibitions.

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Miscellaneous:—

(a) Village uplift,

(b) Building model villages (including grants and loans for the purpose),

(c) Economic welfare of villages,

(d) Local works or measures likely to promote health, safety, comfort or convenience of the public,

(e) Markets,

(f) Dharmashalas, rest-houses, travellers' bungalows *saraus* and the like,

(g) Chawadis,

(h) Other public institutions,

(i) Local unemployment other than industrial unemployment,

(j) Improvement, extension and laying of new village sites (including grants and loans for the purpose),

(k) Well-being of employees of the Zilla Parishad including provision of houses,

(l) Planting and preservation of trees on public ground and gardens,

(m) Rewards for destruction of wild animals,

(n) Public receptions, ceremonies and entertainments,

(o) Arrangement for local pilgrimages,

(p) Burial and cremation grounds,

(q) *Sammelans* of Panchas, Sarpanchas of Village Panchayats and other non-officials and

(r) Local vagrancy relief for the poor and maintenance of poor houses.

President.

The powers and functions of the non-official office-bearers of the Zilla Parishad are detailed below:—

The President shall—

(a) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(b) have access to the records of the Zilla Parishad;

(c) discharge all duties imposed, and exercise all the powers conferred on him by or under the Act;

(d) watch over the financial and executive administration and submit to the Parishad all questions connected therewith which shall require its orders; and

(e) exercise administrative supervision and control over the Chief Executive Officer for securing implementation of resolutions or decisions of the Zilla Parishad or of the standing committee, or of any subjects committee, or of any Panchayat Samiti.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. President.

The President may in cases of emergency direct the execution or suspension or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Zilla Parishad or any authority thereof, and immediate execution or doing of which, in his opinion, is necessary for the service or safety of the public, and may direct that the expense of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the district fund: provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this section, and full reasons thereof to the Zilla Parishad, the standing committee and the appropriate subjects commitee at their next meeting and the Zilla Parishad or the committee may amend or annul the direction made by the president. The President of the Zilla Parishad receives an honorarium of Rs. 500 per month with rent-free residential accommodation.

Vice-President.

The Vice-President shall—

(a) in the absence of the President, preside at the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time may subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

The Vice-President who is the chairman of two subjects committees gets consolidated honorarium of Rs. 300 per month along with rent-free residential accommodation. He has the following powers:—

(i) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the committee and

(ii) have access to the records of the committee.

The chairman of any such committee may, in relation to subjects allotted to the committee—

(i) call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof and

(ii) enter and inspect any immovable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction:

Provided that the chairman of the standing committee may, in relation to any subject allotted to any subjects committee, also exercise the powers under this clause.

The chairman of the standing committee may grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of class I service (other than the

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government.

Chief Executive Officer) or class II service holding office unde the Zilla Parishad.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Vice-President.

Save as otherwise provided by or under this Act, the powers to be exercised and the duties to be discharged by, and which subjects enumerated in the district list are to be allotted to the standing committee and each of the subjects committees, shall be such as may be prescribed by regulations; but all subjects in relation to social welfare enumerated in the district list are allotted to the standing committee.

The Vice-President is the chairman of two subjects committees. The councillors have to elect from amongst elected councillors two persons to be chairmen of the remaining subjects committees. They also get an honorarium of Rs. 300 each per month along with rent-free residential accommodation.

Officials.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Block Development Officers and Heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers of the Zilla Parishad. They are all gazetted officers and are transferable by the State Government to other districts. The Chief Executive Officer belongs to the cadre of Indian Administrative Service and his rank is equal to that of a Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are class II officers while the heads of the departments are either class I or class II officers.

Chief Executive Officer.

The Chief Executive Officer—

(i) shall lay down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the State Government;

(ii) shall be entitled to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad;

(iii) shall supervise and control the execution of all the activities of the Zilla Parishad;

(iv) shall have papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its committees[1] (including Panchayat Samitis);

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the District Fund;

(vi) shall exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad;

(vii) shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any Panchayat Samiti);

[1] Sections 95 to 99 of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Chief-Executive Officer.

(viii) Any of the powers conferred on or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Act, may also be exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit, to lay down, by an officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing. All such orders of the Chief Executive Officer shall, however, be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant Subjects Committees for information.

(ix) He shall assess, and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of class I service and class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad; forward them to such authorities as may be prescribed by the State Government and lay down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of class III service and class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

Deputy Chief Executive Officer.

The Deputy Chief Executive Officer shall be the secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee[1].

Block Development Officer.

The Block Development Officer—

(i) shall have the custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Panchayat Samitis;

(ii) shall be the secretary, *ex-officio* of the Panchayat Samitis[2];

(iii) shall, subject to the general order of the Chief Executive Officer, grant leave of absence to an officer or servant of class III service or of class IV service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(iv) shall call for any information, return, statement, account, report, or explanation from any of the officers or servants working under the Panchayat Samiti:

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the grant or rents payable to the Panchayat Samiti under sections 185 and 188;

(vi) shall, in relation to the works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property sale or transfer thereof, as may be specified by the State Government.

Heads of the Departments.

(i) Every head of the department of the Zilla Parishad may, in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his department, accord technical sanction thereto.

(ii) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of officers of class II service working in his

[1] Sections 9 and 79 of the Act.

[2] Section 57 of the Act.

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Administrative Organisation.

department and shall forward them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) The head of department, specified in this behalf shall be the secretary, *ex-officio*, of such Subjects Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct[1].

The Chandrapur Zilla Parishad started functioning from May 1, 1962 with the enforcement of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961. The Parishad has 74 members. The classification of the members is as follows:—

51 elected councillors.
16 *ex-officio* councillors (Chairmen of the Panchayat Samitis).
5 Associate Councillors (Chairmen of Federal Societies).
2 Co-opted lady councillors.

The Zilla Parishad is presided over by the President who is elected by the Parishad from amongst, the elected Councillors. The Vice-President and two Chairmen of the Subjects Committees are elected by the Zilla Parishad. The Chief Executive Officer is the Chief Administrative Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The Zilla Parishad has appointed Seven Committees including the Standing Committee and six Subjects Committees, one each for finance, education, co-operation, health, agriculture and works. The Standing Committee with the President of the Zilla Parishad as Chairman is composed of Chairmen of three Subjects Committees, seven elected councillors and two co-opted members who are experts in the field. All other committees except Co-operation Committee consist of seven elected councillors and two co-opted members. The Co-operation Committee consists of five elected councillors and 5 associate councillors. These Subjects Committees and Standing Committee supervise, direct and guide the working of all the departments of the Zilla Parishad.

General Administration Department.

The most important aspect of the general administration department of the Zilla Parishad is to control the whole non-gazetted staff of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis and to arrange for the meetings of the Zilla Parishad and Subjects Committees, to plan for the development works to be undertaken by the Zilla Parishad and keep administrative control on all the departments and the Panchayat Samitis.

In short it deals with non-technical matters such as establishment, parishad matters, revenue, panchayats, social welfare and planning. The establishment and parishad branches are headed by the Deputy Chief Executive Officer. The planning branch is controlled by the Planning Officer and the Panchayat branch by the Administrative Officer, both Gazetted Officers of class I rank. The Revenue Officer is deputed for the revenue matters.

[1] Section 80 of the Act.

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Social Welfare Department.

The Social Welfare Department forms a section of the General Administration Department and is controlled by the Social Welfare Officer, a Class II Gazetted Officer. The Social Welfare Officer has been entrusted with the work of implementation of various schemes for the uplift and welfare of the backward classes, such as scheduled castes and tribes, *vimukta jatis* and nomadic tribes. The amelioration of the backward classes is sought through cultural activities by giving them various educational and financial concessions.

Backward Class Welfare Programmes

Backward Class Welfare Programmes aim at the amelioration of the conditions of the backward classes so that they reach the standards of other sections of the society as quickly as possible. Several schemes of educational, financial, social and miscellaneous nature have been sanctioned for their welfare. Under educational schemes, various concessions towards payment of scholarships, tuition fees and examination fees are granted to all categories of backward classes by giving substantial grants-in-aid, the advantage of which is taken by all categories of students belonging to backward classes.

Under the housing programme, subsidy is given to the backward class families towards construction of houses.

Social Welfare :

Though the activities under Social Welfare do not come under Zilla Parishad, still the social welfare officer of the Zilla Parishad has to do the work concerning the social welfare activities in the district.

They include—

(1) State Home for Rescued Women, (2) Certified School, (3) Remand Homes, (4) Home for crippled children, (5) Government Shelter Workshop for deaf, mute etc., (6) Social and Physical Welfare Institutions, (7) Dance, Drama and Music Schools, (8) Grants to orphanages and (9) Grants to institutions for physically handicapped.

Special attention is paid to the tribal areas and necessary efforts are being made for their development.

Under audio-visual scheme, films and documentaries are exhibited in the villages.

Finance Department.

The duties of the Finance Department of the Zilla Parishad can be classified into four branches, *viz.*, accounts, audit, custody of cash and custody and verification of stores. It also acts as the financial advisor to many of the departments of the Zilla Parishad. It is headed by the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer, a Class I Gazetted Officer, assisted by the Accounts Officer who is a Class II Gazetted Officer. It is under the overall control of the Finance Committee of the Zilla Parishad, with the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer as its Secretary.

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Preparation of budget is also an important function of the department which is dealt with by an independent branch. The department co-ordinates the budgets of the several departments before they are placed for approval. The Subjects Committees scrutinise the budget proposals and make recommendations. The Chairman of the Finance Committee is *ex-officio* President of the Standing Committee for finance and guides the deliberations of the committee.

The Accounts and Audit branches are under the initial supervision of two experienced Head Assistants, one drawn from the Treasury and other from the ex-Janapada Sabha.

The department has also a stores branch which is controlled by a superintendent. This is in addition to another stores branch functioning in the works department under the supervision of a store-keeper.

As mentioned earlier, finance department is in custody of cash. Pursuant to this, funds required for the activities of the Panchayat Samitis are allotted by the department through the Central Co-operative Bank, Nagpur, which has nine branches in the district. The budgets of the Panchayat Samitis are included in the budget of the Zilla Parishad; otherwise, the Panchayat Samitis work as independent units in respect of works executed in their respective jurisdictions.

As per the budget provisions for 1967-68, the income of the Zilla Parishad was Rs. 21,99,110 whereas its expenditure amounted to Rs. 2,25,20,257.00.

Agriculture Department.

The Agriculture Department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by Agricultural Development Officer who is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer. He is assisted by Campaign Officer and District Agricultural Officer. It is placed under the overall control of the Agricultural Subject Committee. The Agricultural Development Officer has not only to exercise technical and administrative control but also to execute and supervise the departmental activities in the district. He is responsible for the development of agricultural activities and has to work for the increase in agricultural production. It is the function of this department to bring maximum area under improved seeds and to undertake programmes of intensive cultivation, horticulture, vegetable development, and pests and disease control.

Before the formation of the Zilla Parishad, Animal Husbandry department was an independent department, but now it has been merged in the Agriculture Department and forms one of its sections. All the veterinary activities in the district are controlled by the Animal Husbandry Officer who heads this section. He is responsible for technical guidance in all animal husbandry matters and has to arrange for the immunisation of animals against various kinds of live-stock diseases and work for the improvement of animal breed.

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. ZILLA PARISHAD. Industries and Co-operation Department.

The Co-operative Department of the State Government under revised set up came into being on March 1, 1961, according to which the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, was made the district head. It was executing two types of functions *viz.*, (1) regulatory and (2) promotion and extension activities. The Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 entrusted the Zilla Parishad with the promotional and extension activities with certain reservations for municipal areas. The regulatory functions were however retained with the department in the State Sector.

The Industries and Co-operation department of the Zilla Parishad is in charge of the Co-operation and Industries Officer, who is a Class II Gazetted Officer. He is assisted by a Co-operative Officer and one Assistant Co-operative Officer along with two Extension Officers, one for co-operation and one for industries attached to each Panchayat Samiti. The department is controlled and directed by the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad with the Co-operation and Industries Officer as its Secretary. The statutory powers under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1960, regarding registration of co-operative societies and amendment of bye-laws and hearing appeals for non-admission of membership by co-operative societies are delegated to this officer under the Zilla Parishad.

The department also deals with grant of loans to small scale and cottage industries under State aid to Industries Rules, 1961, grant of loans to educated unemployed, grant of financial assistance to *bona fide* craftsmen and backward class artisans, giving subsidies to industrial co-operative and loans to industrial societies. The department also helps in the campaign of collection of rural debentures.

Education Department.

Before the inception of the Zilla Parishad, education was under the jurisdiction of the State Government and the Director of Education was the head of the department at the State level.

Central Government schemes and the State Government policies regarding education were executed at the district level by the Government Inspectorate in the district. The District Inspectorate consisted of one Educational Inspector, one Deputy Educational Inspector and 34 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. All educational institutions in the district were under the control of the Educational Inspector. To facilitate the administration of primary education, District School Boards were entrusted with the work of primary education. Secondary schools, primary training colleges and other technical and professional institutions were directly under the control of the Educational Inspector. The Inspector and his deputies visited and inspected these institutions and recommended grants-in-aid. Besides this, the responsibility of the control of the primary education also partly vested with the Educational Inspector as he was empowered to have general supervision over the administration of the schools.

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Education Department.

The District School Board which is now a defunct body was composed of a Chairman, a Vice-Chairman, and 14 other elected and nominated members. The Administrative Officer, who worked as the *ex-officio* Secretary of the body, was the representative of the State Government to guide the Board on Government policies in respect of educational matters. He executed the programmes chalked out by the Board for primary education in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee, a statutory body under the Primary Education Act, 1947. Teachers were interviewed, selected and appointed by him in accordance with the rules prescribed by the State Government. The academic side of primary schools was supervised and controlled by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors working under the control of the Educational Inspector who visited and inspected the primary schools.

They recommended cases for opening of primary schools, grants to primary schools, etc., through the Deputy Educational Inspector who was their immediate superior.

This was in brief the picture of the administrative set-up with the powers and duties of the functionaries of the Education department prior to the advent of the Zilla Parishad.

The Parishad Education Officer is the head of the Education department in the district. He has to work under the direct control of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted by Deputy Education Officer along with Assistant Deputy Education Inspectors.

The Education Officer of Zilla Parishad is the head of Education department who is a Class I Gazetted Officer and is assisted by two Deputy Education Officers who are Class II Gazetted Officers and other subordinate staff. The Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad of which the Education Officer is the Secretary, guides and directs the working of this department. Technical guidance and suggestions for improvement are made by the Director of Education, Maharashtra State.

Public Health Department.

The Public Health Officer who works as Secretary to the Health Committee of the Zilla Parishad that guides the functioning of the Public Health department is the head of the Public Health department of the Zilla Parishad. He is responsible for all the Medical and Public Health activities in the district excepting the Civil Hospital at Chandrapur. It is his responsibility to see that the sanitation of the district is properly maintained. The Public Health Officer takes measures to improve rural sanitation, investigates into the causes of the spread of diseases and epidemics and adopts preventive and curative measures to control them. He is assisted by the Epidemic Medical Officer in taking preventive and curative measures against outbreak of epidemics and spread of diseases. He has also to supervise the activities of the Primary Health Centres, S. E. T. Units, Family Planning Centres, for administrative and technical purposes.

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Public Health Department.

The health matters in the district are under dual control in that while primary health centres, maternity and child health centres along with other institutions in the district health organisation are looked after entirely by the Zilla Parishad, the leprosy survey, education and treatment units and family planning centres are looked after by the Zilla Parishad on agency basis.

In 1967 there were 18 Primary Health Centres, 18 Family Planning Units, 36 Ayurvedic dispensaries, 24 Allopathic dispensaries, 17 S. E. T. Units and two Leprosy Units in the district.

Works Department.

The Works department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who is also the Secretary of the Works Committee. Twelve Deputy Engineers assist him in his work. This department is concerned with the construction of buildings required by the Zilla Parishad, construction and maintenance of roads below the cadre of major district roads, construction and maintenance of minor irrigation works and rural water-supply. The execution of these works is vested in the Deputy Engineers in charge of sub-divisions and carried out by them under the overall supervision of the Executive Engineer. The Zilla Parishad gets an income from the auction of the ferries.

Panchayat Samitis.

The Panchayat Samitis mark the second stage in the administration of the democratic decentralisation of powers.

18 Panchayat Samitis with 20 Blocks, including 6 Tribal Blocks, have been established in this district with headquarters at Chandrapur, Mul, Gondpipri, Warora, Bhadrawati, Chimur, Brahmapuri, Nagbhid, Sindewahi, Gadhchiroli, Armori, Kurkheda, Dhanora, Chamorshi, Sironcha, Aheri, Etapalli and Rajura. The following table shows the composition of different Panchayat Samitis in the district.

COMPOSITION OF PANCHAYAT SAMITIS IN THE DISTRICT

Panchayat Samiti (1)	Elected Councillors (2)	Co-opted Councillors (3)	Co-opted members (4)	Associate members (5)	Elected Sarpanchas (6)	Total (7)
Chandrapur ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Mul ..	4	..	2	2	8	16
Gondpipri ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Warora ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Bhadrawati ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Chimur ..	4	..	2	2	8	16
Brahmapuri ..	3	1	2	2	6	14
Nagbhid ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Sindewahi ..	3	..	2	2	6	13
Gadhchiroli ..	2	..	2	2	6	13
Armori ..	3	..	3	2	6	14
Kurkheda ..	2	..	2	2	4	10
Dhanora ..	2	..	1	2	4	9
Chamorshi ..	3	..	3	2	6	14
Sironcha ..	2	1	2	2	4	11
Aheri ..	2	..	1	2	4	9
Etapalli ..	2	..	2	2	4	10
Rajura ..	4	..	2	2	8	16

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Panchayat Samitis.

Under section 57 of the Act, a Panchayat Samiti has been provided for every block. Every Panchayat Samiti will consist of the following members :—

(a) All councillors who are elected on the Zilla Parishad from the electoral divisions in the block.

(b) The co-opted councillor of the Zilla Parishad residing in the block.

(c) The Chairmen of such co-operative societies conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural products in the block as nominated by Government (to be associate members).

(d) The Chairman of a co-operative society conducting business relating to agriculture (not being a society falling under 'C' above) in the Block, co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member).

(e) In case of non-availability of a woman member or a member belonging to the scheduled castes or the scheduled tribes, one member who is a regular resident in the Block, to be co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti.

(f) Sarpanchas elected by members of the Village Panchayats.

Chairman.

The term of office of the Chairmen and members of the Panchayat Samitis is co-terminous.[1]

The Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 per month with the facilities of free residential accommodation.[2] The Deputy Chairman of Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month.

Powers and functions of Chairman :

Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules or regulations made thereunder,—

(1) the Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti shall—

(a) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Panchayat Samiti ;

(b) have access to the records of the Panchayat Samiti ;

(c) exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants of or under the Zilla Parishad and working in the Block in matters of execution or administration and the accounts and records of the Panchayat Samiti ;

(d) in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property or sale or transfer thereof as may be specified by the State Government.

(2) The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may—

(a) call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant working under the Panchayat Samiti ;

[1] Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.

[2] *Vide* Section 69 of the Act.

(b) enter on and inspect any immovable property in the block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad, or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction.

Panchayat Samitis. *Chairman.*

Powers and functions of Deputy Chairman :

Deputy Chairman.

(1) The Deputy Chairman of a panchayat samiti shall—

(a) in the absence of the Chairman preside at the meeting of the Panchayat Samiti ;

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti as the Chairman from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in that behalf delegate to him by an order in writing ; and

(c) pending the election of the Chairman or during the absence of the Chairman exercise the powers and perform the duties of the chairman.

(2) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may enter on and inspect any immovable property in the block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or its direction and shall send a report of such inspection to the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

India had Village Panchayats since early times but they lost their importance during the British regime due to centralization of power. However in the first decade of the 20th century growing need was felt for the establishment of local-self government to a limited degree to dispose popular discontent. With this view an Act was passed in 1915 and implemented in 1920, by establishing a few gram panchayats. Their supervision was entrusted to the District Council.

Village Panchayats Act, 1946.

The Village Panchayat Act of 1946, enforced in the same year established gram panchayats with membership varying between five and 15 on the basis of male adult franchise. It provided for the election of a Sarpanch and an Up-sarpanch by the members from among themselves. The revenue patil of the village was made an *ex-officio* member.

The Act divided the duties of the village panchayats into obligatory and optional. Whereas the obligatory duties included sanitary and health measures, construction of and repairs to roads, maintenance of birth and death registers, provision of water-supply and undertaking of such other works for public convenience, the optional duties involved construction and maintenance of dharmashalas, development of agriculture, co-operation, veterinary services etc. ; only if the finances of the gram panchayats permitted, the latter works were to be undertaken.

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A few of the gram panchayats also performed judicial functions under this Act. They were authorised to impose fines not exceeding Rs. 20 and conduct civil suits not exceeding Rs. 100 in value. District and sessions judge heard appeals against their decisions. The panchayats were empowered to appoint the Secretaries and other necessary staff.

Village Panchayats Act, 1958.

The Bombay Village Panchayats Act of 1958, was made applicable to the district on the reorganisation of States. Under the Act which came into force from June 1, 1959 in the district, women were given representation in the panchayats. The Act abrogated the *ex-officio* membership of the revenue patils and made panchayats responsible for all-round development of the village. It has given wide powers to the village panchayats.

The maximum and minimum number of members of Village Panchayat is 15 and 7, respectively, and the members are to be elected by universal adult franchise. Provision has been made to reserve seats to represent the Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes. However, in every Panchayat two seats are reserved for women. The term of office of a Panchayat is 4 years which could be extended by one year by the orders of the Collector when found necessary. In the first meeting of the Panchayat, after general elections, the Sarpanch and Up-sarpanch are elected from amongst the members and the term of office begins from this date.

The vacant seats which cannot be filled in by election are to be filled in by nomination by the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. The Sarpanch is the executive head of a village panchayat and presides over its meetings. Every panchayat shall have a Secretary appointed by the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad. At present 251 Assistant Gram Sevaks are working as the Secretaries, each looking after the work of 3 to 4 Gram Panchayats. The remaining Gram Panchayats have Gram Sewaks. The Secretary is responsible for the maintenance of records and accounts of the Village Panchayat under section 61 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act. For want of sufficient number of Secretaries (Assistant Gram Sewaks), the Sarpanchas in the district in general and the scheduled areas, *i.e.*, Gadhchiroli, Sironcha and Rajura Talukas in particular find it difficult to maintain proper records due to illiteracy. The Panchayat has powers to appoint servants for the discharge of its duties. The powers and functions of Village Panchayats are enumerated under section 45 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act.

In addition to the income derived from taxation as provided in section 124 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, every Panchayat is eligible for 30% of the land revenue collected in the village as land revenue grant and land equalisation grant worked out at rupee one per capita minus the land revenue grant paid, from government for utilising the same in development activities. Under section 127 of the Act, every Panchayat is entitled

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Village Panchayats Act, 1958.

to get a minimum cess of 20 paise per rupee of the land revenue. Under section 62 of the Act, a Panchayat has to submit each year a budget showing the opening balance and estimated income and expenditure on establishment and for the discharge of its duties under section 45, to the Panchayat Samiti for approval and to follow the same scrupulously.

A District Village Panchayat Officer has been appointed to control the administration of Village Panchayats in Chandrapur district. He assists the Collector in his functions and duties in respect of administration of village panchayats with the aid of District Auditor, five sub-Auditors and other necessary staff. Besides, two Social Welfare Inspectors have been allotted to the district as supervisory staff.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the District Panchayat Mandal has been abolished and the Village Panchayat Officer now works with the Zilla Parishad. The control of the village panchayats now vests in the Zilla Parishad through Panchayat Samitis.

The coverage programme under village panchayats as envisaged under second five-year plan is now complete in the district. There are 1,179 Village Panchayats covering 3,310 villages out of 3,359 villages. The remaining 49 villages are forest villages which are situated in forest areas and away from the regularly settled other villages. These forest villages are meagrely populated and they are economically backward to have an independent Panchayat. It is also equally impossible and inconvenient to form them into group village panchayats due to long distances. However, proposals are under consideration to cover up these 49 forest villages also by village panchayats by grouping them with the nearest panchayats.

There is to be a Nyaya Panchayat for the administration of civil and criminal justice in a group of village panchayats of not less than five in number as the State Government may by notification in the official Gazette determine and it shall be called by such name as may be specified in the notification.

The Nyaya Panchayat consists of one member elected by such a panchayat which is to elect out of the members of the *gram sabha* of that village, one person for the purpose of constituting the Nyaya Panchayat. Thus the minimum number of members of Nyaya Panchayat will be five. Any member of *gram sabha* except the sarpanch and the up-sarpanch has the right to contest the Nyaya Panchayat elections. The voters are the members of the panchayats concerned. The term of a Nyaya Panchayat is to expire with the term of the village panchayat. The State Government have powers to remove any member of a Nyaya Panchayat for reasons of misconduct in the discharge of his duties, or any disgraceful conduct, or for neglect or for incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

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VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Village Panchayats Act, 1958.

Elections to all the Nyaya Panchayats in the district took place during the year 1964-65 but actual functioning has not started as yet. There are 207 Nyaya Panchayats in this district. As per section 65 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, term of office of a member of the Nyaya Panchayat expires with that of the Panchayat which elected him. The term of most of the Village Panchayats in this district expired in 1965 and 1966 and hence general elections of Panchayats were held during the year 1967. According to section 65 of the Act, the terms of most of the Nyaya Panchayats are deemed to have expired and fresh elections are due. The Secretary of the Village Panchayat works as judicial clerk of the Nyaya Panchayat.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad with effect from 1st June 1962, all the Village Panchayats have come under the Zilla Parishad which has given impetus to the tempo of developmental activities. Though major portion of this district is backward, without communication facilities, the Village Panchayats are improving slowly but steadily. This is evident from the income and expenditure statistics pertaining to the years 1961-62 and 1964-65 which are given below :—

(1)	1961-62 (2)	1964-65 (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1 Total income	14,25,855	65,58,082
2 Total expenditure	12,76,893	60,15,389

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Maharashtra State has an independent department, *viz.*, Town Planning and Valuation Department under the administrative control of the Urban Development, Public Health and Housing Department. This department, came into existence in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government, Poona now designated as Director of Town Planning, Maharashtra State, Poona as its head.

The department as its name indicates, principally deals with the important subjects such as Town Planning and Valuation of Real Properties. Some of the important duties and functions of this department as stipulated by Government are as under :—

Town Planning Work.

1. Preparation of regional plans, development plans and town planning schemes under the provisions of the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966 which has come into force in the State with effect from 11th January, 1967.

2. Rendering assistance to the municipal authorities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice as well as loan of the services of technical assistants for the preparation of development plans, draft town planning schemes, etc.

3. Performing the duties of Town Planning Officers, arbitrators, when so appointed by Government under the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, to carry out

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TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

surveys, prepare the existing land-use-plans and development plans, to scrutinise development or building permission cases, to render advice to the Tribunals of Appeal and to draw up final town planning schemes, to work as members of the Regional Planning Boards.

Town Planning Work.

4. Advising the Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation.

5. Advising and preparing town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the Municipal Acts.

6. Preparing development schemes or layouts of (i) lands belonging to Government, (ii) lands of co-operative housing societies and (iii) lands of private bodies with the sanction of Government.

7. Preparation of village layouts for extension of old village gaothan and new village gaothan sites.

8. Advising the Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation.

9. Preparing type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans.

10. Scrutinising miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and to recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

11. Advising the Nagpur Improvement Trust, Nagpur, in the preparation of the improvement scheme under the Nagpur Improvement Trust Act, 1936, to scrutinise the schemes when submitted for sanction, and advise Government regarding sanction to the schemes.

Other Miscellaneous Duties.

1. Advising the various heads of departments of Government in selection of sites required for the public purposes.

2. Ensuring that all town planning schemes or layouts sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed, in the schemes.

3. Advising the Government as regards interpretation, amendment of or addition to the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966 or Rules thereunder.

Valuation Work.

The Director of Town Planning is the chief expert adviser to Government on this subject and his duties under this head include :—

1. Valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to Government and intended for the purposes of sale or lease.

2. Valuation of Government properties for the purpose of rating under the provincial Municipal Corporation Act, and function as the Authorised Valuation Officers for finalisation of the lists of assessment of all the properties in municipal

CHAPTER 14. Local Self-Government. TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Valuation Work.

towns submitted by the Chief Officers under the provisions of the Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965.

3. Valuation for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate on stamp duty, etc.

4. Valuation for the purposes of fixing standard rates of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing zones of values in all villages and rising localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns.

5. Valuation for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments.

6. Scrutiny of awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894.

7. Supplying trained Technical Assistants to do duty as special land acquisition officers in important towns where the land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature.

8. Giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in the District Courts and High Courts when appeals are lodged against the awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act.

9. Undertaking valuation work on behalf of Railways and other departments of Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees etc.

Regional Planning.

1. The statutory powers regarding planning were embodied under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, which was in force till its replacement by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. The Act of 1954 generally incorporated the provisions of Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and in addition made obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayat) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction.

2. The Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, applied to lands included within the municipal limits only, and therefore there was no provision for exercising proper and effective control over the municipal areas which were growing in an irregular and haphazard manner. The evil results of such un-controlled growth and development have already become apparent in the vast areas outside Greater Bombay and Poona and other important urban centres. It was considered that the only way to tackle adequately these evil effects arising out of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation would be to resort to regional planning for areas around the metropolitan centres like Bombay, Poona and Nagpur and by developing counter magnets for the disposal and relocation of both industries and population within the region.

There was no statutory power under the 1954 Act for the preparation of regional plans which has, therefore, been repealed and replaced by the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966. This Act came into force in the State with effect from 11th January, 1967. This Act provided for establishment

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of regions and constitution of Regional Planning Boards for the preparation of regional plans, designation of sites for new towns, establishment of development authorities to create new towns, preparation of development plans for the municipal areas and town planning schemes for execution of the sanctioned development plans. Government has established the Metropolitan Regions at Bombay, Poona and Nagpur and constituted Regional Planning Boards for these three regions.

The scope of the regional plan for an urban region is to formulate a policy for guidance and control of development within the region in such a manner that :—

(i) Land be used for the best purposes for which it is most suitable, *e.g.*, residential, commercial, as regards to both public and private interests.

(ii) Adequate means of communication be provided for traffic throughout the region.

(iii) Building development be concentrated in areas where adequate public and utility services can be supplied economically.

(iv) Ample areas be reserved as open spaces.

(v) Amenities of the countryside be protected including preservation of landscape.

(vi) Preservation of historical monuments, etc.

Briefly, the object of the Regional Plan is to regulate development so as to maintain a proper balance between buildings and open space and secure healthy and economic urban growth.

3. The department as stated above was started in the year 1914 with the consulting surveyor to Government, Poona (now designated as Director of Town Planning, Maharashtra State, Poona) as its head who was later on assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Deputy-Director of Town Planning) and Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor (now designated as Assistant Director of Town Planning) and two Sr. Assistants (now designated as Town Planner) with the requisite staff. As the activities of this department increased, these assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to attend to the work of Town Planning, Valuation, etc., very essentially required in and around the towns and cities. There has been considerable increase in the activities of this department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of this department is at Poona and other offices at present exist at Bombay, Poona, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Thana, Sholapur, Akola, Ratnagiri, Satara, Nanded, Ahmednagar, Chandrapur and Bhiwandi. The department also spares officers to work in the awards section of Revenue and Forest department to scrutinise the land acquisition awards in the Bombay collectorate to deal mainly with valuation work in Bombay, in Maharashtra Housing Board to function as Assessor and in the Rural Housing Cell of the Rural Development Depart-

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ment to prepare layouts of villages included in the schemes of that department. Officers of the department are also called upon to give expert evidence in the courts in Land Acquisition Reference and appointed to function as arbitrators to finalise Draft Town Planning Schemes prepared by the Planning Authorities and as part-time or full time Land Acquisition Officers at important places like Bombay, Poona, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Satara, Ahmednagar, etc.

4. Consequent upon the reorganisation of States, that took place on November 1, 1956, a new branch office of this department with Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head came into existence at Nagpur for the four districts of Nagpur, Chandrapur, Wardha and Bhandara. The making and execution of town planning schemes and the development of areas was being regulated by the Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act, 1948, till 1st May 1965 since when the Bombay Town Planning (Amendment and Extension) Act, 1965, came into force in Vidarbha Region.

A separate branch of this department under a Town Planner as a head of office was sanctioned with its headquarters at Chandrapur in 1965. This branch started functioning with effect from 17th July 1967. The Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, came into force since 11th January 1967 in whole of the Maharashtra State.

According to the provisions made in the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, it is obligatory upon every planning authority (as defined in the Act) to carry out survey, prepare an existing land-use-map and prepare and publish a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. There are in all five municipal councils in Chandrapur district *viz.*, Chandrapur, Ballarpur, Warora, Rajura and Desaiganj.

The development plans in respect of Chandrapur, Ballarpur and Warora are under preparation. The work of development plans of Rajura and Desaiganj will be taken up shortly.

A separate Branch Office with Assistant Director of Town Planning as the head was opened on 19th August 1963 at Chandrapur for preparation of a layout for township of the defence project at Bhandak in Chandrapur district. The branch office was closed after completion of the above work on 30th June 1964.

This department also prepared various other important layouts such as layouts for (i) Village Housing Project Scheme, (ii) Flood Affected Villages in Chandrapur district, (iii) New Townships such as Allapalli Forest Colony and Regree P. W. D. Colony, (iv) Backward Class Co-operative Housing Society, (v) Industrial Estate at Chandrapur, etc. Other references from the Collector, Chandrapur, regarding layouts, non-agricultural permissions, etc., were also dealt with by this office.

CHAPTER 15—EDUCATION AND CULTURE

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS. Hindu Times.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN EARLY TIMES existing among both Hindus and Muhammedans, was in each case, closely connected with their religious institutions.

To give and receive instruction is enjoined by sacred books of Brahmans, and their ancient sages produced a literature which is deep and subtle and often of great beauty. Schools of learning were formed in centres containing a considerable high-caste population, and *pandits* gave instruction in Sanskrit grammar, logic, philosophy and law. The students were called the *chelas* or children of their *gurus* or teachers, lived with them in a semifilial relationship, and owed them obedience and respect. The *chelas* were lodged and fed by their *gurus*, and the latter were maintained by gifts and grants from the rulers of the country or from private benefactors. Teaching was mainly by word of mouth, and the memory of the pupils was trained to enable them to repeat by heart long passages of the sacred texts. The student respectfully held the hand of his teacher, and fixed his mind on the teacher, and said, "Venerable sir, recite" and the Savitri (the well known *gayatri* verse of the *Rigveda*) was recited and learnt as the introduction to the learning of the Vedas. And thus from day to day new lessons were recited and learnt, the student dividing his day's work between minding his lessons and minding the household work of his teacher.

This advanced instruction was strictly confined to youths of higher castes. For the lower castes village schools were scattered over the countryside, in which rudimentary education was given to the children of the trading classes, the petty landholders, and the well-to-do cultivators. Seated under a tree or in the verandah of a hut, the children learned to trace letters of the alphabet with their fingers in the sand, or recite in monotonous tones their spellings or a multiplication table.

Muhammedan System.

In the former times the higher education of Muhammedans was in the hands of men of learning who devoted themselves to the instruction of the youth. Schools were attached to mosques and shrines, and supported by State grants in cash or land, or by private liberality. Individual instructors of merit were also aided by the State, and landholders and nobles vied with each other in supporting scholars of repute. The course of study in a Muhammedan place of learning included grammar, rhetoric, logic, theology, metaphysics, literature, jurisprudence, and

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EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS.

Muhammedan System.

science. The classes of learned instructors were replaced by *madrasas* or colleges of a more modern type founded by the liberality of pious persons.

Elementary classes were included in the schools attached to mosques, but ordinary education was, as a rule, imparted at home. Householders of means engaged the services of a teacher to instruct their children in reading, writing and arithmetic. Persian was the medium of instruction and letter writing and penmanship were highly prized accomplishments. The children learned to write on oblong boards, in appearance like a large edition of the horn-book, which could be washed clean at the close of the lesson. Less affluent neighbours were invited or allowed to send their children to the class, which sometimes attained the proportions of a small school. The schools were known as domestic *maktabs,* and the teachers were called '*maulvi sahib*' or '*munshi sahib*'. The profession was followed by both Muhammedans and Hindus. The old Indian pedagogue is the hero of many a folk-tale, in which he is sometimes depicted as a tyrant whom it was the pride and the delight of the bolder spirits among his pupils to outwit, and at other times as the good-natured but lettered fool who fell into every trap that was laid for him. The pupils were bound to respect and do menial service for their *maulvi,* and custom permitted him to make free use of the cane or to punish delinquents in any other way his ingenuity might devise.

With the establishment of British rule in India need for western education was increasingly felt in the country and this district was no exception to it. One middle school was started long before 1880 and it catered to the educational needs of the public. For higher education the students had to go to Nagpur. Some local leaders came forward and established a private high school called the Jubilee High School in 1897. This school was taken over by Government in 1906. After 25 years *i.e.,* in 1931 another school called the New English High School was set-up under a private management. In the following year came another school called the New Model High School. This school has now been renamed as Lokmanya Tilak Vidyalaya. Since then the number of high schools in the district increased gradually and in 1965-66 there were 64 institutions in the district imparting secondary education.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS.

The educational standards in Chandrapur district are in keeping with the general educational pattern in the country. Facilities for primary and secondary education have increased very rapidly and the improvement in general literacy rate from 3.5 per cent in 1931 to 17.27 per cent in 1961 is really remarkable. The progress made has to be viewed in the context of a very large (14.82 per cent) scheduled tribe population, and inaccessible areas and a backlog of educationally backward tahsil of Rajura transferred from the former Hyderabad State.

Percentage of literacy in the district, since 1901 was as follows:—

Year (1)	Total population (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
1901	1·94	3·85	0·07
1911	2·36	4·59	0·15
1921	2·95	5·57	0·42
1931	3·50	6·49	0·49
1941	6·99	12·52	1·40
1951	10·90	19·20	2·50
1961	17·27	28·58	5·79

The literacy percentage has increased five times during the last 30 years. Female literacy has more than doubled during the decade 1951—61. General awakening after the achievement of Independence and conscious efforts by the State Government and *Janapad Sabhas* to extend educational facilities appear to have raised the literacy levels. The average literacy rates in the district, however, lag very much behind the State averages specially those for females.

The following chart indicates tahsilwise literacy percentages in the district according to 1961 Census:—

—	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Maharashtra State	29·82	42·04	16·76	21·46	33·51	9·34	51·07	61·62	37·90
Chandrapur District	17·27	28·58	5·79	15·10	25·87	4·24	43·24	59·39	25·31
1. Brahmapuri tahsil.	18·05	31·42	4·71	18·05	31·42	4·71	..	..	..
2. Warora tahsil	21·14	34·15	7·83	19·45	32·12	6·55	47·92	65·06	29·00
3. Gadhchiroli tahsil.	13·44	23·83	3·04	13·44	23·83	3·04	..	..	..
4. Chandrapur tahsil.	21·81	33·84	9·34	14·62	24·86	4·24	44·33	66·65	26·11
5. Rajura tahsil ..	13·39	22·44	4·13	11·58	20·07	2·94	28·32	41·45	14·24
6. Sironcha tahsil	7·78	12·98	2·56	7·78	12·98	2·56	..	..	..

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LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS. Modern Times.

The most literate area in the district is located in the region including parts of Warora and Chandrapur tahsils. The eastern region covering parts of Gadhchiroli tahsil and almost the whole of Sironcha tahsil has the lowest literacy rates. South-western portion of Rajura tahsil also falls in this category. Within the district, Chandrapur tahsil has the highest literacy for total population. But Warora has the highest literacy for male population. For rural and urban areas also Warora has the highest literacy for total and female population. Its average rate falls because the proportion of its urban population is smaller than that of Chandrapur.

The following chart shows the extent of literacy prevailing in the district according to 1961 Census:—

EXTENT OF LITERACY IN URBAN AREAS

(1)	Total population (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
(1) Literate (without educational level)	14,842	9,574	5,268
Educational Levels			
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	22,576	16,936	5,640
(3) Matriculation or Higher Secondary	3,283	2,778	505
(4) Technical diploma not equal to degree	60	60	..
(5) Non-technical diploma not equal to degree ..	54	38	16
(6) University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.	367	329	38
(7) Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree—			
(a) Engineering	16	16	..
(b) Medicine	34	29	5
(c) Agriculture	8	8	..
(d) Veterinary and Dairying	4	4	..
(e) Technology	7	7	..
(f) Teaching	83	78	5
(g) Others	43	43	..

EXTENT OF LITERACY IN RURAL AREAS

(1)	Total population (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
(1) Literates (without educational level)	105,457	89,125	16,332
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	63,710	56,148	7,562
(3) Matriculation and above	3,291	3,060	231

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture. GENERAL EDUCATION.

Since the inception of the Zilla Parishad in 1962, the primary and secondary education in the district came under the dual control of the Education Department of the Government at the State level and the Zilla Parishad. At the head of the educational set-up in the district is the Parishad Education Officer who discharges his duties under the guidance of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by two Deputy Education Officers, one dealing with the primary education and the other assisting the Parishad Education Officer in the inspection of secondary schools. As the district head for education, the Parishad Education Officer has powers to supervise, control and guide the work of his subordinates, inspect primary and secondary schools in the district and release grants to them. The work of inspection of the primary schools in the district is done by the Assistant Deputy Education Officers. Being the Secretary of the Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad in the new set-up the Parishad Education Officer guides the Committee on educational matters.

In the State sector, the department is headed by the Director of Education, Maharashtra State, Poona. He is assisted by the Deputy Directors of Education at regional headquarters. Chandrapur district falls under the jurisdiction of the Deputy Director of Education, Nagpur Region. The Deputy Director of Education has powers to grant recognition to primary and secondary schools in the district. He is also empowered to give recognition to village and public libraries in the district and sanction grants to them every year. In this work he is helped by the District Librarian.

All girls' schools, primary or secondary, come within the purview of the Zilla Parishad. The primary schools are inspected by Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors while the inspection work of secondary schools is carried by the Inspectress of Girls' Schools. Inspection reports in both the cases are submitted to the Education department in the State sector.

The administrative control of primary training colleges, S. T. C. institutions and special institutions is vested in the Deputy Director of Education, Nagpur Region. All public examinations held in the district as per the directions of the State Government are organised and conducted by the Deputy Director, Nagpur Region.

There are separate inspectors, having jurisdiction over the whole State, for physical education, visual education, drawing and craft work and commercial schools. They are responsible for organisation and inspection in their respective spheres. These inspectors work directly under the control of the Director of Education.

Primary Education.

Primary education is mainly the concern of the local authorities like the municipalities and the Zilla Parishad. However, during 1965-66, 27 primary schools were conducted by the private managements of which 17 were aided and 10 unaided.

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

The following statement shows the steady progress made in the field of primary education during the years from 1961-62 to 1965-66:—

Year	No. of Schools	Pupils		
		Boys	Girls	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1961-62	1,227	62,987	24,647	87,634
1962-63	1,521	69,870	28,546	98,416
1963-64	1,599	77,608	34,647	112,255
1964-65	1,789	84,035	40,199	124,234
1965-66	1,846	90,674	46,947	137,621

During 1965-66 these schools employed 4,590 teachers of whom 4,133 were male while female teachers numbered 457. Of male teachers, 2,708 or 65.5 per cent were trained while the trained female teachers numbered 327, i.e., 72 per cent.

The expenditure on primary education is incurred by the State Government through grant-in-aid to the Zilla Parishad and building loans and grants to Private Teachers' Training Colleges. The total expenditure on primary education in 1965-66 amounted to Rs. 7,291,404 of which the Government share was Rs. 6,898,967. The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 53 per annum of which the Government share was Rs. 51.

During the same year the number of primary schools under various municipalities in the district stood at 36 of which 23 were for boys and 13 for girls. The boys' schools had a strength of 6,110 pupils while the girls' schools had 3,257 students. There were 3,332 students in 27 private schools.

Basic Education.

The progressive conversion of ordinary primary schools into basic schools has been an accepted policy of the Government. In 1965-66, there were 46 Senior Basic Schools with 10,764 students. As against this the number of Junior Basic Schools was 97 with 15,692 students.

Basic education involves teaching of subjects like crafts, agriculture, spinning and weaving, wood work and kitchen gardening and consequently requires teachers with specialised training. In order to encourage teachers to undergo training, a stipend of Rs. 40 and loan scholarship of Rs. 30 per student are given by the Government.

There are three Basic Training Colleges in the district of which two are under Government management and the remaining one is managed by a private body. In 1965-66, 536 students received training and the expenditure towards stipend amounted to Rs. 238,218.83.

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Secondary Education.

Secondary education is now under the general regulation of the Government which exercises control by means of conditions for receipt of grant-in-aid by the concerned educational institutions. At the end of high school course an examination is conducted by the Board. The examination provides optional courses for pupils with varied interests and aptitudes. Each university, however, lays down the subjects which the candidates have to take for entrance to its courses.

There are two kinds of Middle Schools—(1) Indian English Middle Schools with classes from V to VIII standards and (2) Indian Middle Schools having classes from I to VII standards. In 1965-66 there were seven higher secondary schools and 57 lower secondary schools in the district. Of these 64 secondary schools, 60 were run by private managements. Government assistance is given by way of grants for various purposes. The total number of students attending these schools stood at 178,362 and the total expenditure on secondary education in the district during the same year came to Rs. 10,88,722.

Economically Backward Classes Scheme.

Various educational facilities are made available to the people. Students up to the age of 14 years get free education in all schools. Similarly, wards of parents whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 1,800 are given education free of cost. Students belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are provided education free. Dependents of persons who had taken active part in the freedom struggle, too, are given free education. The cost borne by the schools on this account is reimbursed by the Government. During 1965-66, 25,000 students benefited from these concessions and the department incurred an expenditure of Rs. 12,34,383.

Physical Education.

Physical education is controlled by the department under the State sector. The National Discipline Scheme Instructors have been provided in different high schools. There are eight troops with 900 cadets of Junior National Cadet Corps.

College Education.

To meet the increasing demand for College education, two colleges were started at Chandrapur in 1961 under private management. The Janata Mahavidyalaya has Science, Arts and Commerce Courses, whereas the Janata College of Education imparts instruction for B. Ed. courses. Later on colleges were started at Brahmapuri and Warora. In 1965-66 the district had four colleges, three for Arts and Science Courses and the fourth one for B. Ed. course. During the same year 1,125 students got exemption from payment of tuition fees from the Government, and the total expenditure on this account came to Rs. 2,10,659.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

All technical and industrial institutions and industrial training institutes and courses leading up to the diploma standard (non-university) and courses excluding courses falling under the control of the university are controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Maharashtra State. Government have set up two different councils for this purpose, *viz.*, (i) the State

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TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Council of Technical Education to advise and make recommendations in respect of technical and industrial institutes and courses leading up to diploma standard, and (ii) the State Council for Training in Vocational Trades to carry out the policy of the National Council with regard to the award of National Trade Certificates in engineering, building and leather trade and any other similar trade as may be brought within its scope by the Central or the State Government.

The Director of Technical Education conducts the annual examinations in the courses approved by the State Council of Technical Education and awards certificates or diplomas to the successful candidates.

There are two institutions for technical education in the district managed by the State Government. Students offering technical group for high school examination from various local schools and others offering independent technical courses attend these institutions. The total number of students attending these institutions in 1965-66 was 250. There is a training centre for *Gram Sevaks* at Sindewahi. Apart from this the Nav Bharat School at Mul runs an agricultural school for the benefit of the agriculturists.

VISUAL EDUCATION.

Most of the well established schools in the district have radio sets and some of them possess 16 mm. projectors and tape-recorders.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

THE PEOPLE IN THE DISTRICT, IN KEEPING WITH THE TREND SEEN ALL OVER THE COUNTRY have become health conscious recently. The growth of public health and medical facilities thus is a development of recent origin. During the early period the disease was rarely ascribed to some physical disorder. It was often ascribed to some outside evil influence which was propitiated by some sacrifice. The *vaidyas*, who used to give treatment according to the ayurvedic system of medicine and who acquired their knowledge through inheritance from their forefathers and experience gained during their course of medical practice and *hakims* and *vaidus* whose system of diagnosis did not essentially differ from the ayurvedic system of medicine formed the core who dominated the field of medical profession till recently.

The ayurvedic system of medicine that was regarded as an integral part of Indian culture as is evident from the voluminous treatises on the subject such as *Sushruta, Madhava Nidana* and *Vagbhata* was based on the medicinal properties of herbs and plants. The use of minerals was also developed in ayurveda which it used as *ras* or *bhasma* which was not possible without a thorough knowledge of chemistry.

The *hakims* came to India with the establishment of Muslim power in the country. They practised in unani system of medicine having its origin in Arabia. Ayurveda has a great influence upon this system of medicine. With the decline of Muslim power, they lost their royal patronage.

The *vaidus* moved from place to place and had good knowledge of rare herbs rich in medicinal properties. In the absence of specialised veterinary practitioners, they occasionally treated the live-stock. Though the modern and up-to-date maternity facilities were conspicuous by their absence, very often the personal experience of the elderly ladies in the joint families proved highly useful to the young expectant mothers. For minor illness in case of other members in the family, these ladies used to give medicines from the small stock maintained by them and that was known as *ajibaicha batava.*

However with the passage of time and with the spread of Western education conservatism and orthodoxy were replaced by reason and rational outlook. That also brought in vogue allopathic system of medicine.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The medical facilities in the district of Chanda as existed at the time of the publication of old Chanda Gazetteer in 1909 were as follows:—

Medical Relief.—"The District has in all 13 dispensaries, two at Chanda, one being the police hospital, one at each of the following places—Warora, Mul, Brahmapuri, Gadhchiroli, Armori, Sironcha, Venkatapur, Chimur, and Ahiri, one under the Forest Department of Alapalli and one in connection with the colliery at Ballalpur. In addition to these there were in 1907 five temporary dispensaries, three in connection with P.W.D. roads and two on irrigation works. In 1907, 621 indoor and 78,989 outdoor patients were treated, the daily average being 12.06 indoor and 317.90 outdoor patients for all charitable dispensaries. The dispensaries are maintained out of funds raised by contributions from Government, local bodies and private persons. The Chanda Victoria dispensary was built in 1906 and has accommodation for 12 resident patients. Warora dispensary can accommodate 5 patients, Brahmapuri 4, Sironcha 12 and Mul 1. Midwives are attached to the dispensaries at Chanda and Warora. The Vaccination Department consists of a Superintendent and 15 vaccinators. The cost of operations in 1906-07 was Rs. 2,611-4-0. In that year 22,493 persons or 3.90 per cent of the population of the District were successfully vaccinated as compared with 2.59 per cent in 1900-01. Very few adults will submit to vaccination, and in certain parts of the District all vaccination at once stops as soon as an outbreak of small-pox declares itself, as vaccination is supposed to anger the deity who presides over this disease. There is a veterinary dispensary at Chanda under the management of the District Council. The average daily number of patients treated in 1907-08 was 11.18".

VITAL STATISTICS.

Population of the district of Chandrapur according to the Census of 1961 was 12,38,070 as against the population of 10,52,975 according to the Census of 1951. It shows a net increase of 1,85,095 which worked out to 17.58 per cent over the population according to the Census of 1951.

In spite of measures taken to control the population growth and adoption of family planning as the best remedy to improve the economic ills of the country, the number of births is increasing year to year. In 1963, 43,736 births were registered in the district as against 39,064 in 1962 and 36,282 in 1961. In 1963, the birth rate of the district was 35 per thousand.

During the period 1961—63 no death was reported due to Plague while the deaths due to Small-pox and Cholera were negligible. The number of deaths registered in the district increased to 18,667 and 19,832 in 1962 and 1963 respectively from 17,237 in 1961. The estimates of death rate worked out to 16 per thousand in 1963. Comparatively large number of

Cholera deaths were reported in 1964. The incidence of Malaria, Filaria, Leprosy and Yaws was very high. But with the introduction of preventive measures the incidence of these diseases has gone down to a considerable extent.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

VITAL STATISTICS.

The following table shows the number of births and deaths in the district during 1963 and 1964.

TABLE No. I

NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS (TALUKAWISE) IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1963 AND 1964.

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Number of births (3)	Number of deaths (4)
Brahmapuri	1963	9,837	4,664
	1964	9,246	5,002
Chandrapur	1963	8,137	2,945
	1964	7,655	4,186
Gadhchiroli	1963	9,887	4,717
	1964	8,719	4,907
Rajura	1963	3,096	1,501
	1964	3,813	1,296
Sironcha	1963	3,717	1,393
	1964	3,444	1,237
Warora	1963	9,062	4,612
	1964	7,980	4,546
District Total	1963	43,736	19,832
	1964	40,857	21,174

The following table gives the number of deaths due to important causes in the district during 1963 and 1964.

TABLE No. 2

NUMBER OF DEATHS DUE TO IMPORTANT CAUSES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT, 1963 AND 1964.

Cause of death (1)	Deaths 1963 (2)	Deaths 1964 (3)
Cholera	..	76
Small pox	11	20
Plague	..	..
Fevers	8,698	9,971
Dysentery	..	16
Diarrhoea	952	1,661
Respiratory Diseases	1,458	1,642
Suicide	..	132
Other Causes	8,713	7,656
Total	19,832	21,174

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

VITAL STATISTICS.

Still Births.

The following is the statement about still-births in the district in 1961:—

Males	Females	Total	Still birth rate per 1000 live births
124	80	204	5·3

The rate of still-births is small as compared to the districts of Yeotmal, Buldhana, Akola and Nagpur where it is as high as 51.4, 26.9, 19.8 and 11.2 respectively. However the relatively lower still-birth rate in the district might be attributed to the lack of a proper reporting system on still-births.

Infant Mortality.

Chandrapur had rather high infant mortality rate in 1961 and was placed at 145.

The following statement gives the Infant* mortality in the district in 1961:—

(1)	Males (2)	Females (3)	Total (4)
Within 24 hours	..	..	..
Above 24 hours to end of first week ..	713	594	1,307
Above one week to end of first month ..	512	465	977
Above one month and below three months.	..	..	..
Above three months and below six months	599	542	1,141
Above six months and below 12 months ..	717	674	1,391

The following statement gives the total infant mortality in the district (Tahsilwise) during 1963 and 1964:—

Taluka (1)	Number of Infant Deaths 1963 (2)	1964 (3)
Brahmapuri	1,351	1,316
Chandrapur	924	978
Gadhchiroli	1,194	1,100
Rajura	256	288
Sironcha	251	269
Warora	1,370	1,291
District Total ..	5,346	5,242

* Infant is taken to be a child up to one year of age.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

FAMILY PLANNING.

The economic development attained by the country through the implementation of five year plans since Independence has been more than off-set by the growth in population. As has been seen earlier, the population of the district is growing at a very fast rate. The population of the district increased at moderate rate during the successive decades but the rate of growth in the decade 1951—61 which is placed at 17.58 per cent ranks the highest. At this rate, the district population is likely to be double that of 1961, in the next 40 years.

In olden days when the people were generally guided by religious scriptures rather than liberal education, the birth of a child was considered to be a phenomenon beyond human control and was attributed to the heavenly power. Even discussions about sex were considered to be a taboo. With the spread of western education and strides made in the field of scientific research in respect of gynaecology and obstetrics, the people are convinced that the population can be effectively controlled with the aid of family planning devices. Tubectomy and Vasectomy operations are largely considered to be safe against population explosion. Other devices such as Dr. Lippy's loop and oral contraceptive tablets have been instrumental in checking the population without operations.

Up to 1963-64, 467 Sterilisation operations were performed in the district as against a fixed target of 1,857 for the district. Three orientation training camps were also organised during the year 1963-64.

The following statement gives the information about sterilisations performed in the district during 1961:—

District (1)	Total Sterilisations (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Number of camps (5)	Number of operations performed (6)
Chandrapur	171	171	..	6	111

There are nine family planning centres in the district. Of these six centres are located at Mul, Gadhchiroli, Brahmapuri, Sindewahi, Chamorshi and Aheri. During 1960, 216 Vasectomy operations were performed in the district.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

From the table showing number of deaths due to different causes in the district it is quite evident that Cholera, Dysentery and Diarrhoea and fevers are the diseases common to the district. Among the fevers, Malaria prevailed in the district to a great extent. Besides these diseases a few persons attacked by leprosy are also found in the district. As in the country, T.B. also prevails in the district.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

CONTROL MEASURES.

Malaria and Filaria.

The peculiar natural conditions prevailing in the district pertaining to temperature, rainfall, humidity etc. are conducive to breeding and longevity of the mosquitoes. Malaria season generally coincides with the onset of monsoon. The Malaria control measures were first started in the district in January, 1948. Three Malaria Control units have been established in the district and all the three talukas have been covered under Malaria eradication scheme. Two rounds of D.D.T. spraying in every house in a year have been carried out. Radical treatment is also provided under the scheme. In 1961, 22 Malaria positive cases were detected during surveillance from Rajura taluka. Hence 26 villages of that taluka were given a third round of spraying from 15th to 24th December 1961.

People in Chandrapur district are exposed to the risk of filariasis infection along with the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, and parts of Wardha district besides the talukas of Bassein, Palghar and Dahanu in the coastal areas of Thana district. A National Filaria Control Unit was established at Chandrapur on July 3, 1958. The headquarters of the unit has been shifted to Mul where the field laboratory has been established. Under the anti-larval measures, the scheme was extended to two towns and 73 villages covering a population of 1,13,126. The total consumption of oil from April 1961 to March 1962 for the above purpose was 1,21,787.58 litres.

On receipt of intimation of outbreak of Cholera in an epidemic form, prompt steps were taken by the authorities to organise mass anti-Cholera inoculation work in the affected and threatened areas of the State. Temporary Cholera regulations under the Epidemic Diseases Act of 1897 were applied to the affected parts of the district besides disinfection of water sources with bleaching powder. During the year 1964, 3,12,329 persons were inoculated against Cholera. During the year 1967, the number of persons inoculated against Cholera was 51,133.

The main cause for the prevalence of Cholera in the district is the lack of safe and protected drinking water supplies to a majority of towns and villages. Out of the total number of villages in the district, 26.44 per cent are still without any drinking water facility while 36.12 per cent of the villages have inadequate water supply. Wells are the main source of water supply while only five towns have been provided with piped water supply.

However, Cholera did not appear in the district in an epidemic form due to prompt measures and vigilance maintained by the public health authorities and the number of inoculations performed in the district.

Under anti-T.B. campaign B.C.G. vaccination programme is in force in the district since 1951. Five teams were working under B.C.G. campaign from 1951 to 1960. During the year 1961, the second round of B.C.G. vaccination was carried out in

the district of Chanda besides those of Ahmednagar, Poona, Bombay, Kolhapur, Dhulia, Nasik, Nagpur, Amravati and Bhandara. The following statement gives the review of the vaccination work done in the district in 1961 along with the work done during the second round in the same year only in Chandrapur taluka.

CHAPTER 16. Medical and Public Health Services.

CONTROL MEASURES.

Malaria and Filaria.

REVIEW OF VACCINATION WORK DONE IN THE DISTRICT IN 1961.

Taluka	Total Tested	Positives	Negatives	Absents	Vaccinated	Nos. Not vaccinated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Chandrapur	25,099	10,855	12,034	2,210	12,032	2
Warora ..	16,737	7,571	7,513	1,653	7,509	4
Brahmapuri	35,444	15,458	15,746	4,240	15,721	25
Chandrapur*	13,615	6,641	6,056	918	6,056	..

The following statement gives the statistics of B.C.G. vaccination in the district.

Year	Total Tested	Total Positives	Total Negatives	Total Absents	Total Vaccinated	Total Not vaccinated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1963 ..	111	35	45	31	45	..
1964 ..	847	262	334	251	654	..

Up to 1963-64, 6,70,922 persons were tested and 2,94,275 were vaccinated. Besides, 2,804 new born were also vaccinated.

Chandrapur has the highest incidence of Leprosy in the State and is put at 18.07 per thousand. To combat Leprosy, two Leprosy centres have been established in the district, one at Mul in 1955 and the other at Gadhchiroli in 1960. A private hospital working with missionary zeal named Anandwan, located at Warora has 300 beds and is dedicated to the services of Leprosy. At the Mul centre, 1,902 out-door patients were treated during 1960 and at Gadhchiroli 79 were treated during the same year. Besides these two centres, there are 15 survey, education and treatment units out of which 8 located at Chimur, Armori, Pathari, Chamorshi, Sironcha, Rajura, Sindewahi and Nagbhid in the district provided treatment to 1,051 outdoor patients in 1960.

* Second round.

CONTROL MEASURES.

Small-pox.

Small-pox broke out in an epidemic form in the district in 1957 and 1958 and took toll of 211 and 156 lives respectively. Number of deaths reported from Small-pox during 1961, stood at 14. With a view to checking the occurrence of and achieving eradication of the disease, mass vaccination drive has been undertaken in the district. Under the scheme, 6,42,000 persons from the district were vaccinated by the end of 1962.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES AND OTHER FACILITIES.

The medical organisation in the district is essentially a hospital organisation and renders curative medical relief to the general population with ancillary specialist sections. In 1960-61 there were 15 hospitals of which four were located in Chanda taluka. There were fifty dispensaries in the district comprising 31 ayurvedic dispensaries, 17 allopathic dispensaries and two unani dispensaries.

The main hospital at Chandrapur known as the General Hospital, Chandrapur is the biggest hospital in the district. A part of the main hospital is reserved for female patients. It is included in the total of seven maternity homes in the district which have 60 beds and which served 478 indoor patients and 3,541 outdoor patients during the year 1963-64. All the hospitals in the district together provided employment to 86 doctors and 105 nurses and had 208 beds in 1963-64 as against 190 in 1961-62. During the year 1963-64 nearly 5,835 indoor patients and 5,05,529 outdoor patients were treated in these hospitals.

Each bed served on an average 5,944 souls on the basis of total population. Since nearly 5,835 indoor and 5,05,529 outdoor patients were treated in 1963-64, the doctor-patients ratio is worked out to 68 indoor and 5,878 outdoor patients per doctor.

In addition the Matru Seva Sangha, Nagpur has its three branches of maternity homes in the district at Warora, Brahmapuri and Armori. The Mahila Mandal at Chandrapur runs a maternity home. The work connected with medical and public health is now entrusted to the Zilla Parishad. However, some schemes under State sector, such as, Leprosy control units, Malaria, Filaria, mobile-*cum*-stationary unit at Chandrapur and mobile medical unit at Aheri have been left in the State sector under the control of Medical and Public Health Department of the State Government*. At present the Chandrapur Zilla Parishad has 18 Panchayat Samitis under its jurisdiction and each of the Panchayat Samitis manages a primary health centre.

The following table shows the medical facilities in the district.

* Now Public Health Department.

TABLE No. 3.

MEDICAL FACILITIES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

District/Taluka	Years	Hospitals	Maternity Homes	Dispensaries	Rural Health Centres	Doctors	Nurses	Number of Beds		Indoor Patients treated			Outdoor patients treated		
								Males	Females including Children	Males	Females	Children	Males	Females	Children
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
District Total ..	1950-51 ..	12	1	5	..	23	1	94	32	1,583	729	514	96,049	41,517	73,919
	1955-56 ..	13	1	8	1	27	7	126	39	4,099	1,400	815	93,756	51,846	49,573
	1960-61 ..	15	4	15	5	50	34	132	111	3,117	3,675	2,426	150,987	101,343	80,879
Brahmapuri Taluka	1950-51 ..	1	..	1	..	2	..	4	2	50	2	1	7,152	2,228	5,094
	1955-56 ..	2	..	..	1	2	1	10	4	57	16	..	6,479	3,967	6,368
	1960-61 ..	2	..	3	1	5	1	10	4	82	56	18	22,144	13,367	11,721
Warora Taluka ..	1950-51 ..	2	..	1	..	3	..	10	3	135	13	7	18,504	6,844	15,974
	1955-56 ..	2	..	2	..	4	..	10	3	137	45	12	17,495	8,845	14,894
	1960-61 ..	4	..	2	1	8	..	12	9	96	72	50	28,131	19,244	15,445

CHAPTER 16

Medical and Public Health. Services.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES AND OTHER FACILITIES.

TABLE No. 3—*contd.*

District/Taluka	Years	Hospitals	Maternity Homes	Dispensaries	Rural Health Centres	Doctors	Nurses	Number of Beds		Indoor Patients treated			Outdoor patients treated		
								Males	Females including Children	Males	Females	Children	Males	Females	Children
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Gadchiroli Taluka	1950-51 ..	2	..	1	..	3	..	5	2	97	5	2	8,796	2,606	8,568
	1955-56 ..	2	..	2	..	4	..	5	2	76	1	..	17,487	8,866	9,853
	1960-61 ..	2	1	3	1	6	1	5	7	98	37	44	28,163	13,744	15,620
Chandrapur Taluka	1950-51 ..	4	1	1	..	11	1	66	22	1,131	708	502	50,820	26,294	37,982
	1955-56 ..	4	1	3	..	13	6	92	27	3,804	1,335	802	43,753	28,133	11,511
	1960-61 ..	4	3	5	1	26	32	96	88	2,821	3,503	2,308	58,078	45,764	29,313
Sirncha Taluka ..	1950-51 ..	3	..	1	..	4	..	9	3	170	1	2	10,777	3,545	6,301
	1955-56 ..	3	..	1	..	4	..	9	3	25	3	1	8,542	2,035	6,947
	1960-61 ..	3	..	2	1	5	..	9	3	20	7	6	14,471	9,224	8,780

Note : Data for Rajura Taluka are not available. *Source* : Civil Surgeon, Chanda.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES AND OTHER FACILITIES.

The total number of persons working as physicians, surgeons, dentists, nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians in the district was 1,268 as per the 1961 Census. The number of medical personnel per one lakh population in the district was 33 as against the average of 55 for the State.

The following statement gives the rural/urban and male/female break-up of physicians, surgeons and dentists and nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians in the district.

	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists.	408	385	23	279	266	13	129	119	10
Nurses, pharmacists, and other medical and health technicians.	860	467	393	655	318	337	205	149	56

ORGANISATION.

The medical and public health administration in the district is under the dual control of the State Government as also of the Zilla Parishad. In the State sector it is divided into two sections namely medical organisation and the public health organisation. The medical organisation of the State is headed by the Surgeon General to the Government of Maharashtra with headquarters at Bombay while the public health organisation is headed by the Director of Public Health with headquarters at Poona. The administration in the district sector is headed by Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad who also acts as the Secretary to the Health Committee of the Zilla Parishad. Though he is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad advice of the Surgeon General and the Director of Public Health prevails. The epidemic medical officer assists the public health officer to take preventive as well as curative measures during epidemic and rest of the days.

There are 4 divisional sanitary inspectors at Chandrapur, Rajura, Brahmapuri and Sironcha. The divisional sanitary inspector is responsible for health matters pertaining to the whole of the tahsil. He works in consultation with the medical officer in charge of primary health centre and renders additional help when required during the incidence of epidemics.

There is a sanitary squad working under every divisional sanitary inspector assisted by the necessary staff.

ORGANISATION.

The General Hospital, Chandrapur and other main hospitals in the district are under the management of the Government in the State sector and it is the responsibility of the Civil Surgeon to see that the affairs of the General Hospital at Chanda are managed efficiently. He is assisted in his work by Assistant Surgeons and other necessary staff. The Civil Surgeon is also responsible for the maintenance of the health standards in the district and is the principal adviser to the Collector of the district in this behalf.

OTHER MEDICAL FACILITIES.

Public Health Work in Refugee Camps.

Refugee camps have been established one each at Bhadravati and Lagam and two at Chandrapur for emigrants from East Pakistan *. These are temporary camps and the emigrants are finally to be settled in small villages on agricultural lands. To carry out public health work in these camps a medical officer with six assistants is posted at each camp.

There are also 4 camp dispensaries situated at Chandrapur, Bhadravati, Babupeth and Lagam for refugees from East Pakistan *. Each dispensary has 12 bedded indoor ward with senior medical officer in class II, one assistant medical officer, one compounder, and the other necessary staff. If found necessary the serious patients are sent to the general hospital, Chandrapur.

Forest Dispensary.

Four dispensaries belonging to the Forest department are functioning at (i) Forest training school, Chandrapur, (ii) Allapali, (iii) Doma and (iv) Moharli. All these dispensaries are under the direct administrative control of the Forest department with one medical officer and other necessary staff.

Paper Mill and Coal Mines Dispensaries.

The management of the Paper Mill and the Coal Mines at Ballarpur maintain their own dispensaries for the staff employed in the respective industries.

Mission Hospital.

Two mission hospitals are also functioning at Chandrapur and Sironcha in this district and are managed by the Mission authorities themselves.

The following tables give the information about other medical facilities in the district in tabular form.

*Now Bangla Desh.

TABLE No. 4.

DETAILS OF OTHER MEDICAL FACILITIES IN THE DISTRICT.

Serial No.	Name of Block	Name of Public Health Centre	Sub-Centre	Allopathic Dispensary	Ayurvedic Dispensary	Maternity Home
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Chandrapur ..	Ballarshah ..	1. Padmapur 2. Kothari. 3. Ajayapur. 4. Pandharkawada.	1. Kothari 2. Kolasa. ..	1. Chichapalli 2. Ghugus. ..	1. Chandrapur.
2	Gondpipri ..	Gondpipri ..	1. Tohagaon 2. Pombhurna. 3. Dhaba.	1. Nawegaon Morey .. 2. Dhaba Pombhurna.	1. Tohegaon. 2. Bhangaram Telodhi.	:
3	Mul	Mul ..	1. Rajoli 2. Maroda. 3. Saoli.	1. Nandgaon .. 2. Saoli.	1. Rajoli 2. Vyahodbuj. 3. Bembal. 4. Chiroli. 5. Landholi. 6. Rajgad.	:
4	Rajura ..	Chandur ..	1. Wirur 2. Pardi. 3. Nandgaon.	1. Rajura ..	1. Wadsi. 2. Kodasi. 3. Pardi. 4. Chincholi. 5. Wansadi.	:
5	Bhadrawati ..	Bhadrawati ..	1. Majari 2. Shegaon. 3. Chodpeth.	1. Shegaon ..	1. Chora 2. Chandankheda.	:

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

DETAILS OF OTHER MEDICAL FACILITIES IN THE DISTRICT—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Block	Name of Public Health Centre	Sub-Centre	Allopathic Dispensary	Ayurvedic Dispensary	Maternity Home
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
6	Warora	Madhali	1. Nagari .. 2. Wadadha. 3. Chargaon.	1. Nagari ..	1. Chora .. 2. Chikni. 3. Wadadha. 4. Kosarsar.	1. Chandankheda.
7	Chimur	Neri	1. Bhishi .. 2. Doma. 3. Masalbuj.	1. Chimur .. 2. Bhishi.	1. Shankarpur .. 2. Khadsingi. 3. Jambhulghat.	..
8	Nagbhid ..	Nagbhid	1. Talodhi .. 2. Paharni. 3. Wadhona.	1. Talodhi ..	..	..
9	Brahmapuri ..	Gagalwadi	1. Awalgaon .. 2. Nandori. 3. Yeoli.	1. Brahmapuri .. 2. Mendki.	1. Ahernewargaon .. 2. Mudza.	..
10	Sindewahi ..	Sindewahi	1. Mawargaon .. 2. Palasgaon. 3. Kalamgaon.	1. Hirapur .. 2. Nawargaon. 3. Antergaon.	1. Pathari ..	..
11	Armori	Armori	1. Wairagad .. 2. Wadadha. 3. Desaiganj.	1. Desaiganj .. 2. Vairagad.	1. Wadadha. ..	..
12	Kurkheda	Kurkheda	1. Korchi 2. Malewada. 3. Kolati.	1. Kadholi ..	..	..
13	Gadhchiroli ..	Gadchiroli	1. Ambeshioni .. 2. Pardikupi. 3. Yeoli.	1. Porla ..	1. Amirza ..	..
14	Dhanora ..	Dhanora	1. Murungaon .. 2. Angara. 3. Pendhare.	..	1. Sompur ..	..
15	Chamorshi ..	Chamorshi	1. Ghot .. 2. Konesari. 3. Talodhimokasa.	..	1. Ghot .. 2. Konsari. 3. Kunghada. 4. Talodhimokasa.	..
16	Sironcha ..	Sironcha	1. Asarali .. 2. Jinganur Malgujari. 3. Tekadatala.	1. Ankisa .. 2. Tekada.	1. Jinganur Malgujari. 2. Asarali.	..
17	Etapalli ..	Etapalli	1. Kasansur .. 2. Jarabandi. 3. Gatta.	1. Bhanaragad ..	1. Ghotsur ..	..
18	Aheri	Aheri	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 5.

LIST OF FAMILY PLANNING WELFARE CENTRES IN CHANDA DISTRICT

Main Centres		Sub-Centres	
1. Aheri.	20. Allapali.	1. Govindgaon.	20. Kandholi.
2. Armori.	21. Visora.	2. Dongargaon.	21. Deulgaon.
3. Ballarpur.	22. Sakharwahi.	3. Visapur.	22. Borda.
4. Brahmapuri.	23. Ahernawargaon.	4. Chaughan.	23. Mudza.
5. Bhadrawati.	24. Choned.	5. Dongargaon.	24. Chora.
6. Chimur.	25. Shankarpur.	6. Jambhulghat.	25. Shegaon.
7. Chamorshi.	26. Asti.	7. Markhanda.	26. Lagam.
8. Chandur.	27. Rajura.	8. Chicholi.	27. Sasti.
9. Dhanora.	28. Murumgaon.	9. Dudhamala.	28. Rangi.
10. Etapalli.	29. Chotsur.	10. Alewada.	29. Bhamaragad.
11. Dewada.	30. Bhedhoda.	11. Bhurkanda.	30. Sonegaon.
12. Gondpipri.	31. Talodhi.	12. Wagholi.	31. Aksapur.
13. Gadhchiroli.	32. Zepra.	13. Amirza.	32. Porla.
14. Medheli.	33. Karanji.	14. Bhatala.	33. Dongargaon.
15. Mul.	34. Gowardhan.	15. Kelzar.	34. Vyahad.
16. Nagbhid.	35. Sawargaon.	16. Bond.	35. Maushi.
17. Kurkheda.	36. Palasgaon.	17. Gewardha.	36. Kadholi.
18. Sindewahi.	37. Mohadi.	18. Pathari.	37. Niphandra.
19. Sironcha.	38. Asarali.	19. Tekadi.	38. Nagram.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE WORK DONE IN RESPECT OF VACCINATION FROM 1-10-62 TO 31-12-64

Serial No. (1)	Year (2)	Primary Vaccination (3)	Re-vaccination (4)
1	1-10-1962 to 31-12-1962	12,785	75,409
2	1-1-1963 to 31-12-1963	55,636	5,14,817
3	1-1-1964 to 31-12-1964	43,844	3,36,490

INFORMATION REGARDING LEPROSY SURVEY, EXAMINATION AND CASES UNDER TREATMENT

Serial No. (1)	Year (2)	Population served (3)	Population examined (4)	Cases detected (5)	Cases under treatment (6)
1	1963	1,77,279	1,47,739	5,881	5,499
2	1964	2,54,312	2,20,380	9,685	7,070
3	1965	3,43,170	3,32,230	2,323	4,239

TABLE No. 6.

LIST OF LEPROSY TECHNICIAN UNITS IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Units	Names of Primary Centres
1. Chandur	Rajura.
2. Rajura	Rajura.
3. Nagari	Warora.
4. Chimur	Chimur.
5. Aheri	Aheri.
6. Etapalli	Etapalli.
7. Sironcha	Sironcha.
8. Gondpipri	Gondpipri.
9. Sindewahi	Sindewahi.
10. Nagbhid	Nagbhid.
11. Pathari	Sindewahi.
12. Brahmapuri	Brahmapuri.
13. Gangalwadi	Brahmapuri.
14. Kurkheda	Kurkheda.
15. Armori	Armori.

TABLE No. 7.

WORK CARRIED OUT BY THE SANITARY SQUAD AND SANITARY INSPECTORS IN THE DISTRICT FROM 1961 TO 1964

Particulars (1)	1961 (2)	1962 (3)	1963 (4)	1964 (5)
1. No. of Vaccinations Performed—				
Primary	46,017	46,017	55,636	33,844
Revaccination	1,60,200	1,60,200	5,14,817	3,36,400
2. No. of Anti-cholera	1,51,230	2,02,826	31,463	2,81,198
3. No. of site-inspections	123	150	68	47
4. No. of hotel inspections ..	343	315	148	267
5. No. of bazar inspections ..	181	346	74	53
6. No. of school inspections ..	132	1,406	770	380
7. No. of pupil inspections ..	13,209	35,593	17,325	7,525
8. No. of grampanchayat inspections	137	279	119	87
9. No. of soakage pits constructed	587	721	630	596
10. No. of soakage pits repaired ..	136	215	123	146

TABLE No. 7—*contd.*

WORK CARRIED OUT BY THE SANITARY SQUAD AND SANITARY INSPECTORS IN THE DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1961 TO 1964

(1)	1961 (2)	1962 (3)	1963 (4)	1964 (5)
11. No. of latrines constructed ..	128	142	127	140
12. No. of urinals constructed ..	67	69	69	48
13. No. of manure pits removed ..	735	835	630	654
14. No. of manure pits constructed	812	964	784	784
15. No. of smokeless chulla constructed.	32	32	23	18
16. No. of houses disinfected ..	391	13	42	86
17. No. of clothes disinfected ..	114	146	146	243
18. No. of wells disinfected ..	754	7,063	7,819	5,819
19. No. of tanks inspected ..	4	..	..	..

CHAPTER 17—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR DEPARTMENT

Organisation.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS FALL WITHIN THE ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. He has now under him three Deputy Commissioners one each at Bombay, Nagpur and Poona; Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, Nagpur, Poona and Aurangabad; Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, with subordinate Inspectorates at different important centres of the State; Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay, with subordinate Inspectorates; and Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay, with Government Labour Officers at each important centre.

Functions.

The Commissioner of Labour, Bombay administers the statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; the Indian Trade Union Act, 1946; the Minimum Wages Act, 1948; the Working Journalists (Condition of Services and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955 and the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961—which are Central Acts along with the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946; the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947 and the Hyderabad Shops and Establishments Act, 1951. In addition, his office performs the following functions:—

1. Compilation and publication of the Consumer Price Index numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur and Nanded.

2. Conducting of socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour.

3. Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters in general and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc., in particular.

4. Publication of the Labour Gazette and the Industrial Court Reporter.

5. Supervision over the working of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, where it is administered by local authorities and

6. Personnel Management Advisory Service.

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Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Central Government is deemed to be the appropriate authority to deal with Industrial disputes concerning any industry carried on by or under the authority of the Central Government or the Indian Railways or concerning any such controlled industry as may be specified in this behalf by the Central Government or in respect of banking companies having branches in more than one State including the State Bank of India and the Reserve Bank of India, the Life Insurance Corporation or insurance companies having branches in more than one State or a mine, an oil field or a major port.

The provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 have been made applicable to the Vidarbha and Marathwada Regions of the Maharashtra State with effect from 1st May 1965. One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Bombay has been appointed as Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and has jurisdiction over the entire State. One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Nagpur has been notified as Additional Registrar having one Assistant Registrar under him for Vidarbha Region. The Registrar's work is of a quasi-judicial nature and falls under the following heads:—

(a) Recognition of undertakings and occupations.

(b) Registration of Unions.

(c) Maintenance of approved lists of Unions.

(d) Registration of Agreements, Settlements, Submissions and Awards.

(e) Maintenance of list of Joint Committees constituted under Section 48 of the Act.

(f) Maintenance of list of protected employees of unions connected with the industries covered under the Act.

The Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, is the Regional Head of all the offices under the Commissioner of Labour in Nagpur and Aurangabad Divisions and has been entrusted with necessary powers for running the administration of the labour offices in these divisions. He performs statutory functions entrusted to him under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947 and the Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act, 1947. He is the certifying authority for standing orders under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946. He is assisted by two Assistant Commissioners of Labour stationed at Nagpur and having jurisdiction over the entire Vidarbha region. Both these Assistant Commissioners are appointed as authorities under section 16 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and one of them is also appointed as the Assistant Registrar of Recognised Unions

under the said Act. The Assistant Commissioners are also Inspectors under the Minimum Wages Act and Shops and Establishments Act.

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The Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, in addition to his duties, has been notified as Additional Registrar of Trade Unions for Vidarbha Region under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. The Additional Registrar is assisted by one of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Nagpur who has been notified as Deputy Registrar of Trade Unions for Vidarbha Region. The work done by the Additional Registrar is mainly in connection with administration of Indian Trade Unions Act and also includes the registration of trade unions, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions, registration of the dissolutions, amalgamation and cancellation of registration of trade unions and submission of annual reports on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by registered trade unions under the Act.

In the year 1963-64, there were 12 unions in Chandrapur District registered under the Act and all were unions of workers.

Government Labour Officer.

The Government Labour Officers at Bombay work under the supervision and control of the Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay. At the various sub-offices, they are under the administrative control of the respective heads of offices or regional heads. For purposes of labour administration as also for other purposes, Chanda District forms part of the Vidarbha region. The labour matters of this district are primarily looked after by the Government Labour Officer stationed at Bhandara.

The Government Labour Officers are statutory Labour Officers under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and perform the functions specified in the said Act. In the absence of representative or approved unions in any industry in any local area, they have to elect representatives of employees for the purpose of representation of employees in collective disputes, and in the absence of any such elected representatives they themselves have to act as representatives of employees. They attend to individual complaints from employees from all the industries and keep Government and other authorities informed of the latest situation in the labour and industrial field by sending regular reports to these authorities. They are also Minimum Wages Inspectors and Shops Inspectors and/or Supervising Officers and in these capacities enforce the provisions of the respective Act in the areas under their jurisdiction. Being Inspectors under the working Journalists Act, they are also concerned with the enforcement of the provisions of the said Act.

There is no Government Labour Officer at Chandrapur. However, the office of the Inspector, Minimum Wages has been established and it functions under the administrative control of

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Government Labour Officer.

the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur. The Minimum Wages Inspector, Chandrapur is required to implement the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act in Chandrapur District and has to look after the complaints of the workers under the above Act. The Government Labour Officer, Bhandara with head-quarters at Bhandara has also jurisdiction over the district. The Government Labour Officer supervises the work of the Inspector and implements the Labour Laws.

Factory Department.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour. But the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control over the technical side of the work of the department all over the State. The Department is mainly responsible for the administration of the Factories Act, 1948 and the administration of the following Acts has also been assigned to it:—

(1) Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936).

(2) The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925) Section 9, regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories.

(3) The Employment of Children Act (XXXVI of 1938).

(4) The Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1929).

(5) The Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act (XL of 1953).

The Madhya Pradesh Factory Rules have been superseded by the Maharashtra Factories Rules, 1963 now in force in the district since 31st October 1963.

The Factory Department has one regional office at Nagpur in charge of Dy. Chief Inspector of Factories with jurisdiction over the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Wardha, Yeotmal, Amravati, Akola, Buldhana, Bhir, Nanded and Osmanabad. Other sub-offices in Nagpur region under the control of Dy. Chief Inspector of Factories are at Akola, Bhandara and Aurangabad. Besides Dy. Chief Inspector of Factories, following offices are stationed at Nagpur:

One Senior Inspector of Factories, one Junior Inspector for Factories and one Inspector for Notified Factories.

The main function of the Inspector is to ensure that provisions of the Factories Act are observed by the managements of the factories to which the Act is applicable. He is also responsible for the enforcement of the other enactments, administration of which is entrusted to the Factory Department.

The Collector is the *ex officio* Inspector of Factories in the District. The Assistant Commissioner of Labour and Government Labour Officers in that region are also Additional Inspectors under the Factories Act and other enactments.

Under Section 8 (4) of the Factories Act, the District Magistrate of Chandrapur is also the Inspector of Factories for the District. In addition, all Sub-Divisional Magistrates, Mamlatdars

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Factory Department.

and the Officers of the Public Health Department have been appointed as additional Inspectors for certain provisions of the Factories Act.

The Inspectors have power to prosecute, conduct and defend before the Courts after taking permission from the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay under Rule 9 of the Maharashtra Factories Rules, 1963 but not the Inspectors appointed under Section 8 (4).

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department.

The function of the Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department is to carry out the administration of the Indian Boilers Act, 1923, throughout the State of Maharashtra and that of the Bombay Smoke Nuisances Act, 1912 and the Rules thereunder within the limits of Greater Bombay, and in the cities of Sholapur and Nagpur.

Accordingly, about 60 steam boilers located in the district of Chandrapur are being annually inspected by the Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances appointed under the provision of the Indian Boilers Act, 1923; for renewal of their certificates. The Head-quarters of this Inspector is at Nagpur with Head office in Bombay. In addition, if the new or unregistered second hand boilers are intended to be registered in this District, the work of registration is carried out by the Inspector.

Under the said Act and the Rules, the boilers are also required to be attended to by qualified and competent persons; and before they are certified to be so qualified and competent they have to put in the prescribed period of service on working boilers; and appear for the examinations held in Bombay and Nagpur. The persons desiring to work as qualified and competent persons on boilers located in this District have therefore to appear for the prescribed examinations held in Bombay or Nagpur.

From the above it may be seen that the function of the Indian Boilers Act, and the rules thereunder, in this District is limited to the extent as indicated above and that this function has not been in any way changed due to the formation of Zilla Parishad.

Wages and Earnings.

There is no working class cost of living index for Chandrapur or any other centre in the district. There is no specific award of Industrial Court laying down as to which cost of living index number series should be applied to the various centres in the district.

Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 has been made applicable to the Municipal areas of Chandrapur in Chandrapur District.

Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948.

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and the Scheme thereunder, has not been extended to the Chandrapur District.

Employees' Provident Funds Act, 1952.

The Employees' Provident Funds Act, 1952 is applicable to Chandrapur District.

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Minimum Wages Act.

Minimum rates of wages were fixed for Chandrapur District, by former Government of Madhya Pradesh for following employments *viz.*, (1) Rice, Flour or Dal Mills, (2) Tobacco (including bidi making) manufactory, (3) Oil Mills, (4) Local Authorities, (5) Construction or Maintenance of Roads or in Building operations, (6) Stone breaking or Stone crushing, (7) Public Motor Transport, (8) Tanneries and Leather Manufactory, (9) Printing Industry, (10) Cotton Ginning and Cotton Pressing, (11) Glass and (12) Potteries.

The minimum rates of wages for the above employments were revised by the Government of Maharashtra.

The minimum rates of wages were fixed for the first time by Government of Bombay for employment in shops and commercial establishments not being an employment in bank or an employment which is included under any of the other entries in the schedule to Minimum Wages Act. The rates of wages for this employment were revised by Government of Maharashtra.

The minimum rates of wages were fixed for the first time for employment in Rubber Industry by Government of Maharashtra.

The Minimum Wages Inspector, Chandrapur is required to implement the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act in Chandrapur District and has to look after the complaints of the workers under the above Act. The Government Labour Officer, Bhandara supervises the work of the Inspector and implements the Labour Laws.

Authority under Payment of Wages Act.

In the Chandrapur District, the Civil Judge, Senior Division, Chandrapur has been appointed Authority for the area within his jurisdiction.

Authority under Minimum Wages Act.

The Civil Judges who have been appointed authorities under the Payment of Wages Act have also been appointed authorities under the Minimum Wages Act to hear and decide claims arising out of payment of less than the minimum rate of wages to employees employed or paid in their respective jurisdictions.

Industrial Arbitration and Adjudication.

The Chandrapur district forms a part of the Nagpur Division of the Maharashtra State. The Provincial Industrial Court (The State Industrial Court), Nagpur constituted under section 22 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, which was applicable to Nagpur region till 1st May 1965, had jurisdiction to decide disputes arising in all the industries in the Nagpur division. The State Industrial Court, Nagpur and the District Industrial Court, Nagpur were the two authorities constituted for jurisdiction under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. The powers of the State Industrial Court, Nagpur are detailed in chapter III of the said Act. The State Industrial Court, Nagpur was acting as a court of arbitration in the disputes referred to it by the Commissioner of Labour and the

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Industrial Arbitration and Adjudication.

Provincial Government. In its Appellate jurisdiction, it was to decide the appeals on the orders of the District Industrial Court, Nagpur, the Registrar, Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, Wage Boards, Commissioner of Labour etc. No appeal could lie to the State Industrial Court or District Industrial Court, Nagpur against an order by the Labour Commissioner. However a party aggrieved by the said order could apply to the District Industrial Court for revision of the same. The Government could also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lock-out or any notice of change would be illegal. References on points of Law could be made to it by the Civil Courts as well as by the Wage Boards.

Labour Courts.

The Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947 was repealed and the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 has been made applicable to the Chandrapur District with the enforcement of the Bombay Industrial Relations (Extension and Amendment) Act, 1964, with effect from 1st May 1965. Under the said act the authorities constituted for jurisdiction over the Chandrapur district are the Industrial Court, Maharashtra, Nagpur Bench and the Labour Court at Nagpur.

Wage Boards.

No reference was received by the Wage Board during the years from 1948 to 1965 from this district.

Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.

Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act, (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay has been given exclusive jurisdiction over Bombay and Bombay Suburban District. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western and Central Railways and the Hydro-electric Companies under the Management of Messrs. Tata Hydro-Electric Agencies Ltd., arising in the State irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State of Maharashtra.

The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Chandrapur is the *ex-officio* Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation for Chandrapur district.

The principal reason for giving to Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle the cases with Insurance Companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay City. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under Section 20 (2) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex-officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised—

(a) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (1) and (2) of Section 8;

(b) to issue notices to, and to receive applications from dependants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and

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(c) to receive agreements for registration under Section 28 wherever the accident may have taken place.

Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Application for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under Section 8 (1) had been received, and other application provided for in Section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to employers under Section 10-A, requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the districts are issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioners and reports of fatal accidents made under Section 10-B are also received by them. After notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Application for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

Labour Welfare Activities.

Formerly the Welfare Centres and Multipurpose Institutes which imparted education and provided recreation facilities to industrial workers were conducted by the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour in various centres of Vidarbha region. The Welfare Centres were started under the Welfare Scheme in the First Five-Year Plan while the Multipurpose Institutes were started under the Second Five-Year Plan. However, the Maharashtra Labour Welfare Board constituted under the Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1953, took over the management of Labour Welfare Centres in Chandrapur District on 1st January 1962, along with other centres in Marathwada and Vidarbha which were till then under the control of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur. These centres were started about two years earlier by Government and the activities there were in an incipient stage when the centres were taken over by the Board.

The following staff is attached to the *Kendra*:—

(1) *Kendra Sanchalak* (Welfare Organiser).

(2) *Kendra Up-Sanchalika* (Lady Part Time Worker).

(3) *Kendra Sevak* (Full Time Class IV employee).

The activities conducted at the centre include:—

(a) *Entertainment*:

(i) Film Shows (Documentaries and Educational Films);

(ii) Dramatics;

(iii) Music;

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(iv) Radio and

(v) *Kalapathak*.

(b) *Games and Sports*:

(i) Outdoor Games;

(ii) Atheletics;

(iii) Wrestling; and

(iv) Indoor Games.

(c) *Health*:

(i) Hygiene "Community Health";

(ii) First Aid;

(iii) Health Advice and Literature; and

(iv) Excursions.

(d) *Community and Social Education*:

(i) Workers' Education;

(ii) Reading Rooms, Libraries;

(iii) Health Advice and Literature; and

(iv) Family Care.

These activities conducted by the Board fall in two categories *viz.*, (i) Daily and (ii) Occasional or Special.

The centre in Chandrapur is functioning under the supervision of Workers' Welfare Officer, Bhandara Circle, whose headquarters are situated at Gondia.

The total number of workers and dependents availing of the facilities provided at Chandrapur Centre stood at 477 as on March 31st, 1964 out of which 283 were men, 23 women, 139 boys and 32 girls.

It has been observed that activities at the centre suffer in terms of participation, since the area is backward and literacy is at a low level. This is particularly noticeable as regards participation in activities conducted for women. Efforts are being made within the resources available, to popularise the welfare programme and make it acceptable to a larger number of workers and their families.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE DEPARTMENT

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE. Organisation.

The prohibition policy of the Government aims at moral, ethical and economic uplift of the common man and achieving peaceful living conditions in the society. To implement this policy the prohibition laws have been enforced prohibiting production, possession, export, import, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants except as permitted by any rules, or orders.

Prohibition was introduced in Chandrapur District with effect from 1st October, 1946, under the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, which was in force in that district till

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

31st March 1959 and thereafter the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 (XXV of 1949) was extended to the district with effect from April 1, 1959. The Collector is charged with the administration of Prohibition and Excise department in the district. In that respect he is responsible to the Director of Prohibition and Excise, Maharashtra State, Bombay. He is invested with powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). He also exercises powers under the Dangerous Drugs Act, (II of 1930), and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of 1936). Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibition or restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp, mhowa flowers and molasses and of articles containing liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licenses, permits and passes under the Act.

The Director of Prohibition and Excise is the Head of the Prohibition and Excise Department and is responsible for the administration of the laws relating to Prohibition and Excise in the whole State. His office, therefore, forms a central organisation for directing the proper implementation of the policy of the department and for guiding the Collectors and District Prohibition and Excise Officers in the State.

The Prohibition and Excise department administers the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, the Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936, the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959, the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955, the Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955 and the Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930 and rules and regulations made thereunder. The subjects dealt with by the above Acts are briefly as under:—

(i) The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, prohibits the production, manufacture, possession, exportation, importation, transportation, purchase, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants. However, these transactions can be permitted by Rules, Regulations or Orders. The Act also regulates the possession, sale, etc., of mhowa flowers and molasses.

(ii) The Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936 prohibits the smoking of opium.

(iii) The Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959, regulates the possession and sale of certain drugs which are used in a manner injurious to health and which are specified by Government in the Maharashtra Government Gazette as 'Notified Drugs'.

(iv) The Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955 provides for the levy and collection of duty on medicinal and toilet preparations containing alcohol, opium, Indian hemp or other narcotic drug or narcotics.

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Organisation.

(v) The Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955, regulates in the public interest the movement on an inter-State basis of certain spirituous medicinal and other preparations.

(vi) The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930 prohibits the manufacture, exportation, importation, sale, possession and transportations of manufactured drugs like cocaine, morphine, heroin, pethidine, etc., except in accordance with the rules made in that behalf.

Enforcement Work.

The enforcement of prohibition, *i.e.*, detection, investigation, etc., of offences under the above acts is entrusted to the Police Department. Though officers of the Prohibition and Excise Department of and above the rank of Sub-Inspectors have been invested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on information of the commission of offences and handover the cases detected by them to the police for investigation. The Home Guard organisation also assists the police in this work. All revenue officers of and above the rank of mamlatdar or mahalkari, all magistrates and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of Sub-Inspectors have been authorised, under Section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdiction, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any articles of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes and detains any articles, has to forward such person or articles, without unnecessary delay, to the officer in charge of the nearest police station. Besides the administration of the Acts mentioned above, the Department controls the work of prohibition propaganda. Social workers of repute are appointed at regional levels as Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organisers and they attend to the work of prohibition propaganda by addressing meetings and impressing upon the masses the evil effects of intoxicants. They also work for enlisting the co-operation of social workers and institutions for prohibition propaganda. At the district level prohibition propaganda officers carry on intensive prohibition propaganda particularly in the notorious areas of the district.

In all excise matters the administrative control is vested in the Director of Prohibition and Excise. He is also responsible for the general supervision of the prohibition propaganda work carried on by the departmental officers. The Collectors have certain functions under the aforesaid Acts such as issue of licences and permits, and they are in respect of such function, subordinate to the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

For Chandrapur district there is a Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise at Chandrapur who assists the Collector of Chanda in all excise and prohibition matters. Under the

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Superintendent there is one Inspector of Prohibition and Excise and five Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise for executive work.

The Inspector and Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise have also been vested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act, the Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act. There is also a Prohibition Propaganda Officer in Chandrapur district who carries out prohibition propaganda throughout the district under the guidance of the Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Chandrapur and the Divisional Honorary Prohibition Organiser, Nagpur Division. There is also a Gond Prohibition Propagandist for Gadhchiroli and Sironcha Tahsils.

The main functions of this Department are confined to licensing, inspection of licences and the enforcement of various controls enacted under the Acts referred to above, particularly under the Bombay Prohibition Act. The Officers of the Department have also to do propaganda on total prohibition and the various advantages derived therefrom amongst the people in the State and to supervise and organise recreation centres in their charges and to co-operate with the Police Department in their duties of prevention and detection of prohibition crimes. The Excise staff is responsible for the supervision of bonded manufactories, warehouses, neera centres and management of Government Liquor and Drugs Sale Depots and inspection of various excise licences. They are also required to associate themselves in increasing measures with the ameliorative and social side of the prohibition campaign, and to tighten the loopholes where such exist. Briefly, they are responsible for control, propaganda and ameliorative work, and their work now is of a liaison and supervisory type and also educational. Under Section 134 of the Prohibition Act, village officers, village servants useful to Government and officers and servants of local authorities are bound to give information to the Police of breaches of the provision of the Act which may come to their knowledge and also to prevent the commission of breaches of the provisions of the Act about which they may have knowledge. Under Section 133, officers and servants of local authorities are also bound to assist any Police Officer or person authorised to carry out the provisions of the Act. Under section 135, occupiers of lands and buildings, landlords of estates, owners of vehicles, etc., are bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or manufacture of liquor or intoxicating drug to a Magistrate, Prohibition Officer or Police Officer as soon as it comes to their knowledge. With the change in the aspect of the law from the old fiscal to new social and moral objective, offences under the prohibition Act came to be regarded as offences against society and involving moral turpitude. Prohibition offences were, therefore, made cognizable and with the introduction of total prohibition all the powers in connection with

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investigations, prevention, detection, prosecution, etc., of prohibition offences were vested in the police. The work of prevention, detection, etc., of prohibition offences is now a regular duty of the police staff. The main difficulty encountered in the enforcement of prohibition is lack of adequate co-operation of the public to help the police in the prevention and detection of prohibition offences. The difficulty of securing the services of respectable persons to work as panch witnesses in prohibition cases is also often felt.

Permits.

Various permits are granted for possession, use etc., of foreign liquor. They are:—

(1) *Emergency Permit.*—An Emergency Permit is granted for the use of consumption of brandy, rum or champaigne to any person for his/her own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his/her household for medicinal use on emergent occasions. The permit is granted for a yearly period up to 31st March and for a quantity not exceeding 4 drams *i.e.*, 13½ fluid ounces of brandy, or rum or 8 drams *i.e.*, 26⅔ fluid ounces of Champaigne for three months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at any one time. The term 'Household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as the members of one domestic unit.

(2) *Health Permit.*—The Health Permit is granted for the use or consumption of foreign liquor to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. Persons over 40 years of age are granted Health Permit for the quantity as recommended by a Registered Medical Practitioner but not exceeding 4 units per month for two years and Persons below the age group of 30 and 40 years are granted three units per month for one year and persons below 30 years are granted 2 units per month for one year on recommendation of the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board or the Registered Medical Practitioner as the case may be.

(3) *Temporary Residents' Permit.*—A Temporary Residents' Permit is issued to persons born and brought up or domiciled in a country outside India, where liquor is usually consumed. No permit is granted for a period exceeding twenty four months from the date of its commencement. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity not exceeding six units as the collector may fix in each case.

(4) *Visitor's Permit.*—Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of one week is granted this permit.

(5) *Special Permit for Privileged Personages.*—This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are the nationals of foreign States. It is also granted to the consorts and relatives of the above persons.

Permits.

(6) *Interim.*—Any person who is eligible for a permit under rules 63, 64 or 68 of the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953, and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor may apply to the collector or any other officer authorised in this behalf for an interim permit while applying for a regular permit under any of the said rules. No such permit shall be granted for such monthly quantity of foreign liquor as the Collector may fix, provided that such quantity shall not in any case exceed two units of foreign liquor per month if the permit holder is not eligible for permit under rule 63 or 68, or four units of foreign liquor per month in other cases, except with the sanction of the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

(7) *Tourist's Permit.*— A foreign tourist holding a tourist's introduction card or tourist visa visiting the State of Maharashtra is granted free a tourist's permit for a period of his stay in the State but for a period not exceeding one month.

Visitors.—Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor shall apply to the collector. The permit shall be granted for a period not exceeding one week provided that the collector may extend the period of such permit, but in no case shall such period be extended to a total period exceeding one month. No permit shall be granted for quantity exceeding one unit per week exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc., of toddy is completely prohibited in the district except in the areas of Sironcha and Gadhchiroli Talukas wherein Government has granted concession to Adivasis to manufacture and possess Toddy for domestic consumption on obtaining Toddy licences for a period of one year (i.e. July to June every year). This privilege is given to the people of this community as they are used to toddy drinking as a part of their food for ages. According to the excise arrangements now in force in that area, each individual applicant is granted Toddy licence for tapping trees ranging from 1 to 5 for domestic consumption. The permit fee and tree tax per toddy tree is 75 paise per annum respectively.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited, except under permit or licence. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit for domestic purpose is normally granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month.

Provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reasons grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month.

Provided further that with previous sanction of the Collector a permit may be granted for a quantity exceeding three quart bottles per month.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit for medical, scientific and educational purposes and for purposes of art, industry or profession is regulated by the system of licences prescribed in this behalf. Methylated industrial denatured spirit required for use in any industry etc., is allowed to be possessed on licences issued under the Bombay Denatured Spirit Rules, 1959.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Authorisations for use of country liquor and wine for a sacramental purposes only are granted to priests of certain communities viz., Parsees, Jews and Christians. The possession, use etc., of country liquor except for sacramental purposes is prohibited.

Ganja, Bhang and Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of Opium, Ganja and Bhang is granted only on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by Government or Medical Officer appointed for the purpose.

Neera and Palm Products Scheme.

Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing Gur from Neera are granted only to (1) the co-operative societies organised by constructive social workers, (2) other similar organised Institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, (3) Ashrams, (4) organisations in charge of intensive area schemes, (5) Sarvoday Centres, etc., on the recommendation of the Khadi and Village Industries Board for the State of Maharashtra. No neera licences to individuals are granted.

Sanskar Kendras.

In order to provide facilities for recreation and counter attraction for the purpose of weaning the addicts from the drink and drug habit "Sanskar Kendras" or Cultural Centres are established in labour areas or areas known for prohibition offences and they are run either departmentally or by the efforts of the local social workers or social institutions interested in prohibition work. At the Sanskar Kendras newspapers, magazines and facilities for indoor and outdoor games are provided and programmes like *bhajans, kirtans,* music, folk songs, dramas etc., in which the people of the locality are interested are arranged. Government grants subsidy to the Sanskar Kendras run by social workers and institutions. In Chandrapur district, there are six departmental Sanskar Kendras one each at (1) Sironcha, (2) Kurkheda, (3) Lalpeth, (4) Mul, (5) Ankisha and (6) Sasti. Prohibition has in effect, raised the standard of living of the poorer classes. They eat better food and wear better clothes. Their children go to schools and the womenfolk are happier. They can now purchase articles which prior to prohibition would have been regarded as beyond their means. Poorer sections of the society, now resort to cinemas, hotels and other places of public amusement for entertainment frequently. Due to prohibition there has been a great change in the ideas of social values and manners. Prohibition has resulted in lesser family feuds, better and cordial relations at home, greater and proper care for their children, almost complete absence of the

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Various measures of uplift of Backward Classes.

Vimochit Jatis and Nomadic Tribes and *Sanskar Kendras* and *Balwadis* for Scheduled castes, *Vimochit Jatis* and Nomadic Tribes is made with a view to spread education amongst the Backward Classes.

Economic Rehabilitation.—This is mainly effected by (i) grant of cultivable waste lands and assistance for development of land, bunding, supply of plough bullocks, implements, seeds, etc. *i.e.*, for rehabilitating Backward Classes in agriculture, (ii) establishing training centres for imparting training in hereditary crafts and providing financial help for their rehabilitation in various cottage industries, (iii) imbibing co-operative spirit among them and (iv) reserving certain percentage of vacancies for Backward Classes in services under State Government and Local Bodies and under Semi Government Organisations.

Social Welfare.—The activity under this head is designed to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of scheduled castes and to bring them to the level of the general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of Ex-Criminal Tribes and Nomadic Tribes in gainful and stable avocations. Legislation as well as propaganda through the medium of voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this objective. A mention may be made of the untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Government of India to prohibit observance of untouchability in any form in this connection.

Financial assistance is made available by the Central Government to the extent of 100 per cent of the expenditure incurred under Centrally Sponsored Programme and 75 per cent and 50 per cent of the expenditure incurred on educational and other than educational schemes respectively under the State Five Year Plan. The IIIrd Five Year Plan of the Maharashtra State provided a sum of Rs. 5.81 crores for the Welfare of Backward Classes. Under the Centrally Sponsored programme an outlay of Rs. 306.40 lakhs has been provided for Maharashtra State. Under this programme Scholarships are being awarded to Backward Class students studying for post S.S.C. courses, 41 Tribal Development Blocks are being opened, Forest Labourers Co-operative Societies are being assisted, Tribal Research Unit is being maintained, assistance is being sanctioned for construction of houses for sweepers and scavengers and purchase of wheel barrows and hand-carts for the removal of night soil. The entire programme for the Welfare of *Vimukta Jatis* is also being financed under the Centrally Sponsored Programme.

Structure of the Department.

The District Social Welfare office was started in Chandrapur District with one District Welfare Officer as the Head of the office. He was assisted by Social Welfare Inspectors. He was entrusted with organisation and establishment of grampanchayats in the villages, organisation of literacy drive and spreading social education through social education classes literature and audio-visual equipment, inspection and grant-in-aid to social welfare institutions and voluntary agencies doing social work and all the activities connected with the Social Welfare including the removal of untouchability.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Structure of the Department.

As a result of the reorganisation of States in 1956, the District Social Welfare Officer was designated as Social Welfare Officer and continued to be assisted by Social Welfare Inspectors. The work connected with panchayats and social education was transferred to Local Self-Government and Education Department at District level and now the Social Welfare Officer is entrusted with work relating to the Social Welfare Department.

All the schemes undertaken by the Social Welfare Department are implemented by the Social Welfare Officer in the district and it is a part of his duties to see that the fullest benefit of all these schemes is received by the members of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. He is also expected to see that the backward classes derive the maximum of the concessions sanctioned by Government in the field of education, health, housing, agriculture and allied professions, etc. The Social Welfare Officer in the district works directly under the control of the Collector of district.

In accordance with the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the work pertaining to Welfare of Backward Classes, has been entrusted to the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer, of the Zilla Parishad is the Secretary of this Committee and the Social Welfare Officer, acts as the Joint Secretary. The President of the Zilla Parishad acts as the Chairman of Standing Committee. Of the total population of 12,38,070 of Chandrapur district, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and Navbudhists account for 42,643, 1,83,431 and 1,47,871 persons respectively as per the 1961 census. The population of *Vimukta Jatis* and Nomadic Tribes is estimated to be 7,220 and 7,500 respectively. Under sub-paragraph (i) of paragraph 6 of the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution of India the President has declared parts of Gadhchiroli, Sironcha and Rajura talukas of Chandrapur District as Scheduled Areas. The total population of Scheduled Tribes in these talukas is 1,16,851 as against total population of 1,76,938 having an area of 1,812.6 square miles.

Education.

The Social Welfare Officer, has been delegated powers to distribute scholarships, tuition and examination fees to Backward Class students through respective institutions. Grants-in-aid to *Balwadis*, *Sanskar Kendras* and Hostels is sanctioned by the Chief Executive Officer. Questions relating to recognition of new hostels, *Balwadis* and *Sanskar Kendras* and increase in strength of Backward Class Hostels are decided by the Standing Committee and final approval of the Chief Executive Officer is obtained. The expenditure incurred during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 on major educational Schemes of all Backward Classes is given below.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

Sanskar Kendras.

street brawls and of quarrelsome atmosphere of the neighbourhood and above all, in general peace and tranquillity particularly among the groups once noted for drinking and misbehaving[1].

Social Welfare Department

Social Welfare. Organisation.

At the Secretariat level the Department of Social Welfare was constituted immediately on reorganisation of States *i.e.,* on November 1, 1956 with a separate Minister for Social Welfare. At the Directorate level a new Department of Social Welfare was constituted on September 15, 1957*. The Backward Class Welfare work done previously by the Backward Class Department was entrusted to the reconstituted Social Welfare Department. The duties performed by the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools were transferred to the reconstituted Directorate. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare was changed to that of Director of Social Welfare. He is the head of Social Welfare department. The post of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions was redesignated as the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing). He assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. There are three Deputy Directors who look after the work relating to (i) the education and rehabilitation of Physically Handicapped, (ii) propaganda, research and statistics and (iii) sanitation and scavenging schemes. In addition to this there is one P.A., one Statistical Officer and one Special Officer for Scholarships for S.S.C. students. The Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department aims at ameliorating the conditions of backward classes so that they reach the standard of other sections of the Society as quickly as possible.

There are Divisional Social Welfare Officers for each revenue division of the State which started functioning with effect from June 1, 1961. Since April 1, 1965, a post of Special Officer in Class II and a post of Social Welfare Inspector in Class III have been attached to each Division for speedy implementation of the recommendations of the Scavengers Living Conditions Enquiry Committee.

The Divisional Social Welfare Officers are of the status of Class I Officers. At the district level, the Department has district officers termed as Social Welfare Officers who are of the status of Class II Officers. They execute schemes implemented by the Social Welfare department and co-ordinate the work of backward class welfare in the district in respect of the schemes implemented by the various departments of the State. In respect of tribal welfare work in Vidarbha region, there are seven Area Organisers who are incharge of certain zones. They are also Class II Officers of the status of Social Welfare

[1]In 1972 the Government liberalised its prohibition policy with the result that any person above the age of 21 years can now freely purchase any quantity of liquors or wines.

*Vide Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department No. BCE-2857-D, dated 23rd September 1957.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

Social Welfare. Organisation.

Officers. They look after the Tribal Welfare Schemes in their respective zones. Besides this there is one Nomadic Tribes Welfare Officer each at Poona and Aurangabad who look after the Welfare of Nomadic Tribes of Poona and Aurangabad Divisions. Since the year 1964-65 one *Vimukta Jati* Welfare Officer each at Bombay and Nagpur have been appointed for the welfare of *Vimukta Jatis*. These Officers attached to divisions now look after the work relating to nomadic tribes as well as *Vimukta Jatis* for the respective Divisions. Due to democratic decentralization, implementation of Schemes for the Welfare of Backward Classes has been transferred to Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis with effect from May 1, 1962.

A Tribal Research Unit has been established at Poona, in 1961-62 with the object of carrying research into the traits and characteristics of the Tribals and their problems so that the Tribal Welfare Programme could be fashioned to serve their needs. This Unit is headed by one Chief Research Officer who is assisted by two Research Officers and four Investigators and other necessary ministerial staff.

Backward Classes.

The Backward Classes are classified into three main categories *viz.,* (1) the scheduled castes or *harijans,* (2) the scheduled tribes or *adivasis* and (3) the other backward classes who are socially and educationally backward. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President. The Communities coming under the category, Other Backward Classes include:—

(*a*) *Nav-Buddhas i.e.,* Scheduled Castes converted to Buddhism.

(*b*) Tribals residing outside the Scheduled and specified areas of Vidarbha.

(*c*) Nomadic Tribes and

(*d*) *Vimukta Jatis i.e.,* Denotified Communities.

A number of privileges have been granted to Backward Classes by the constitution of India and special grants are also being paid every year by Government of India, for amelioration of Backward Classes. Besides normal concessions made available to Backward Classes from time to time, special Schemes have been framed for Backward Classes by the State Government under the Five Year Plans and these are being implemented vigorously.

Various measures of uplift of Backward Classes.

The disabilities of Backward Classes are three-fold, educational, economic and social. The Government have, therefore, launched a three pronged drive with the object of eliminating these disabilities within the shortest possible time.

Educational uplift.—This is achieved by instituting a large number of scholarships, universal concessions of free studentships and payment of examination fees. Provision for hostel facilities, Special *Ashram* Schools for Scheduled Tribes,

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

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EXPENDITURE INCURRED DURING 1963-64 AND 1964-65

(1)	1963-64 (2)	1964-65 (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Scholarships, tuition fees and Examination fees.	2,16,902	2,98,883
2. Aided Backward Class Hostels	1,26,986	1,27,758
3. Cosmopolitan Hostels	20,758	25,606
4. Building grants to Hostels	13,349	20,000
5. Balwadis	3,491	5,765
6. Sanskar Kendras	1,000	2,000
7. Stipends to hostellers	62,594	63,938

Economic Uplift.

To improve the economic condition of Backward C'asses, Government have introduced a number of Schemes such as (1) assistance for propagation of improved agricultural implements; (2) Cottage Industries and Professions and (3) Purchase of Milch Cattle etc. Financial Assistance is sanctioned on Loan-*cum*-Subsidy basis. The expenditure incurred on these Schemes in Chandrapur District during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 is given below:—

EXPENDITURE INCURRED DURING 1963-64 AND 1964-65

(1)	1963-64		1964-65	
	Subsidy (2)	Loan (3)	Subsidy (4)	Loan (5)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Propagation of improved agricultural implements.	1,625	2,500	3,068	5,853
2. Cottage industries and professions.	7,083	10,750	11,425	28,650
3. Milch Cattle	23,000	16,750	31,670	29,670

Drinking water problem in rural areas is very acute. Government, therefore, spends large amounts every year, looking to the needs of Backward Classes in particular, on construction of drinking water wells.

Similarly housing conditions of Backward Classes are extremely unsatisfactory. Under the Scheme of housing aid a sum of Rs. 100 is paid in cash or kind to carry out repairs to houses of Backward Classes. Under individual housing a subsidy of Rs. 750 per house is given, the balance being borne out by the beneficiary from his own resources. The expenditure incurred on wells, housing and other Schemes during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 is given below.

EXPENDITURE INCURRED DURING 1963-64 AND 1964-65

Serial No. (1)	Items (2)	1963-64 Expenditure (3)	1963-64 Particulars (4)	1964-65 Expenditure (5)	1964-65 Particulars (6)
		Rs.		Rs.	
1	Implements ..	2,268	27 implements	2,000	30 implements.
2	Plough bullocks	5,000	10 animals	10,000	22 animals.
3	Seeds ..	3,000	60 persons	2,000	70 persons.
4	Carts	3,000	11 Carts	3,000	19 Carts.
5	Poultry, goats, etc.	800	16 persons	630	18 persons.
6	Drinking water wells.	48,950	27 wells	75,700	39 wells.
7	Communication	76,278	3 bridges on culverts. 8 miles road	70,000	N.A.
8	Housing, individual.	44,590	58 houses	83,820	112 houses.
9	Housing aid ..	5,500	100 persons	6,639	151 persons.
10	Medical aid ..	1,950	19 persons	1,150	20 persons.

The eastern border of the Etapally Tribal Block is inhabited by a sub-tribe of Gonds called Murda Gonds. Nearly 188 families follow shifting cultivation on the hill slopes of forests of Sironcha Tahsil. Under the Scheme 'Rehabilitation of Tribal families practising shifting cultivation' 25 tribal families practising shifting cultivation are being rehabilitated every year in Bhamragarh range of Sironcha Tahsil of Chandrapur District at an annual cost of Rs. 50,000. The progress achieved

since the inception of the Scheme to March 3, 1965, is given below:—

Year (1)	Place of colony (2)	No. of families settled (3)
1959-60 ..	Bangadi	12
	Gunden-food	8
	Laheri	5
1960-61 ..	Koyar	13
	Murangal	12
1961-62 ..	Gotapadi	25
1962-63 ..	Poyarkuti	25
1963-64 ..	Gadpatri	15
	Bodange	10
1964-65 ..	Hidoor	25
	Babor	

By the end of March, 1965, as many as 150 Tribal families practising shifting cultivation have been rehabilitated.

There are 25 Backward Class hostels and two cosmopolitan hostels in Chandrapur district. They are run by voluntary agencies in order to facilitate the inmates belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

Besides, there are three Balwadis, 4 ashram schools and a Sanskar Kendra in the district. Also there are 5 Backward class housing societies working in the district.

A list of all these institutions is given below:—

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Hostel (2)	Place (3)
1	Chokhamela Hostel (Boys)	Chandrapur.
2	Do. (Girls)	Do.
3	Do. ..	Warora.
4	Do. ..	Sindewahi.
5	Do. ..	Armori.

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Hostel (2)	Place (3)
6	Chokhamela Hostel (Girls)	Nagbhir.
7	Do. ..	Brahmapuri.
8	Dr. Ambedkar Hostel	Chandrapur.
9	Do. ..	Warora.
10	Do. ..	Brahmapuri.
11	Do. ..	Nanhori.
12	Sarvodaya Chhatralaya	Chandrapur.
13	Rashtriya Hostel	Chimur.
14	Nehru Hostel	Do.
15	Do. ..	Chargaon Bk.
16	Loksewa B. C. Hostel	Navargaon.
17	Bharat Vastigriha	Do.
18	Dharmarao Hostel	Aheri.
19	Karmaveer Hostel	Mul.
20	Sarvodaya Navbharat Hostel	Antargaon.
21	Adiwasi Hostel	Chandrapur.
22	Jaysewa Chhatralaya	Brahmapuri.
23	Bappa Adiwasi Hostel	Gunjewahi.
24	Rani Durgawati Hostel	Gadhchiroli.
25	Janata Hostel for Girls	Chandrapur.
	Cosmopolitan Hostels.	
1	Krishak Cosmopolitan Hostel	Kategaon.
2	Agricultural School Hostel	Maroda at Mul.
	Balwadis.	
1	Vikas Balwadi for Scheduled Castes	Talodhi-Balapur.
2	Balwadi in Bhangi Colony for Scheduled Castes ..	Chandrapur.
3	Karmaveer Nomadic Tribes' Balwadi	Do.
	Sanskar Kendra.	
1	Sarvodaya Mahila Mandals' Scheduled Castes Kendra.	Chandrapur.
	Ashram Schools.	
1	Ashram School at Aheri (Wangepalli)	Aheri.
2	Ashram School at Kamalapur	Kamalapur.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. SOCIAL WELFARE. Health, Housing and Other Schemes.

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Hostel (2)	Place (3)
3	Ashram School at Elgur	Elgur.
4	Ashram School at Udera	Udera.
	B. C. Co-operative Housing Societies.	
1	Jawahar B. C. Housing Society	Dongargaon, Sawangi.
2	Siddhartha Housing Society	Pimpalgaon
3	Pranhita Housing Society	Sironcha.
4	Rannagar Housing Society	Rampur-Armori.
5	B. C. Housing Society	Pimparda (Rajura tahsil).

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES

MANAGED ESTATES. Administration.

The Court of Wards Act was originally intended to protect the interest of old families having large estates. The superintendence of estates thereafter was assumed only for the benefit of minors, lunatics, aged and infirm widows and members of scheduled tribes, who were declared by the State Government to be incapable of managing their property.

In order to bring it in conformity with the provisions of the constitution, the Court of Wards Act, 1899 was amended in August, 1952.

The limit of landed property in respect of which the Court of Wards may assume superintendence has been proposed to be land assessed to land revenue of not less than Rs. 1,000 in the aggregate and the gross income from which land is not less than Rs. 25,000 per annum.

In Chandrapur district, the Collector of Chandrapur as the Court of Wards, manages the estate taken over under the Court of Wards Act. A Deputy Collector acts as Officer-in-Charge, Court of Wards, in addition to his own duties and supervises the work in that connection. There is no estate under the Chandrapur Court of Wards.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER

CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Bombay Public Trusts Act.

Prior to 1950, The Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed under various enactments, Central as well as Provincial based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act, (XXIX of 1950) was passed, which can be made applicable to all public trusts without distinction of religion. This Act defines "public trust" as "an express or constructive trust for either a public,

religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a math, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act, (XXI of 1860)".

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Bombay Public Trusts Act.

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act has been made applicable to the following classes of public trusts in the Old Bombay State with effect from January 21, 1952 and in the Marathwada and Vidarbha Regions with effect from February 1, 1961:—

1. *Temples;*
2. *Maths;*
3. *Wakfs;*
4. public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof;
5. societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;
6. Dharmadas, *i.e.*, any amount which, according to the custom or usage or any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose and
7. all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay administers the Act. An Assistant Charity Commissioner has been appointed for Nagpur Region with jurisdiction over the districts of Nagpur, Chandrapur, Wardha and Bhandara. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposed a duty on the trustee of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act which include (a) the approximate value of movable and immovable property owned by the trust, (b) the gross average annual income of the trust property and (c) the amount of

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Duties of Trustees.

average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of dharmadas which are governed under special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of 2 per cent of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenues of the State. Public Trusts, exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief, veterinary treatment of animals and public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less are exempted from the payment of contribution. Deductions from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, veterinary treatment of animals, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but the persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 3,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points such as whether accounts are maintained according to law and regularly, whether an inventory has been maintained of the movables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the Trust have been invested or immovable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of a report, if any, made by an officer authorised under section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner, who after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No. sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immovable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to the public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immovable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other form, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services. CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Application of funds by cypres.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose if it is not in the public interest expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created an application can be made to the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application cypres of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or a direction is required for the administration of any public trust two or more persons having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner can file a suit in the District Court or the City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Bombay Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

Charity Commissioner to be sole Trustee if appointed as Trustee.

The Charity Commissioner may with his consent be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of a trust, provided his appointment is made as a sole trustee. The Court is, however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In case when the Charity Commissioner is appointed as a trustee he may levy administrative charges on these trusts as prescribed in the Rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed within inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the official

CHAPTER 17. Other Social Services.

Gazette every three years. District-wise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the Maharashtra Government Gazette.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Inquiries by Assessors.

Charity Commissioner and Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State of Maharashtra, appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890. In the case of religious and charitable institutions and endowments which rest in or the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred and vested in the Committees of Management to be appointed by the State Government for each district and the endowment within the meaning and for the purposes of the Act. The Charity Commissioner is invested with powers to inquire into the duties of these Committees to be performed and to direct expenses in respect thereof to be paid from the funds belonging to the endowments.

Punishment.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fine ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to the public Trusts in Chandrapur district registered with the Public Trusts Registration Office, Nagpur Region, Nagpur, till 31st December 1966.

PUBLIC TRUST IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT AS ON 31ST DECEMBER 1966.

Category of Trust*	Total No.	Value of Property (in Rs.)		Annual Income	Annual Expenditure
		Moveable	Immoveable		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Hindus	164	1,82,353·25	9,78,357·00	71,852·00	57,548·00
Muslims	28	11,671·00	1,58,550·00	15,762·00	14,206·00
Cosmopolitan ..	63	49,254·00	62,750·00	41,078·00	29,068·00
Registered under Societies Registration Act.	102	25,43,219·00	26,60,425·00	15,06,319·00	15,51,408·00

*There were no Public Trusts of Parsees and Christians.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

CHAPTER 18. Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

INTRODUCTION.

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN THE LAST CENTURY SAW UNPRECEDENTED CHANGES in the social and economic structure of our country, unknown to history. The result was the emergence of a new society with social and economic virtues and vices, with new outlook towards humanity based on the idea of fraternity, with innumerable problems complicated to their extremity, such as unemployment, low standard of living, epidemics, squalor, etc. Besides these general problems present almost in all the nations of the world, some problems peculiar to our country such as illiteracy, backwardness, and poverty have aggravated the complexity of the situation.

Our Government being wedded to the idea of Welfare State, has been making all out efforts to put an end to the social stigmas. However, even with its enormous power, but with limited resources and to the best of its ability, the Government finds it increasingly difficult to fulfil this stupendous task. Its efforts in this direction seem to be insufficient for want of funds and reasonably adequate institutional manpower.

Enlightened and generous men in the society with foresight and resources who have good of the people at their heart have risen to the occasion to lessen the sufferings of their fellow countrymen. By forming organizations, they have undertaken a somewhat difficult task of rendering useful services to the poor and the downtrodden. They sacrifice a bit of their money, time and energy for the upliftment of their kith and kins.

Chandrapur district, inhabited by many backward communities and tribes is also an economically backward track, and needs the services of voluntary social service organizations. It is heartening to note that such organizations did exist in the district in the past though few in number. After Independence the number of social organizations, doing voluntarily commendable service to the people in the field of education, health, welfare and cultural activities, have sprung up. Government is also granting liberal financial aid to such social agencies. These institutions thus help the moral and material development of the people. In this connection the role of the press is laudable and positive.

PUBLIC LIFE.

The Voluntary Social Service Organization in an area like a district reflects the nature of public life, and the state of social progress. Public life, in turn reflects the level of political

CHAPTER 18. Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

PUBLIC LIFE.

consciousness, social progress and educational level of the community of people.

Freedom movement was started vigorously in Chandrapur district as elsewhere in the whole of India. One political conference was also held at Chandrapur in 1908 which was attended by national leaders like Lokmanya Tilak, Dadasaheb Khaparde, Dr. Munje, K. P. Khadilkar and others. The district witnessed many freedom struggles of which the Chimur Incident deserves a mention here. The political lift of the district was enriched by persons like Balwantrao *alias* Babasaheb Deshmukh, M. S. Kannamwar who later on became the Chief Minister of the Maharashtra State as well as Shri B. Ramkrishna Rao and Raje Vishweshwar Rao of Ahiri.

Press is a powerful instrument of educating the masses. In a democratic country like ours, the importance of press is beyond any doubt. For, it is upon the press that the responsibility of forming and guiding the public opinion devolves. It is again the press that creates and develops political consciousness among the people and keeps them abreast of all the happenings in the country and abroad as well. The press is a media through which the wishes and sentiments of the people are conveyed to the Government and the Government action is reflected back to them.

Besides the newspapers and periodicals published outside but which are in common circulation in the distrist the following are the newspapers published in Chandrapur district:—

(1) Athavadyachi Pukar.
(2) Bharat Vijayi.
(3) Chandrapur Darshan.
(4) Gondawana.
(5) Vividha Bharati.
(6) Chandrapur Nagarpalika Vritta.
(7) Chandrapur Parishad.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

In what follows is a description of some of the voluntary social service organizations in Chandrapur district.

Rani Rajkuwar Bhagini Samaj, Chandrapur.

This is one of the numerous institutions which has devoted itself to the cause of eradicating social evils such as illiteracy, untouchability etc., and to make the women conscious of their status, their rights and the duties that go along with them in a democratic set up. The task it has undertaken, though not impossible, is difficult enough in view of the backwardness of the district in practically every sphere, and a high percentage of tribal population.

Rani Rajkuwar Bhagini Samaj was established in 1935 and is the oldest institution of its kind in the district. For the cultural, and moral development of women and children which

CHAPTER 18 Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

is the first step towards the achievement of the goal, the institution has started, since then, a number of sister institutions, such as *Balwadis, Mahila Mandals*, tailoring classes and a class for handicrafts training through which it imparts scientific training.

It has started five social welfare centres, Balwadis and maternity homes at Rajoli, Desaiganj, Bodi, Korgaon and Matheli.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Rani Rajkuwar Bhagini Samaj, Chandrapur.

It also conducts adult education classes. As many as 200 boys and 100 women were taking education in Balwadis and adult education classes, respectively, conducted by this institution in the year 1965.

The Samaj conducted condensed courses from 1961 to 1964 for the upliftment of women. It imparted training in nursing, and also gave such training and education to women as to make them eligible for the matriculation examination. Many of the women took advantage of it and some of them were employed in government service.

The Samaj received government recognition in 1953. It has its own building and playground. Recently it has started a primary school at Chandrapur. It received grant from government as well as from local bodies to the tune of Rs. 9,060 in 1964-65.

Female Education Society, Chandrapur Girl's High School.

The Society was established in 1945, at Chandrapur with the object of running institutions for the education of women and to undertake and facilitate research in all branches of knowledge. Accordingly, the society has started one girl's high school at Chandrapur.

The high school has its own building and other necessary amenities. Practicals in music and home science are held in a newly opened science department. The total income of the school was Rs. 47,074 in 1964-65. The expenditure also was of the same order.

Sarvodaya Shikshan Mandal, Chandrapur.

The Mandal was established in 1956, at Chandrapur. The object of the Mandal is to impart moral, physical, social, and cultural education to boys and girls irrespective of their caste, creed, and religion. It also purports to help the spread of education and to help the poor and promising students. For the realization of these objectives, the mandal has decided to run schools and colleges, libraries and institutions of similar type. As a step in that direction, the Mandal has already started one high school styled as Nehru High School, at Chandrapur.

The management of the Mandal and the school is looked after by an executive committee consisting of 12 members. However, the day-to-day affairs of the school are managed by the headmaster of the school.

Recently, the Mandal started one Institute of Commerce at Chandrapur. The Institute of Commerce confers Diploma in commerce on students who successfully complete one year's

course in the institute after their matriculation. The Mandal is also running a Night High School. The Mandal has already applied for sanction for starting a printing school and a College at Chandrapur.

The annual income and expenditure of the Mandal were of the order of Rs. 37,143.34 and Rs. 37,273.72, respectively.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Chokhamela Vidhyarthi Boarding, Chandrapur.

The Boarding was established in 1930 at Chandrapur with the object of making boarding facilities available to the backward class students from Chandrapur district. The institution also strives for the educational upliftment of students from the vulnerable sections of the rural masses. The generous donation from Dagduji Sant, a distinguished person from Warora tahsil and a donation of a house by Rangari Sant enabled the functioning of the hostel. The Government also donated some land where the institution has constructed two buildings.

The institution is registered under the Public Trusts Act of Bombay, 1950. The management of the boarding is looked after by an executive body consisting of seven members with the president as its head. The president is assisted by a secretary and a treasurer.

The Institution was managing five institutions which were situated at different places in the district. Two of the institutions were at Chandrapur and one each at Warora, Sindevahi and Nagbhir.

The Chokhamela Vidhyarthi Boarding claims to be the first institution to provide boarding facilities to girl students in the district. In 1966 as many as 125 boys and 30 girls were given admission to the boarding.

The total amount of grants received by the institution in 1965-66 was Rs. 21,785. The income and expenditure of all its branches amounted to Rs. 49,093.07 and Rs. 47,392.28 respectively, during the same year.

Dharmrao Shikshan Mandal, Aheri.

This institution, the biggest organization rendering voluntary social service to the people of Chandrapur district, was established in 1958, at Aheri. The object of the institution is to extend educational facilities in tribal areas. The Mandal aims at achieving social, cultural and educational development among tribals through the establishment of schools, libraries and similar institutions. Besides, it also provides medical aid with the help of its own medical unit and mobile hospital. Raje Vishweshwararao of Aheri inspired the establishment of the Mandal. The Mandal was named after late Dharmrao, a noble ruler of Ahiri. This was perhaps the first attempt to bring about an all-round development of tribal people through organized efforts.

Raje Vishweshwararao and Queen Rajkuwar have donated 34 acres and 31 acres of land respectively, to the institution and financially helped it to the tune of Rs. 70,000 till 1966.

The Mandal consists of the general body and the governing body. The governing body is constituted of a president, a vice-president, a secretary and members, while the donors, subscribers and fellows comprise the general body. The general affairs of the Mandal are managed by the governing body while the day-to-day management is looked after by the Secretary. The governing body meets thrice whereas the general body meets once in every financial year.

The Mandal provides a net-work of other Voluntary Social Service Organizations scattered all over Chandrapur district, especially in the tribal areas. The following are the names of the institutions started by the Mandal.

Name of the Institution	Year of establishment	Strength	
		Students	Teachers
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Dharmrao Krishi Vidhyalaya, Aheri ..	1958	255	11
2. Dharmrao Vidhyalaya, Sironcha	1959	100	4
3. Dharmrao Ashram Shala, Yelgur	1960	120	4
4. Dharmrao Prathamik Shala, Chodampalli ..	1959	60	2
5. Dharmrao Prathamik Shala, Gabhani ..	1959	60	2
6. Rani Rajkuwarbai Kanya Shala, Aheri ..	1960	80	2
7. Dharmrao Ashram Shala, Ukheda	1962	110	3
8. Dharmrao Magas Vastigriha, Aheri ..	1958	80	1
9. Dharmrao Adiwasi Hostel, Katola	1959	40	1
10. Rani Rajkuwarbai Ayurvedic Davakhana, Aheri.	1959	40 patients daily on an average	..

All these institutions are registered and recognized by the government. Besides educational activities, the Mandal also encourages sports of all kinds, Indian as well as foreign.

The Dharmrao Shikshan Mandal had assets valued at Rs. 56,590.63 in 1965-66. During the same year, the income and expenditure of the Mandal amounted to Rs. 83,869.24 and Rs. 81,590.63 respectively. The financial position of the Mandal was reported to be sound.

Education Society, Chandrapur.

Though established in 1931, the society was registered in 1935. The object of the society is to start schools, colleges, libraries, hostels and similar institutions for the spread of education. The society also aims to co-operate with other institutions devoted to the cause of educational development in the district.

CHAPTER 18. Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Education Society, Chandrapur.

The New English Higher Secondary School of the Society was started in 1931. The school is supposed to be the biggest in Chandrapur district. The school possesses a very spacious two storied building valued, approximately at Rs. 3 lakhs. With a magnificent playground, it is situated in the heart of the town. The school has an enviable record in the field of games and sports. The school has immensely contributed to the cause of secondary education in the District. Since 1962, it started a course in technical training in the higher secondary classes.

The annual income of the high school was Rs. 1,29,248.72 and the expenditure Rs. 1,15,181.12 in 1964-65.

Gandhi Shikshan Seva Samiti, Chimur.

The institution was established in 1953, with development of educational facilities as its objectives mainly in regard to the downtrodden and handicapped. At present the Samiti is running a National School and a National Hostel at Chimur.

In 1965-66, the income and expenditure of the Samiti amounted to Rs. 6,221.91 and Rs. 6,214.74, respectively.

Vanita Vikas Mandal, Naigaon Bk.

The Mandal was founded in 1962, at Naigaon Bk. It's chief object is to strive for the intellectual, moral and educational development of children and women. The affairs of the Mandal are looked after by an executive body consisting of 14 members.

The Mandal conducts a Balwadi and an adult education class. Since its inception it provided educational facilities to 100 children and literated 90 women up to the end of 1966.

The income and expenditure of the Mandal during the year 1965-66 amounted to Rs. 1,400 and Rs. 2,744, respectively.

The Chandrapur District Mana Samaj Shikshan Sahayyak Mandal, Chandrapur.

The Mandal was established in 1963 at Chandrapur with the object of achieving the social, political and economic development of Mana people. It also aims at rendering all possible help to the students from that community by conducting boardings, distributing books and rendering financial help.

The Mandal had 1,296 members on its roll in 1965-66. Each male member subscribes Re. 1 every year and female member 50 paise to the Mandal. Donations from members as also from others are accepted. The affairs of the Mandal are looked after by an executive committee of 11 members consisting of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, a Deputy Secretary, a Treasurer and 6 members.

In the year 1966 the income of the Mandal amounted to Rs. 1,371.45, whereas the expenditure amounted to Rs. 674.05. In 1966, the Mandal started one boy's hostel at Chandrapur where 22 boys were accommodated initially.

Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Mul.

The Mandal was established in 1953 mainly with the object of spreading education among the masses and at the same time to bring about their cultural and social development. The Mandal aims to realise these objectives through its varied and

manifold programme. Its programme of social education consists of arranging public meetings and explain to the public the importance of prohibition, observance of *Vanmahotsva* and *Swachhata Mohim*.

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VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Mul.

The Mandal runs the following institutions in the district:—

(1) Panchayat Training Centre, Mul.

(2) Navbharat Vidyalaya, Mul.

(3) Navbharat Vidyalaya, Rajoli.

(4) Navbharat Vidyalaya, Vyahad.

(5) Navbharat Primary School, Mul.

(6) Navbharat Vidyalaya, Antargaon.

(7) Karmveer Kannamwar Hostel, Mul.

(8) Suryodaya Navbharat Hostel, Antargaon.

(9) Navbharat Hostel, Rajoli.

(10) Navbharat Sangeet Mandal, Mul.

Adivasi Seva Sangh, Brahmapuri.

The district of Chandrapur has a large number of Adivasis who till recently were practically cut off from the civilized world. It was felt necessary to bring them within the fold of civilized existence and government and private efforts were diverted towards the realization of this objective.

One of such institutions is the Adiwasi Seva Sangh which has exclusively devoted itself to the task of uplifting the tribals.

The Sangh was established in 1960 mainly with the object of extending facilities to Adiwasi students engaged in taking education at different stages. These facilities included lodging, boarding as also financial help.

The management of the Sangh is entrusted to a body of ten members including the Chairman and the vice-Chairman. The Sangh had an income of Rs. 12,964.65 and an expenditure of Rs. 12,983.79 in the year 1966.67. It received grant-in-aid from the Government as also assistance from private individuals in the form of donations.

Panchsheel Shikshan Sanstha, Rajura.

The Sanstha was established in 1964 with a membership of 21. It has an executive body with the Chairman as its head.

The Sanstha was established with a view:—

(1) To render help to persons belonging to scheduled castes,

(2) To help the tribals in their mental and cultural development,

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Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Panchsheel Shikshan Sanstha, Rajura.

(3) To build and conduct children welfare centres for Adiwasi children,

(4) To conduct gymnasiums to improve the physique of Adiwasi students, and

(5) To build hostels for accommodating Adiwasi students.

The Sanstha received government aid of Rs. 2,800 in 1967. It also received donations from the members to the tune of Rs. 2,000 in the same year and the contribution of students and the guardians amounted to Rs. 1,000. The total expenditure incurred was of the order of Rs. 6,150.

CHAPTER 19—PLACES

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

AHERI.

AHERĪ, WITH THE RIVER PRĀṆHITĀ FLOWING A LITTLE TO ITS WEST is a village of 4,608 inhabitants in Sironcā tahsil, principally growing rice, jovar and *kulthi*. Agriculture is the primary occupation of the people and rice their staple food. However, a few are also engaged in *tembru* leaves gathering which are used in bidi rolling. Aherī was formerly the headquarters of Aherī *Zamindārī*, the largest of the Candrapūr *Zamindāris*. Except a large *talāv* spread over nearly 60 to 70 acres to the west of the village, there is nothing of especial note. However, a group of three shrines situated in the heart of the village and dedicated to Śaṅkar, Viṭhobā and Hanumān with that of Śaṅkar in the centre, may passingly be noted. Of these the one dedicated to Viṭhobā and lying on the left of that of Śaṅkar, is the largest with a fairly spacious rectangular *sabhāmaṇḍap* and a domed *śikhar* with a spire. All these are simple structures claiming no architectural beauty. On *Dasarā* the palanquin of Śaṅkar is taken in procession round the village. The celebrations last for two days and are attended by a large number of devotees. About a mile to the west of the village is a *Āśram śālā* maintained by the *Bhārat Sevak Samāj* where orphans are fed and educated up to the middle school stage. Aherī has two more primary schools and an agricultural high school. There are a dispensary with a maternity ward and a family planning centre attached to it, a veterinary dispensary, a police station, a post office, a branch of the district central co-operative bank and a rest house. The village has two rice mills also. A large weekly market is held on Saturdays at which corn, groceries and cloth are principally sold.

AMGAON.

Āmgāṅv, lying 45.40 km. (22 miles) south-east of Mul is a village, in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil where there are two temples of Śiva situated side by side. They are built in the *Hemādpantī* style.

ANKISA.

Ankisā is a large and exceptionally fertile village in Sironcā tahsil lying on the left bank of the Godāvarī, river, about 27.35 km. (17 miles) south of Sironcā on the road to Dumagudiam in Āndhra Pradeś. The population in 1961 was 3,474 as against 3,276 in 1951 and consists mainly of Ārevārs, Kuṇbīs and Velmās. The best land is the low lying *gadda* or *wandoo* land which receives the silt of the river and grows exceptionally fine crops of jovar, chillis and Virginia tobacco. The central belt of the village consists of *regorde* or *regadi* land from which rich crops of wheat are taken. To the north in the vicinity of forest lands the soil grows poorer and wherein only small

CHAPTER 19. Places.

ANKISA.

patches of rice and *baris* are cultivated. In this area are situated two moderately good tanks one of which irrigates about 12.14 hectares (thirty acres) of land, while the other is reserved for drinking purposes. Nearly 150 wells supplement the tank irrigation. The village is purely agricultural and its only trade is in jovar, *mug, til* and tobacco, large quantities of which are sent to Āndhra Pradeś. Ankisā has a primary health centre, an allopathic dispensary and a sub-centre of the veterinary dispensary, all conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad. There is a primary school and a high school, the latter of which being recently established and conducted privately. A prohibition *sanskār kendra,* to impress upon the people the benefits of prohibition, has recently been established. A weekly market is held on Tuesdays.

ARHER-NAWARGAON.

Arher-Navargāṅv is an agriculturally prosperous village in Brahmapurī tahsil situated in the plain that lies between Brahmapurī and the Waingaṅgā. It is 3.21 km. (two miles) from Brahmapurī and about 1.60 km. (one mile) from the river bank. The land around yields rich crops of rice and jovar. The people are well off and chiefly belong to Kuṇbī and Mahār castes. Arher-Navargāṅv has a high school, a post and a dispensary. Monday is the weekly bazar day. Potable water is obtained from wells. A fair is held in honour of Rāma in *Rāmanavamī* day and on the occasion the chariot of Rāma is taken in procession.

ARMORI.

Ārmorī is a large village in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil lying on the road connecting Gaḍhcirolī and Brahmapurī, 24 km. (15 miles) distant from the former and 33.79 km. (21 miles) from the latter. It is also connected with Mendkī by a good all-weather road which further on runs to Taḷoḍhī. As per the 1961 Census the village population is 8,628, and mainly consists of Koṣṭis, Kuṇbīs, Telīs and Dhimārs. The weekly bazar held on Fridays is one of the most important markets in this part of the district for the surrounding villages, the traffic in grain, cloth and cattle being particularly heavy. In olden days Ārmorī used to be a great entrepot for the disposal of iron smelted in the east of the district, but in recent times it has ceased to be such a centre. It is the headquarters of the Wairāgaḍ forest range and being situated within 12.87 km. (eight miles) of Wairāgaḍ, a good deal of forest produce is brough here. 3.21 km. (wo miles) west flows the Waingaṅgā river and during the rains carries a small boat traffic. Among the manufactures of the place figure coarse and fine cloth, country carts called *dhamṇīs,* and tasar weaving and spinning. The village is chiefly noted for *dhamṇīs,* and the *dhamṇīs* of Ārmorī are well known in this part of the district and command a good market. A few families of Dhimārs are engaged in rearing tasar silk worms and some of the patterns woven here are of more than usual merit. Ārmorī, has besides primary schools, a high school, a block development office, a primary health centre, a post office, a police station and

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ARMORI.

a rest house. Ārmorī has also a Survey Education Treatment Centre whose task is to find out leprosy-affected patients, treat them and educate them in respect of the adoption of preventive measures. The only extant building of any archaeological interest is an old triple-shrine *Śaivite* temple which Cunningham assigns to *Rājā* Haracandra Goṇḍ, but there was no Goṇḍ king of that name, and hence it appears likely that he means Hīr Śāh, who during a prosperous reign adorned his kingdom with several fine buildings. The conjecture that the temple might have been built by *Rājā* Haracandra Goṇḍ, a *Killedār* of Wairāgaḍ, is not unlikely. There is a large tank lying north-west of the temple. However, the temple lies in a neglected state. Fragments of sculptures lie about in its neighbourhood pointing to the existence of temples at one time or the other. The village once belonged to *Rājā* Raghujī Rāv of Nāgpūr. There are wells for drinking water but the village suffers from inadequacy of water during the latter half of summer.

ASARALLI.

Āsarallī, with in 1961 a population of 2,913, is a large village in Siroñcā tahsil lying about 30.57 km. (19 miles) to its south on the left bank of the Godāvarī. Āsarallī is in the main an agricultural village, and the conditions of cultivation precisely resemble those of Ankisā. But it is remarkable as having for long possessed the only open bazar in the upper tahsil. This is held on each Friday and was in the olden days known as Marriott market. It attracts visitors and buyers not only from the Siroñcā tahsil but also from Bastar district of Madhya Pradeś and parts of Āndhra State that border on the tahsil. The existence of this bazar has induced a fairly large trading community to settle in Āsarallī, which with the exception of Siroñcā itself, is the only village in the tahsil which though mainly is not purely agricultural. Rājūs and Komṭīs form quite a large community. Before passing the Act, imposing ceiling on land holdings, the relations between the *Sāhukārs* and the tenants were most strained in this tahsil. Āsarallī has a middle school, an *āyurvedic* dispensary, a post and a police outpost. Wells are the sources of drinking water supply. Quite a few wells have been bored for irrigating the land.

BALLARPUR.

Ballārpūr, more properly Ballālpūr, and also known as Ballārśāh is a rapidly developing municipal town in Candrapūr tahsil situated on the Candrapūr-Madrās railway route of the Central Railway, about 16 km. (ten miles) south-east of Candrapūr. This ancient city, sited on the outer high banks of the Wardhā river is essentially a colliery-*cum*-timber mart. In 1961 its population was 20,351. Though lately but an insignificant village Ballārpūr was a royal city in ancient times and signs of its splendour and glory are still seen scattered in its environments. To-day, however, Ballārpūr is known not so much for its ancient glory as for its collieries having nearly 2,000 million tons of coal deposits and large quantities of fine teak and other varieties of timber that are brought here and sold from the

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surrounding forests. It is perhaps the country's largest timber mart deriving its supplies from the south and west Candrapūr divisions. The government have opened a timber depot here and timber is sold on auction. A wide variety of furniture is also manufactured by the local carpenters. There are also a few saw mills and the rich and inexhaustible forest resources have given rise to a paper mill known as Ballārśah Paper and Strawboard Mill. It is counted amongst the largest paper mills in India. China clay of a fine variety used in the manufacture of tiles and all types of crockery and pipes is also available here and in the vicinity in plenty and hence have sprung up the Dadabhai Potteries giving employment to a large number of people. However, it is the existence of coal deposits so vital for industrial development, more than anything else, that has enhanced the importance of Ballārpūr. A thermal station located here, making use of the local coal production, supplies power to the district as well as the adjoining districts of Vidarbha. The existence of coal deposits was traced in 1871. In that year borings were undertaken and after several unsuccessful attempts it was concluded that the bulk of the coalfield lay across the river and work was therefore stopped. In 1901 it became imperative to find a substitute for the Waroḍā Colliery, which was then approaching exhaustion, and a survey undertaken at Ballārpūr resulted in the discovery of favourable indications. In 1903 a trial pit was sunk and coal was found at a depth of 60.96 metres (200 feet). In 1906 a second pit was sunk to a depth of 78.33 metres (257 feet) and the seam of coal was found to be 15.24 metres (50 feet) and of better quality than Waroḍā coal. In 1907 the extension of the Wardhā-Waroḍā branch of the G.I.P. railway, now called Central Railway *via* Candrapūr reached Ballārpūr. The colliery is connected with the railway station named Ballārśāh by a line of about a mile long with numerous sidings. Ballārpūr is now a prosperous mining town and the colliery has a great future. As has been already stated, the latest estimates put the coal deposits at 2,000 million tons. Due to the comparatively excellent means of transport and communications, both road and rail, Ballārpūr, in course of time is bound to be one of the most important industrial centres in Candrapūr.

Municipality.

The municipality was established here in 1949 and its committee is composed of twelve elected councillors. The president who presides over the meetings of the committee, is elected by the councillors from among themselves. The municipal jurisdiction extends over an area of 9 km² (3.5 sq. miles).

Finance: In 1964-65 the municipal income derived from various sources excepting extra-ordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 2,88,551. It comprised municipal rates and taxes Rs. 1,43,800; realisations under special acts Rs. 2,422; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 11,471; grants and contributions Rs. 1,28,615 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,243. Income derived from extra-ordinary and

debt heads was Rs. 18,755. As against this, the municipality had to incur an expenditure of Rs. 2,90,346 on different heads, but excluding extra-ordinary and debt heads. The expenditure items were general administration and collection Rs. 69,442; public safety Rs. 7,259; public health and convenience Rs. 55,526; public instruction Rs. 1,54,293; contributions Rs. 1,215 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,611. Expenses on account of extra-ordinary and debt heads stood at Rs. 24,412.

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Health, Sanitation and Water Supply: A primary health centre conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad and located in the vicinity of the municipal office building, meets the medical needs of the people. From time to time precautionary measures are also taken to check the outbreak of epidemics. It may, however, be noted that the town was not visited by any serious epidemic attack in recent years. There is also a veterinary dispensary conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad. Drains are all *kutcā* ones. A few sets of public latrines have been installed in the town. Wells, private and municipal, form the source of water supply. However, the residential colony that has grown around the colliery is provided with piped water by the company at its own cost. This colony provides quarters mostly for the workers and other employees of the colliery.

Education: Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is implemented by the municipality. Besides the primary schools, one high school is also conducted by the municipality. There are about three more high schools in Ballārpūr which are privately managed. The municipality is planning to set up a library. Most of the primary school buildings including that of the municipal high school are of municipal propriety.

On Camārghāṭ along Wardhā river and by the side of the colliery, the municipality has maintained a cremation ground with shed and other necessary facilities. There are four burial grounds located in different sections which, however, are maintained by the communities concerned.

History.

Ballārpūr in ancient times was a royal city, and in the ruins of the fort and its palace, still retains the memorials of its past greatness. It is said to have been founded by the Goṇḍ King Khāndkyā Ballāl Śāh (1437-62) who succeeded to the throne on the death of Śer Śāh, his father. He was also the founder of the Candrapūr town. This king was so afflicted by tumours and boils that he was an offence to his wives as well as the court, only the wise and the beautiful Hīrātalnī, his queen remaining faithful to him and bearing him company. She induced him to leave Śirpūr and erect a fort and a palace on the opposite bank of the river Wardhā where in retirement she tended him with care till his happy recovery. An interesting legend is related about the miraculous recovery of the king which had defied every medicine, as also how Cāndā came to be founded. It is worth quoting here. The legend tells that one day the king went hunting

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north-west of Bal'ālpūr and on becoming thirsty rode up to the dry bed of Jharpaṭ, looking for water. He soon found some in a hole and after quench'ng his thirst washed his face, hands and feet. And that night, for the first time in many years, he slept soundly. Next morning Hīrātalnī was gladdened to see that many of the ulcers had disappeared, for all parts touched by the waters of the previous day had become whole. On the king's relating the happening on the previous day she entreated h'm to take her there. Accordingly they proceeded to that spot and on clearing grass and sand d'scovered five foot-prints of a cow in the solid rock each filled with water, and the strange thing was that, take how much one would, the water would not diminish. Thus was discovered the Acaleśvar *Tīrth* which had been fixed to the spot in the *Tretā Yuga*. Hardly had the king taken a bath with that water when all the ulcers and tumours disappeared. The Royal party encamped near the place that night and in the vis'ons of sleep Acaleśvar appeared to the king, and spoke comfortingly. On hearing the dream, the queen advised the erection of a temple on the spot and the king approving of the idea sent h's officers to get skilled artificers for the work. He took a great interest in its progress and visited it daily. The legend about the founding of the city of Candrapūr has been quoted under Candrapūr town.

To return to the ma'n story, the fort as well as the settlement that grew up around it came to be known after the king as Ballālpūr or the city of Ballāl. Though a new palace came to be built at Candrapūr during the reign of Khāṇḍkyā's successor, and the seat of government was transferred there, Ballārpūr appears to have been a secondary royal residence for several centuries. Here in 1751 A.D. Nilkaṇṭha Śāh, the last of the Goṇḍ Kings d'ed in imprisonment, and in 1790 the pa'ace was repaired by Nānā Sāheb Bhosle. To-day the fort, with the exception of a few walls which still stand erect defying wind and rain for centuries, has fallen into ru'ns. The gateway is very picturesque and inside the fort the outlines of the ancient palace can be traced with ease. Within the palace are two tunnels with entrances a few feet apart which branching off in opposite directions, lead each to a set of three underground chambers, one of which communicates with the entrance from the river or the water gate. When these chambers were explored in 1865 A.D. some ancient copper coins and rusted iron rings were found. There is also a perpendicular shaft the object of which has not been ascertained. It is told that one of the tunnels communicates with the palace in Candrapūr the entrance to which is said to be in a well in the courtyard. This tunnel has its passage virtually blocked at the entrance and now no one enters it due to p'tchy darkness inside. From the water gate a staircase leads up the rampart wall where there are spacious stone platforms from where an enchanting view of the river can be had. The scene looks all the more beautiful when the river is in floods. The foundations of the ancient city can still be traced for a considerable distance in the surrounding jungle, indeed as far as the ruined palace on the tank band. Remains of old stone buildings are also found as far as Junona. North of the town is a large and elaborately constructed tank, which probably owing to the caving in of its under channels does not retain water. On an islet in the Wardhā is Rāma *tirtha*, an exceedingly curious rock temple, which during several months of the year remains fathoms under water. In 1866 it was thoroughly cleaned and explored. In Sāṣṭī, a village in Rājura tahsil on the opposite bank of the Wardhā are three caves cut in the rock, each of which contains a Śiva *liṅga*. A leaden image of Keśavnāth plated with gold formerly stood in a small house under a *neem* tree in front of the palace. In 1818 during the Wars of the British with Āppā Sāheb this idol was stolen. Four years later a *Kamavisdār* by name Pungpaṭel More presented a stone image in place of the stolen metal one, and Mr. Crawford who was superintendent sanctioned an allowance for the temple. East of the village by the side of the Siroñcā-Āllapallī road, amidst overgrown jungles, lies the temple tomb of Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh in a neglected state. It is locally called the temple of Kharji and some ignorant fortune-seeker has removed the gravestones in the hope of striking buried wealth and left the hollow open. In front of it, at his feet, as is meet, is the tomb enclosing the ashes of his wife, the loving and the faithful Hīrātalnī, noblest and wisest of the queens of Candrapūr. Near her lowly and unpretentious tomb is a stone on wh.ch are carved the representations of 84 feet arranged in pairs. These are said to be commemorating the 42 other wives of Khāṇḍkya, who made amends to their neglect of him in life, by performing *satī* at his death. Behind the monument is an unnamed tomb said to be that of a 44th wife. The tomb of Hīrātalnī is falling fast into ru'ns. Some plants have already taken roots and all these remains may disappear altogether before long. Alongside the tomb of Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh is a plain platform without a superstructure or ornamentation. It is said to be the tomb of the unfortunate Nīlkaṇṭh Śāh, the last of the Goṇḍ Kings who ruled Cāndā. Thus here side by side in death, in one of the strangest ironies of history, lie the noble founder of Candrapur and his degenerate and dishonoured descendant from whose unworthy grasp the sceptre of the Goṇḍ Kings slipped.

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Ballārpūr has a police station and a post and telegraph office. Sunday is the weekly bazar day where cattle are also sold.

BHADRAWATI.

Bhadravati or Bhāndak is a large and flourishing village in Waroḍā tahsil of Candrapūr district lying some 25.74 km. (16 miles) north-west of Candrapūr and 16 km. south-east of Waroḍā, on the Candrapūr-Waroḍā-Nāgpūr road. Its ancient name was Bhadrāvatī which was later changed to Bhāndak by which name it continued to be known until 1940 in which year its original name was restored. It was done at the request of the Jain community of Candrapūr whose place of worship Bhadrāvatī has now become. In fact Bhadrāvatī to-day is better known

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to the general public as a place of Jain religious importance than for its historical importance or for that matter its archaeological remains. Though the name of the village itself has been changed, the railway station lying about 3.21 km. (two miles) north of the main settlement continues to retain the name Bhandak.

It occupies the top of a low broad plateau of rock thickly covered with soil. The population in 1961 was 5,492. The village is long and straggling extending over one and a half kilometres in length and now contains only 1,219 households, but in former days must have been a large and prosperous place extending about three and a quarter kilometres from north to south and over one and a half kilometres from east to west. It is one of the oldest settlements in the district and is closely connected with some of the mythological stories told in *Mahābharata*. Numerous antiquarian remains of the times of Buddhism and Jainism found here throw much light on the spread of these faiths among the people. We are told that in ancient times Bhadravati was a beautiful city with running streams and strewn with lakes and temples; but time has reduced it to a village now. It is supposed to be identical with the great city of Bhadravati referred to in the *Mahabharata* extending from Bhatala in the north to Jharpat river on the south and the scene of battle for the Śyamkarna horse which was eventually borne away by Bhima, the second Panday, for the performance of *Aśvamedha* sacrifice by Dharmaraja, the king. The story told is that Bhadravati was the capital of the King Yauvanaśva, who owned a horse by name Śyamkarna. Bhīma who came along with Meghavarna and Ṛṣiketu to take away the horse was asked to desist from doing so upon which a battle ensued in which Yauvanaśva was defeated and Śyamkarna taken to Hastinapūr (the capital of the Pandvas), the modern Delhi. This sacrifice has been described at length in a separate work devoted to the subject named *Jaimini Aśvamedha*.

The architectural remains in and around the village are of remote antiquity and great interest. Among the principal ones there is the old fort, which is on the west side of the village and is partly ruined, only the entrance gate remaining in a fairly good condition. Inside are found idols and images of deities, Bodhisatvas, *Yakṣas*, flying *gandharvas* or heavenly choristers, some broken, others intact. At a short distance to the south of the village is the temple of Bhadranag. It was rebuilt in the early 1880's partly from the materials of the old temple and partly with fresh materials. It is in a good condition and its entrance is flanked by two lion statues. A small courtyard and a *dharmaśala*, the latter of which was built by Hayagriva Swami of Candā, are attached to it. Many old sculptures are built into the front wall, and lie loose about the courtyard such as Ganapati, Varāha, Viṣṇu, Lakṣmi-Narayana, Śiva-Parvati and many more. The object of worship is the Naga and there is a belief that on the annual fair day, *Mahāśivrātra*, a live white snake makes its appearance in the temple. In the temple premises

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were discovered two inscription slabs, one of which was in a very curious character and hence undecipherable. In its environment there is an old stepped well. On the south of the village and adjoining it is a rock-cut cave now mostly filled with earth and rubble. It is unfinished and consists of a long verandah supported outwardly by two heavy, massive octagonal pillars. On the back wall are three unfinished cells. A ten-handed Devi has been installed in the cell at the north end. About a mile and a half to the north-west of the village in the hill of Wijasan is a very curiously planned Buddhist Cave. A long gallery is driven straight into the hill to a distance of 21·64 metres (71 ft.) at the end of which is a shrine containing a colossal Buddha in *padmasana* on a bench. On the right and left of the entrance to this gallery, other galleries one on either side are driven in at right angles to this first one, and each of these has a shrine and colossal Buddha in a similar pose. These are now lying in a much defaced and disfigured state. Local legend has it that the central Buddha is Pandu, that on the right his son and on the left his nephew. On the scarped side of the approach to the entrances to these galleries is a much erased inscription. Another belonging to the ninth century has been removed to the Nagpur museum. To the east of the village near the main road is a lake by name Dolara spread over an approximate area of 16 to 17 acres. In its centre stands an island which is connected with the mainland by an old bridge constructed of massive columns in two rows with great heavy beams spanning the tops of these both transversely and longitudinally. Its length is about 130 ft. and width nearly 7' 2". From the lake were discovered numerous idols of different deities belonging to different religious faiths. There are numerous images lying about among them a collection of beautiful Jain images, the Śeṣa or serpent god on which Viṣṇu reclines and a very significant image of the skeleton goddess Mahakali lying at the old ruined temple of Caṇḍika Devi which is represented with three heads and six hands. This is a most unusual representation. Nearabout this temple lie scattered many broken images which once must have been fine pieces of art. On one of its walls there is a much erased inscription.

Today Bhadravati is known as a centre of Jain pilgrimage on account of the imposing and majestic temple of Parsvanatha with a *dharmaśala* attached to it. It is said that before the year 1910 the place where the temple stands was a jungle infested area with the temple fragments scattered all over the place. One day a missionary padre stumbled across the huge Parsvanatha image half buried under ground. The discovery was reported and the archaeological department took possession of it. Later still one Śri Caturbhujbhai Ponjabhai Sompur was told in a vision to find the idol at Bhadravati and make arrangement for its housing. The idol then was [illegible] along with 21 acres of land from the government and as the more affluent amongst the Jains the present temple was

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surface ensures rapid drainage, and sanitation is good, the streets presenting an unusually clean appearance. The tahsil buildings together with the police station house, civil court, *pañcāyat samiti* office, maternity home, state bank's branch, electricity office, branch of district central co-operative bank and the high school stand in a very congested group on the site of what one used to be the town fort but no longer, 'a spacious square' as described by Major Lucie Smith from which the whole of the surrounding country is seen 'stretched out'. There is an agriculture produce market committee which helps the agriculturists to get a fair price for their produce. There are three tanks *viz.*, the Kot *talāv*, the Lendhā and the Bāraī tanks which together irrigate nearly 60.73 hectares (150 acres) of land. The embankment of the Kot *talāv* consists of solid rock. Several of the manufactures of the village have acquired a considerable celebrity. Its shoes and carts are widely known outside the district. Once good cotton fabrics and copper and brass ware also used to be manufactured but the art seems to have been lost due to lack of demand. There are also two *bidī* factories. On Fridays a large weekly bazar attended by well over one thousand persons is held. Of educational institutions there are five primary and middle schools, three high schools and a college. There is a combined post and telegraph office, a telephone exchange and a rest house. A hamlet, not too distant, known as Peṭh is attached to the village. There is a cinema theatre here. On *Caitra Paurṇimā* day a fair known as *Ghoḍā* fair is held in the village. Brahmapurī, however, suffers from inadequacy of drinking water.

BRAHMAPURI.

CHAMORSHI.

Cāmorśī is an important village in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil whose name was originally derived by the philologists of the neighbouring village from "Camār Vāsī" or the abode of the Cāmbhārs. It is settled near the left bank of the Waingangā about 1.60 km. (a mile) to the south of the curve which that river takes northwards at Mārkaṇḍā, and is 70.81 km. (44 miles) east of Cāndā, and 38.62 km. (24 miles) south of Gaḍhcirolī. The village was severely affected by the famine of 1900 in which about one fifth of the inhabitants either perished or migrated. In 1961 the population was 4,872. About half of the total cultivators belong to Sāo Telī caste and the stone brushwood fences round their houses give the village the air of squalid bucolic prosperity that seems associated with the Sāo Telīs. Being situated on a low-lying ground it is converted into a veritable quagmire during the monsoons. It is also terribly congested as the rice fields lying all around prevent its expansion. The land is well irrigated and although there are six tanks and a large number of irrigation-wells, the villagers complain that there is not enough water for sugarcane plantation. The water of Cāmorśī is excellent and there are a large number of wells together with tanks supplying potable water. The Saturday bazar held here was very important in the past being attended by traders from considerable distances, but the rising fortunes

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of the Talodhī bazar has diminished its importance. Talodhī is a small village 6.43 km. (four miles) distant from Cāmorśī and owes its rise to some far-seeing forefather of the hamlet who planted a spacious and shady mango grove on the edge of a tank, thus placing side by side two indispensable requisites for an open bazar *viz.*, cool shade and plenty of water. Though Talodhī has succeeded in attracting a large number of traders and buyers from Cāmorśī, yet a considerable trade in tobacco and groceries is still carried on at Cāmorśī. The tasar silk industry of the place is in the hands of *Koshatis*, but due to lack of encouragement it is on the decline. Cotton fabrics, on a small scale, are also woven. Cāmorśī has a primary health centre with an attached family planning unit, a post, a police station and primary and middle schools. It is also the headquarters of a block development centre. The temples of the village are important neither architecturally nor from the point of view of antiquity. It is recorded that there was a group of 20 kistvaens or cromlechs, which disappeared before long. Now nothing is seen of the stone circles. The people here believe that they would not have a good season until the ruined temple of Śiva on the tank band is repaired, but strangely enough, the shrine continues to remain in that condition.

CHAMORSHI.

CHANDRAPUR.

Candapūr, with in 1961 a population of 1,100, is a small village in Candrapūr tahsil lying about eight kilometres (five miles) east of Mūl. It has a temple of Mahādev in the *Hemāḍpanti* style, but it is now in utter ruins. The village has a primary school, a post and a medical practitioner. Drinking water is obtained from the wells. However, acute scarcity is felt during summer.

CHANDRAPUR.

Candrapūr, the headquarters of the district to which it gives its name, is the largest city in the district and is situated 761 feet above sea level in 19° 57′ north latitude and 79° 22′ east longitude. In 1961 it had a population of 51,484. Tradition and legends tell that in *Kṛta Yuga* the name of this place was Lokapura and its extent much wider than what it is to-day. In *Dvāpāra Yuga*, during the reign of one *Rājā* Candrahāsa its name was changed to Indupur and still later as Candrapūr or the city of the moon. During the period of the British *Rāj*, Candrapūr came to be called as Cāndā for no particular reason perhaps because the short form was more convenient and continued to be so called until 1964 when its name was officially changed to Candrapur again. In spite of the restoration of the name it is still known to the general public as Cāndā. *Purāṇas* mention the town as having been founded by Kṛtadhvaja *Rājā*, but modern Candrapūr has grown out of the foundations laid by Khāṇḍkyā Ballāl Śāh, the Goṇḍ King, about the year 1450 A.D. The city practically lies in the angle formed by the junction of the Erai and the Jharpaṭ rivers and is surrounded by a continuous line of battlements over seven miles in length which constitutes the most striking example of Goṇḍ methods of fortification which has come down to the present age. Out-

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built. The temple is very well maintained with its floors paved with marble walls panelled with beautiful paintings and entrance door-frames plated with silver richly ornamented with creeper and other delicate patterns. Its main entrance is flanked by two huge elephant figures and the *śikhar* painted and decorated with figure-filled niches and temple replicas. The idol in *padmāsana* posture is about six feet tall and is elegantly adorned by gold ornaments. Fine gardens have been laid out and maintained around the temple. A trust looks after the management. It is visited by the Jains from all over India. The fairs celebrated in honour of Parsvanatha are largely attended.

Not far away from the main road is the Gauraja hamlet where is a ruined shrine of Ganapati on a hill top. The idol is broken and hollow and is believed to have contained gold inside. It is also said that it was the one worshipped by Lauvanāsva Raja. All these remains speak of the glorious period which Bhandak or Bhadravati once enjoyed.

However Bhandak has assumed importance all the more because of the setting up of an ordnance factory supplying munitions to the armed forces of the country. It was begun in 1963 and completed within a period of three years. It has provided a large number of skilled and unskilled persons with employment. A large number of refugees from East Pakistan have been rehabilitated here. The village is surrounded except on the west by *pan* gardens, tanks, old groves and jungle, towards the west the country is bare, but the barrenness is redeemed by the picturesque temple crowning the hill of Wijasan. There is a large community of Barais and Dhimars here who take a special interest in the cultivation of *pan* (betel-leaves) and *haḷad* (turmeric). A brisk trade is carried on in these commodities. Rice is also grown successfully. An annual fair in honour of Bhadranaga Svami is held in *Magha* and lasts for about three weeks. This formerly ranked next to the Mahakāli fair at Candā, but its commercial importance declined owing to the competition of the fair held at Wun. The Bhadrāvati fair is now largely religious, and is attended by nearly 2,000 persons, including the traders who sell provisions to the pilgrims. In February 1908 Bhandak became a railway station when Waroḍa-Canda railway was opened for traffic. Bhadravati has a high school, besides the primary schools, a post office, a primary health centre and a veterinary dispensary. A family planning centre has also been set up. There is also a training school imparting training in the craft of pottery. A weekly bazar is held on Wednesdays.

BHATALA.

Bhaṭāḷa, with in 1961, 985 inhabitants is a village in Waroḍa tahsil lying 16 km. (ten miles) to the north of Waroḍa town. It is supposed to have formed a part of the ancient Bhadravati which later came to be known as Bhandak. On a hill in the vicinity of the village are the remains of a very fine antique temple, in good preservation. These have been protected under the Ancient Monuments Act. The outer walls are severely

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plain, the only ornamentation being three large images in niches around the shrines and one on each side of the ante-chamber. They contain the images of Śiva, Parvati and Kartikeya upon his peacock. Until lately in the four quarters of the village four ancient temples of Makardhvaja, the warden of the boundaries, could be distinguished. There is yet another temple in the village into the front walls of which are built many images. However, the temple is not of much consequence and it is falling into decay for want of maintenance. Bhatala has a sub-post office and a middle school. Wells and a large tank supply drinking water. Saturday is the weekly bazar day.

BHEJGAON.

Bhejgaṅv, with in 1961, 2,087 inhabitants is an agricultural village in Candrapur tahsil lying eight kilometres (five miles) south of Mul. It contains a temple of Mahadeva built in the *Hemāḍpanti* style. The temple to-day is in utter ruins. There is a primary school and a post office. Despite the fact that the village has three sources of water supply viz., wells, river and a tank, still it runs short of water during the latter half of summer. A weekly bazar is held on Fridays.

BHISI.

Bhisi, with a population of 5,365 as per the 1961 Census, is largely an agricultural village in Waroḍa tahsil lying about 17.70 km. (eleven miles) north of Cimur. The village lands are well irrigated and the principal crops are paddy and groundnut. There are a few rice and oil mills. Bhisi has a high school besides primary schools, a post office, a police station, and an allopathic dispensary catering to the medical needs of the people. Drinking water is obtained from the wells, most of which go dry during the latter part of summer. Weekly bazar is held on Saturdays. Bhisi is an iron ore mining centre. The iron contents of the ore are estimated to be 69 per cent.

BRAHMAPURI.

Brahmapuri, the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, is situated in the extreme north-west of the tahsil and lies about 123.91 km. (77 miles) from Candrapur to the north-east. In 1961 it had a population of 8,532. As a centre of administration for the tahsil, it is geographically almost as badly placed as Canda is as the headquarters of the whole district, and the desirability of shifting the tahsil headquarters had frequently been mooted in the past when the means of transport and communications were bad. However, in recent years the rapid strides made in the improvement of communications have removed its natural disadvantages, and the railway on the narrow gauge connecting it with Canda, has placed it within easy reach of the most remote villages of the tahsil. By road Brahmapuri is linked up to the west with Nagpur *via* Naghbid, as also with the Mul-Candrapur road *via* Talodhi. It is also connected with Armori and Gadhciroli southwards, the latter place being situated on the Candrapur-Mul-Gadhciroli-Dhanora road which terminates at Murumgaṅv. The village itself is pleasantly situated on red gravelly soil, through which the rock frequently appears and is a favourite residence for the well-to-do people of the neighbourhood. The closeness of the rock to the

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side the walls and extending up to the Wardha-Kāzipeth railway line lie the suburbs of *Baoṇipeṭh, Lapeṭh, Go'peṭh, Bhiwapūr, Hivapūr* and the like. A few inhabitations have crossed the railway line too. In short the town is gradually spilling outside the fort walls. The fort walls have a number of gates and windows and the walls on the western side protect the town from the Erai floods. Viewed from within the city presents a pleasing appearance giving the general impression of space and verdure. However, the living quarters within the walls are heavily congested. The main road, ruled in mathematically straight lines from the *Jatpura* to *Pathanpura* gate bisects the city from north to south and forms a moderately well shaped thoroughfare such as few, if any other, towns in the district can boast. Various other well made and drained roads link up the various gates, wickets and main lines of traffic with each other, but there is no thoroughfare from east to west corresponding to the main road. There are some magnificent trees in the town which constitute the main charm of Canda. This phase of the city and its surroundings are seen at its best along the Ballarpūr road for a distance of a mile beyond the Acaiesvar gate. Here the road runs through jungles studded with countless tamarind trees. The appearance of the city from the outside has consistently been described by observers as picturesque in the extreme. Major Lucie Smith described Candrapur as follows: "Dense forest stretches to the north and east; on the south rise the blue ranges of the Maṇikdurg, and westward opens a cultivated rolling country with distant hills. Set in this picture, sweep the long lines of fortress wall, now seen, now lost among great groves of ancient trees; in front glitters the broad expanse of the Ramala tank; and the Jharpaṭ and the Erai gird on either side". It is difficult to differ with most of the details of this picture but the general impression given is a little too exaggerated. The picturesqueness of Canda lies in no *coup d' oeil* of the city as a whole, but in its details. The city wall for instance, seen from the north-west whence the most comprehensive view of it may be obtained, is lost in insignificance amid a vast expanse of flat and usually bare plain to which the extremely distant ranges of the Maṇikdurg provide but a poor foil, while by the ordinary approach to it along the Warora road it is not visible at all until the spectator has swung round a bend within a stone's throw of the *Jatpura* gate and then he only sees a small section. The new approach by the railway which gives a good view of the Ramala tank and the city wall behind it, is more favourable. But while it may waive her claim to any particular pretensions to beauty when considered from a bird's-eye point of view, Canda need yield to no place in this part of India in the charm of her forests which reach up on the east and south to her very gates.

The Candrapūr town occupies a site that is underlain by coal-bearing rock formations, and a number of collieries dot the surface with their waste mounds along the rims of the town. The most important of the collieries is the Hindusthan Lalpeth Colliery situated on the outskirts of Candrapūr city and on the highway which links Delhi-Madras both by rail and road. Other mines are those at Mahakali and Ravvatvari. Besides coal, Candrapur district as a whole has invaluable and rich mineral deposits like iron, limestone, silica, ochres, clay and sand. Due to the abundance of iron ore and coal deposits it was felt that Candrapur should have a steel mill but a survey undertaken indicated that the coal available is of non-coking variety and hence the project had to be abandoned. However, a private company has been allowed to set up a pig-iron plant. The plant is estimated to cost about fifteen crores of rupees. Apart from its administrative importance as the district headquarters, the town derives its importance also from its glass works and hand-loom weaving of mixed silk and cotton textiles. It is also a timber mart and trade centre for forest produce. Its mineral resources coupled with the forest wealth forebode a bright future for the town. Once dyeing industry carried on by the Rangaris thrived well here, but to-day it is almost extinct. Ornamental slippers are made in various patterns with silk thread stitched on leather. Bamboo work is also done by Buruds who make fans, boxes and baskets in fancy colours. Gold and silver ornaments, made here of a peculiar pattern, are of some repute. The town has a few ginning and pressing factories, oil mills, rice mills, and a tile manufacturing factory. An industrial estate is being set up along Candrapūr-Tadobā road. There is an agriculture market produce committee handling large quantities of rice, cotton, jowar and many other commodities.

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Considering the backwardness of this tract Canda has excellent means of transport and communications which have helped in the acceleration of all-round development of the town and the district as a whole. It is a major railway station on the Delhi-Madras section. Another line connecting it with Nagbhīd bifurcates and runs to Nagpūr and Gondia respectively. Candrapūr is also linked by road not only with all the tahsil headquarters and other important places but also with many other important commercial centres outside the district. On the north-western side of the town near the Erai river there is an air field. There are post and telegraph facilities and a telephone exchange. In spite of these it is felt that there should be more roads and railway lines in the forested areas in order to exploit the forest and mineral wealth more economically and profitably.

Municipality.

Candrapur was constituted a municipality in 1867. Its jurisdiction extends over an area of eleven square miles. The municipal committee is composed of 30 elected and three co-opted members. It is presided over by a president who is elected by the members from amongst themselves.

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Finance: The total municipal receipts for the year 1965-66, including an amount of Rs. 4,24,468 received due to extra-ordinary and debt heads and Rs. 59,361 as the opening balance, amounted to Rs. 19,15,946. Other sources of income were municipal rates and taxes as Rs. 8,29,088; realisation under special acts Rs. 7,814; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 2,56,128; miscellaneous Rs. 51,133 and grants and contributions received from the government Rs. 2,87,954. Expenditure during the same year, including Rs. 2,10,731 incurred due to extra-ordinary and debt heads stood at Rs 18,43,897. Item-wise expenditure was: general administration and collection charges Rs. 1,71,962; public safety Rs. 1,18,296; public health and convenience Rs. 9,43,701; public instruction Rs. 3,89,168; contributions for general purposes Rs. 4,520 and miscellaneous Rs. 5,519.

Health, Sanitation and Water Supply: Candrapūr has a well equipped civil hospital and a dispensary, both of which are maintained by the government. The hospital is headed by a Civil Surgeon and has 78 beds. In its general ward, free medical aid is rendered to the poor. Zilla Parisad maintains a veterinary dispensary which besides treating the animals and birds works towards the production of a healthy breed of cattle. At present a major part of the town has stone-lined *pucvā* gutters, the outlying areas having only *kūchā* drains. The town will soon have underground drainage system for which a plan is under preparation. Cimda town has tap water supply. The water-works were installed at a cost of Rs 20,00,000. The municipality is planning to have a filtration plant in the absence of which people get muddy water during the monsoons.

Education: Primary education is compulsory. It is conducted by the Zilla Parisad. In 1965-66, the net municipal contribution towards this end amounted to Rs. 3,89,168. Candrapūr town affords facilities for education up to the graduate level, there being nearly ten high schools of which one is a multi-purpose high school and one college having educational facilities in the faculties of Arts, Science and Commerce. Most of the schools, with the exception of one or two are private institutions. There is also a technical school of the I.T.I. The B.Ed. and the S.T.C. colleges, one each, are conducted by the government. There are two public libraries of which one is maintained by the municipality.

A small fire brigade consisting of one fire fighter and the necessary equipment serves the purpose of fire fighting. The cremation and burial grounds of which there are six, two each for Muslims, Christians and Hindus, are all maintained by the respective communities.

In Gole Bazar area a large vegetable market has been provided. There is also a meat market in the Ekori ward. Besides the Āzād garden, which is perhaps the best in the town, there is

another in Harijan Cowk. An open air theatre and a play ground for children are also maintained by the municipality.

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Within the municipal limits there are six fair sized tanks known respectively as Ramala, Lendha'a, Ghurkala and the Gaori, Lal and Koner *talavs*. The chief of these is the Rāmala tank which was built by Khandkya Ballal Śāh at the time of laying the foundations of the town-wall. It runs along the north-east section of the wall and was renovated and repaired with fine stone ghats by Rām Śāh who named it after him. Its embankment provides an excellent promenade popular with those citizens who have acquired the fashion of taking the air. It was Ram Śāh again who supplied the city with water from this tank by laying pipes. The water is now no longer generally used for drinking purposes as *singhārā* is cultivated in the tank by Dhimars, but the round towers or *Kathoris* which occur at intervals along the pipelines and serve as stand-pipes, as well as affording means to divert the water to small reservoirs, may still be seen dotted about at intervals in the city. The expanse of the Ramala tank is about 158 acres. To the north of the *talav*, Ram Śāh had laid out a garden and named it Rambāg which is no more in existence.

Objects of Interest.

The city possesses several architectural features of interest. The object that attracts the attention most is the walls around the town. The walls are surmounted by a heavy looking crenellated parapet, they are ten feet in thickness, and within runs a broad rampart broken down in places but on the whole in fair preservation. Four gates pierce the circuit, one to the north called *Jatpurā*, *Vinhā* or *Ghor* maidan to the west, Acaleśvar to the east and *Pathanpura* to the south. In addition to these there are five wicket gates or *Khirkis* named *Cor*, Vitholba, Hanumant, *Masan* and *Bagad*. Legend tells an interesting story as to how the wall came to be built and the city founded. Khandkya Ballal Śāh had ordered the erection of a temple to Acaleśvar and one morning, after his daily visit was riding away when a hare darted out of a bush and put up his dog, which fled. Astonished at the sight, he followed the dog ran in a wide circle while the hare took zig-zag cuts to catch it. At one point it closed with the dog which, however, shook it off and continued its flight. On nearing the point where the chase had commenced the dog turned on and killed the hare and the king then saw that on the forehead of the latter was marked a white spot. Pondering over what this might mean he rode home and recounted whatever had happened to his queen. That wise woman counselled that the occurrence was a good omen and that a fortified city should be built within the circuit of the chase, with walls following the hare's track. She further advised that special bastions should be erected, at that where the hare had closed with the dog and where the dog had killed the hare, expressing her belief that the latter point would prove the point of danger to the future city. The king lost no time in giving effect to her suggestions: a trench was cut along the

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hare's track, which was easily discernible by the foot-prints of the king's horse; then gates and bastions were planned, the whole marked out and the foundation commenced; the work being under the Rajput Officers of the king, called Tel Ṭhākūrs. Thus began the building of the city of Cānda or Candrapūr. The construction of the rampart wall was completed by Dhundiā Ballal Śah who also erected many other buildings. It would be interesting to note that the wall was breached by the Britishers in 1818 at the point declared as dangerous by the queen of Khaṇdkyā Ballāl Śāh. The construction of the wall was completed during the reign of Duṇḍiā Rām Śāh (1597—1622). These walls were probably founded about the 15th Century although legend would assign a date two centuries earlier to the founder. They were kept in repairs by the Marāṭhās and after a long neglect by the British were restored by the government. The walls now remain and are preserved as an example of Gond fortification. The gateways offer good specimen of Gond Art.

Close to the Acaleśvar gate and standing in a separate walled enclosure forming a kind of an inner fort, stand a group of buildings known as Gond *Rājās'* tombs. The largest and the best is that of Bīr Śāh, reputed to be the 17th of the line. The tomb stands on a plinth of nearly 15 ft. high approached by a flight of ten, ten feet long stone stairs. The whole is 40′ × 40′ × 60′ and is crowned with a dome-like *śikhar*. Replicas of the same are set in the four corners. It is a solid construction and though nearly 300 years have elapsed since its construction it is in a perfectly good condition. The building is generally criticised as too heavy in appearance but it does not fail to have a very pleasing effect, and is a welcome sight to the eye wearied of the constant reiteration of the *Hemādbantī* style. In the same outer enclosure, but separated from the tombs by a partition wall, is the Acaleśvar temple, the walls of which are covered by multitudinous small sculptured panels. The legends relating to the founding of this temple are recorded in the chapter on history. The original temple was built by Khaṇdkyā Ballāl Śāh but in 17th century at the time of building the Mahakalī temple, Rāṇī Hirāī demolished the old ruined temple of Acaleśvar and built a new one in its place. A hundred years later about the year 1790 A.D. was constructed the *sabhāmaṇḍap* by Vyaṅkoji Bhosle. It is believed that a lakh of rupees found in the house of one deceased Brāhman by name Rāmājī Handvā were utilised in the construction of the *maṇḍap* and a well near the temple. It is further said that the Ramala *talav* was also repaired by him out of that amount. Time has not affected the structure in the slightest. What is now the jail was formerly the citadel; it contains a large many-galleried well and an underground passage which is popularly supposed to emerge in the fort of Ballārpūr. The town has a temple of Vithobā which is pleasingly carved with elaborate designs in pink stone.

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About half a mile to the west of the railway and surrounded by dense jungles near the *Lāl Peṭh*, stands a group of large stone figures locally called Rāvaṇ and commonly known as the *Lāl-peṭh* monoliths. These are more remarkable for their size than for their artistic excellence. Sixteen in number they lie on the ground in the open arranged in a sort of rough circle around a *liṅga* of Śiva. They must have been carved *in situ* out of the living rock, as many of them are much too heavy to be moved. The largest of the images is that of ten-headed Durgā, which measures 25′ × 18′ and is estimated to weigh nothing short of 57 tons. The Durgā sculpture is broken at the waist and has been temporarily joined by pouring cement in the crack. The bull nandi and Vishnu's fish and tortoise incarnations are among the more prominent of the other figures. Just below the Durgā image there is a fifteen feet high image of Mahiśāsurmardinī. There is also a huge four-handed Śaṅkar image. The popular legend connected with these sculptures is that in the reign of Dhundiā Rām Śah there lived a wealthy Komṭī by name Rāyappa who conceived the idea of doing some memorable act. He accordingly had these monoliths carved intending to place them in a temple of Śiva. Unfortunately he died before he could build the temple and the monoliths are lying to-day where he left them uncared for and unprotected. Between these monoliths and the town is a well, in the interior of which are built in some rather good sculptured stones. Close to *Lāl-peṭh* is *Babūpeṭh* in which there are some temples, one of which contains some uncommon statues of various gods and goddesses, such as Agni, Indra etc. Among these, the most noteworthy is a three legged figure placed in a niche which may be meant either for a *Vedic* God Tripād or for a fever demon, a Gaṇa or attendant of Śiva. Yet another antiquarian feature which requires notice is an old well of the shape of a conch shell (*śaṅkha*). In the reservoir there is a temple of *Pañcāyatana*. It was built by Bāpūjī Vaidya, the *Divāṇ* of Hirābāī or by one of his predecessors.

Another temple belonging to antiquity and worthy of notice is that of Mahākālī, situated across the Jharpaṭ river about a furlong's distance from the Acaleśvar gate. The original temple is said to have been built by Khāṇdkyā Ballāl Śāh at the time of building the Acaleśvar temple, the present one being built by Rāṇī Hīrāī in commemoration of the victory of her husband, Bīrśāh, gained over their son-in-law. It so happened that Bīrśah and Hīrāī had a daughter who was given in marriage to Durgāśāh *alias* Durgpāl, the prince of Devgaḍ. This prince so insulted his wife that she returned to her parents upon which Bīrśāh vowed to punish him, praying the goddess Mahakali that in the event of success he would present her with Durgaśāh's head and construct a bigger temple. When Bīrśāh advanced with his army Durgāśāh came forward to challenge him and in the battle that ensued, the latter was defeated and killed. His head was severed and presented to the goddess

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ceremoniously. Later, about 1650, when Hirai constructed the temple, a stone head of Durgāśāh was fixed on the temple in order to perpetuate the memory of the victory. It faces north. The whole is 54 feet square and 60 feet high including the pinnacle, and is built in a magnificent Gondī style bearing a great resemblance to the Mogha' style of architecture. In a cellar about six feet deep and 18 feet square is a five feet image of the goddess armed with a sword and a shield. Behind this cellar there is a chamber containing the bedstead of the goddess. Two winding stir-cases lead up on the terrace affording a fine view of the meandering course of the Jharpat and a part of the town. Hirai also instituted a fair which is held on *Caitra Paurnima* to the present day. It lasts for a week and is attended by over 25,000 devotees coming from Vidarbha and Marāthwāda regions. Candrapūr has also temples dedicated to Ekvīrā, Gaṇapati, Mahadev, Māruti etc. Of these the temple of Ekvīra, now known as Ekorī, commemorates the visit of goddess Renukā of Mahur. It was built by Hirai. The Gaṇapati temple, whose construction was said to have been begun by Bīrśāh and brought to completion by his queen Hirai after his death, lies in a neglected state. Though the temple is quite big there is none to look after it and hence it has become a resort of the cattle and sheep. Along the main road there is a fairly large church maintained by the Scottish Episcopalian Mission. It also maintains one or two orphanages.

Candrapūr, being the headquarters of the district, is the seat of the Collector with the allied revenue offices. Since the establishment of the Zilla Parishad a spacious modern building has been constructed to house its various offices. The district has the richest forest wealth and the largest proportion of and extent of the forests in the state and hence there are eight divisional forest officers posted at Candrapūr. It has the office of the Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications Department which maintains a fine rest house as also a circuit house. It is the headquarters of the Police force in the district and has a District and Sessions Court.

CHIMUR. Cimūr, a large and thriving village in Warodā tahsil lying about 77·24 km (48 miles) north of Candrapūr and 53·10 km. (33 miles) distant from Warodā, is situated on the Pāṛalgaṅgā or the Umā, a tributary of the Andhārī. The layout of the village is excellent and in 1961 had 7,005 inhabitants. The inhabitants are mostly Marathas with a sprinkling of Telugu traders and artisans. There is also a strong body of Brāhmans attracted hither by the religious associations of the place. Cimūr in ancient days was counted among the important places of Hindu pilgrimage. In the bygone days Cimūr had a fort whose existence is indicated by a large mound and to which a reference is to be found in the list of the old forts of Madhya Pradesh. However, the importance of Cimūr lies in the antique temple of Bālāji which has a great reputation, and the *Ghoḍā* ceremony

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which is held two days prior to the annual fair. It is said that the image of Viṣṇu or Balaji was discovered by one Bhika Pātil, a Kunbi while digging the plinth of the shed for his cattle. He constructed a small temple to house the idol and appointed a priest for its worship. The priest, Devājipant Corebade, prayed the god everyday that if he became a *sardār* he would construct a grand temple replacing the small one. It so happened that Devāji actually rose to a position of high rank in the service of the Bhosles and in fulfilment of his vow he constructed the temple that is seen to-day with the consent of Jānoji Bhosle. It was he who instituted what is known as the *Ghoḍā* ceremony which is held in connection with the annual fair on the 15th day of the bright half of *Magha*. Situated to the west of the village the temple stands encircled by a courtyard wall with four bastions in four corners and two each fortifying the entrance gates on the east and west respectively. The main entrance is flanked by two tiger figures and its terraced top is adorned by two temple replicas with stairs leading up from inside. The gate opens on a fine garden beyond which stands the *Garudastambha* renovated at a later date by Sadāśiv Bhatji Ghode. Passing the *Garudastambha* one comes in the *Nṛtya śāla* or dancing hall, beyond which is the *Kirtan Śāla*. Herein one can find wooden images of Garuda, Maruti, *dvārpālas*, etc. On its walls were paintings depicting *Gajendra mokṣa*, *Kṛṣṇalīlā*, *Bakāsur mardana*, *Mayūravadha* etc., but these were wiped off owing to constant white washing. It was renovated at the orders of Raoji Bhosle *alias* Raghuji III who chanced to visit it once. On crossing the *Kirtan śāla* one faces the stone-built *sabhāmaṇḍap* and the sanctuary crowned by a 6.09 metres (20 ft.) *śikhar* with a gold plated spire. The sanctuary contains the four-handed idol of the god which was re-installed by Devajipant Corebade on *Śrāvaṇa Vadya 8, Śaka 1694* (A.D. 1772), on the completion of the temple that year. It is a very attractive and proportionately shaped idol canopied by a *prabhāval* with representations of *Daśāvtāra* and many other figures carved in relief. Through an air-hole in its eastern corner the morning sun rays fall upon the idol every day. Besides the main image there are those of Laksmi, Garuda, Maruti and many others, some of which are in *padmasana* posture. The *Ghoḍā* fair is one of the biggest fairs in the district and attracts a large number of people. Two days prior to the fair, Balaji's horse, which is of wood, with his image on it, is taken round the village and then back to the temple. The fair lasts for about 15 days and the daily average attendance is over 2,000 persons. Its importance is more commercial now than religious and a number of traders attend from long distances. A considerable trade is done in *reṅgis* (carts) and cart-wheels and cattle are also brought for sale. The temple construction including the inauguration cost Devaji nearly two lakhs of rupees. The Bhosles had presented it with a gem-studded ornament with a lakh of rupees which was deposited in the Bhosle *darbar* in 1804 by one Vasudev Bapu Naik for fear of Pendhari depredations. It was never

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brought back. The Bhosles had also made an annual grant of 1612 *Nāgpuri* rupees and about 200 acres of land. Nearby is a *talāv* spread over an area of about sixty acres in which is planted the temple-flag.

Cimūr has a good weekly bazar on Fridays and the trade is principally in cotton, grain, cotton cloth, carts and oil-seeds. A good deal of cotton cloth, known for its durability is manufactured by the local Koṣṭis. There is also a fairly large community of Barhais who prepare carts for carriage of goods and *reṅgīs* for travelling purposes which are well-known in this part of the country. Cimūr is administered by a *grāmpañcayat* and is the headquarters of a development block. It has a dispensary, a police station, a post, and a high school besides primary schools. There is also a Leprosy Survey and Education Treatment Centre. The buildings stand on a handsome square cleared over the raised area of the old fort facing the river. In the vicinity there are some fine groves together with several temples worth visiting. Cimūr stands out as one of the villages which took active part in the 1942 Quit India Movement and in which a teenager by name Bālāji Rāipurkar was fatally wounded in the police lathi charge. The village is electrified and there is regular S. T. bus service to Nāgpūr, Candrapur and Waṇi.

CHURUL.

Curul, also known as Surlā, is a village in Candrapur tahsil consisting of two hamlets called as Junā Surlā and Gaḍhī Surlā, about 1.60 km. (one mile) apart from each other. The hamlet of Junā (old) Surlā lies in the eastward on the wide plain that stretches to the Waingaṅgā river which flows at a distance of 1.60 km. (one mile) from the village. The second hamlet, Gaḍhī Surlā, clusters round the base of a lofty flat-topped eminence on which stood the ancient fort or *gaḍhī* from which the hamlet takes its name. There is now no trace of the fort save a few remains of the parapet wall, but the mound is still smoothed and the sides of the escarpment steep and difficult of ascent except by the one sloping path on the north. In 1857, to save themselves from the attack of Bāpūrāv the inhabitants took refuge in this fort and broke the charge of Bāpūrāv's horsemen as they attempted to ride the steep escarpment by rolling down cart-wheels fixed on their axles, which frightened the horses and broke their legs. There are a number of ruined temples, one of which contains a pillar with the name of the ubiquitous 'Makardhvaja Jogi, 700' carved on it. The Mūl-Cāmorśī road passes through the village and the 'Junā Curul Ghāṭ' is still a ford over the Waingaṅgā where a good deal of traffic passes. In 1961 the village had a population of 3,881 against 3,770 in 1951. There is a primary school, a post, a medical practitioner and a rest house. A large tank lies at the foot of the aforementioned mound. It is well kept and waters a large area. Rice, jovar and wheat are the staple crops. There is a large colony of Kurumvārs in the village who feed their flocks on the uplands and in the wide plains of the Waingaṅgā. They manufacture a large quantity of *kambals* or rough woollen blankets and sell them at market places on bazar days.

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Deoṭak, meaning the hillock of Gods, is a small village with 194 inhabitants in 1961 in Brahmapurī tahsil, lying 6.43 km. (four miles) north-east of Nāgbhiḍ and 69 miles (111 km.) distant from Candrapūr. It has one small temple and the remains of a second. There is a stone slab containing two distinct inscriptions, the characters of one being of the kind known as those of the Aśoka edicts and those of the other belonging to the Vakataka period. Both of them are fragmentary but mention a name Cikambari, which Mr. Hira Lal has identified with Cikmarā, a village close to Deoṭak. The slab has now been removed to the Nāgpūr Museum. Cikmāra may thus boast of being over 2,000 years old. At Cikmārā and Pānori, both of which are about two miles (3.21 km.) from Deoṭak there are old statues and other ancient remains like those at Deoṭak. It is not unlikely that all these formed one city in ancient times. At Navkhalā, a village near Nagbhiḍ, there are also much abrased inscriptions which cannot be read now.

DEULWADA.

Deulvaḍa is a small agricultural village in Waroḍā tahsil with 802 inhabitants in 1961 and lying about 10.45 km. (six and a half miles) north of Bhadravati. On top of the hill of Deulvaḍā is a small square fort, now in ruins, with four pillars and an old temple standing within. There is also a dry tank to the east of which is a natural mark in the rock fifteen inches long by six inches broad (.381 × .152 metres) which is known as 'Bhimsen's *Caraṇa*' or Bhīmsen's foot-print. In the side of the hill are several caves, of which the largest is named Narsiṅha. The village has a primary school. Drinking water-supply is drawn from the wells.

DHABA.

Dhabā, with 1,866 inhabitants in 1961, is largely an agricultural village in Candrapūr tahsil lying about 64.37 km. (40 miles) south-east of Candrapūr. It is pleasantly situated in a broad fertile valley shut in by low forest clad hills. Down the valley winds a wide shallow stream, a tributary to the Wardhā river, called the Dabhā *nālā*. The village has settled on either banks of this stream and is surrounded by shady mango groves. Āppā Saheb the Bhosle *Raja*, had granted this village along with the village of Taḷodhi to Ramcandra Veṅkaṭeś, a Brāhman, in recognition of his services as *kamdār*. When the grant was made Dhaba and Taḷodhi were no more than hamlets in the jungle of ten to fifteen huts each. It is mainly due to the efforts and indefatigable energy of Anand Rav, son and successor of Ramcandra that these villages came to be populated and set on the road to prosperity. In those days Dhaba inhabitants used to be harassed by the inroads of the dacoits from the *Mughalai*, who at regular intervals dashed across the river and decamped with the loot. The general feeling of insecurity created by the dacoits was so much that even the shop-keepers were afraid to display their goods. For the same reason until the end of the 19th

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century no weekly bazars were held though Dhaba could have been an entrepot for trade and commerce for many of the surrounding villages. To-day, however, a large weekly bazar is held on Wednesdays and serves the needs of many villages in the vicinity. The village is almost entirely agricultural, the main crops being jovar and oil-seeds. Rice cultivation was given up as it was found to be unprofitable. Ramchandra built a colony each of silk-weavers and sonars (gold-smiths) by inducing them to settle there, and in those days Dhaba was famed for its silk stuffs and silver works. The silk-weavers colony has dwindled to-day to a mere three or four families and excepting a few the sonars have taken to brass metal work. But Dhaba is still famed for its silver snuff boxes and belts. The village has five temples of which four are dedicated to the worship of Siva and one to Vitthal Rukmini. All the temples have been erected during the last 120 years and the form of the sculpture show how great is the difference between these temple builders and the pious founder of Markanda. Dhaba has a middle school, a post and a dispensary. Wells are the sources of drinking water. The village suffers from inadequate water-supply.

DHABA.

GADHCHIROLI.

Gadhchiroli, the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name though raised to the position of a tahsil town only in 1905, had long been the largest trading mart in the ex-Amgaon *pargana*. It lies one or two miles (1.60 to 3.21 km.) from the left bank of the Wainganga river which at this point for the first time in its course in this district begins to be distinct for navigation. Formerly the village had no good roads, but since its constitution as a tahsil headquarters it has been linked up by good roads with Mul, 37 km. (23 miles) to the west, which further on runs to Candrapur with Brahmapuri to the north *via* Armori and many other places in the district. The Mul road continues eastwards and terminates at Murumgaon passing *via* Dhanora in its run. The Gadhchiroli-Armori road after touching quite a few villages in the district effects a junction with the road coming from Gondia about the district border. The village is of the usual type with congested dwellings excepting the buildings erected for housing revenue and *panchayat* offices. Buildings of antiquarian remains there are none. There was only an old fort not even whose remains are seen to-day. In 1961 its population was 6,180 and consisted mainly of Koskatis, Gandlis, Khapevars, Dhimars and Mahars. Agriculture is the principal resource of these inhabitants and rice their principal crop. Sugarcane is also grown to some extent. A certain amount of tasar silk-worm rearing used to be carried on once and silk spun out of it, but want of encouragement has completely retarded the trade. The establishment of an agriculture produce market committee has saved the agriculturists of the malpractices of the traders whereby the agriculturists were denied a fair price. About two miles (3.21 km.) from Gadhchiroli is the Sonapur Agriculture Research Centre covering an area of 32.37 hectares (80 acres) and growing seeds of paddy, wheat, jovar, *til* and

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horsegram. An artificial tank has also been dug for making water provision. A part of the village lands has been brought under irrigation by means of a moderately good tank and irrigation wells. For drinking purposes the people depend upon some 52 wells and a tank. Despite this acute water scarcity is felt during summer and this was one of the main objection raised against making Gadhchiroli a tahsil headquarters. Educational institutions include besides primary and middle schools, a multi-purpose high school. A civil hospital with a maternity ward and an attached family planning unit meets the medical needs of the people. There is also a veterinary dispensary. Being the headquarters of a tahsil Gadhchiroli, besides mamlatdar's office, has the office of the *panchayat samiti*, civil and criminal courts, a police station, a post and telegraph office and a rest house. A largely attended weekly bazar is held on Sundays. A small segment of the population is engaged in bamboo matting.

GADHCHIROLI.

GAURALA.

Gaurala is a small village with 1,119 inhabitants in 1961 in Warora tahsil situated at a distance of one and a half miles (2.40 km.) south of Bhadravati. To the west are several fine tanks, beyond which is a low hill crowned with the remains of several temples. There are also many detached rocks, several of which have been hollowed out to form small caves and niches. The principal temple is called Yamvanasvara's palace and the two chief caves are called his little and big town houses. Of these the bigger one contains statues of Vishnu on the serpent and in his dwarf or Vaman and boar or Varah incarnations, but their small size would argue that they are not the original objects of worship. From the presence of eight socket holes for the reception of statues in a raised platform running round three walls of the cave, Cunningham conjectures that the cave might have been a Buddhist one, and in favour of this theory he advanced the existence of a draped figure of Buddha which lies at the bottom of the hill, and the fact that the little town-house was almost certainly a monk's cell. In the Yamvanasva's temple is an inscription on the left jamb dated in the *Samvat* year 1166 or 1109 A.D. There is also a small side temple containing a large statue of Ganes. It lies in a disfigured condition. Traces of several other temples are visible in the vicinity. An old idol of Maruti has been recently housed under a tin shed. Gaurala is not far away from the Bhandak railway station on the Delhi-Madras route and has a primary school. Water supply is obtained from the tanks.

GHODPETH PAYYATWARI.

Ghodpeth Raiyyatvari is a small village in Warora tahsil with 1,000 inhabitants in 1961, situated eight kilometres (five miles) from Bhadravati along the road to Canda. It is said to derive its name from the royal stables which were located here when Bhadravati or Bhandak was the capital of the country. Here there was once a fine temple which was utterly destroyed by a gigantic pipal tree, the roots of which formerly held together a portion of its walls together with one pilaster and several mouldings complete. This pipal tree when it fell totally destroyed the

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pilaster leaving the temple in shambles. The pilaster was remarkable for being built up in regular courses of stone with the walls, instead of being a monolith. It was a very fine example of the style of the mouldings of mediaeval temples in this part of the country. The remains were formerly much more extensive, but the stones were carried away and employed in the construction of a bridge. The building probably belonged to the 11th or 12th century. The village has a branch post office and a primary school. A large tank has been brought under pisciculture by the Fisheries Department.

GHOSARI.

Ghosarī is a small agricultural village in Candrapūr tahsil lying 19.31 km. (12 miles) south of Mūl. It has a temple of Mahādev in the *Hemādpanti* style. It is in a dilapidated condition.

GHUGUS.

Ghugus is a coal mining village in Candrapūr tahsil, about 20.92 km. (13 miles) from Candrapūr connected by a branch railway line shooting off at Tāḍoḷī from the Candrapūr-Wardhā main line of the Central Railway. Here two collieries are worked yielding a good variety of non-coking coal. Besides Ghugus proper whose population was 1,767 in 1961, two separate habitations have grown round the collieries with population of 1,862 and 1,660, respectively. All the three places have each a post office, a medical practitioner and a primary school, excepting Ghugus proper where there is a middle school. The colliery areas have a rest house each and at the first of these a weekly bazar is held on Sundays.

There are three caves in the rocky ground near Ghugus. In one of them there is an idol of Bhairavdev with broken legs. The local tradition regarding this is that in former times while thefts and dacoities used to take place elsewhere, none could be committed at Ghugus, and consequently the thieves and dacoits cut off the legs of the idol. In front of this idol there is a stone standing erect called *Bāhī* or the sleeve of Sītā. Not far off there is another small cave containing a stone, which the people say is the mother of Bhairavdeva. The idol of Bhairavdeva was said to be increasing in height. To stop it his mother put a stone on his head. Between these two caves are two stones which are said to mark the place where a fight between a tiger and a wild boar had taken place. Ghugus is now interesting as a coal mining town and as the locality where coal was first discovered in this district. The first colliery known as Mayo Colliery was opened in 1870 by Lord Mayo. It ceased working the very next year.

JAMBHULGHAT.

Jāmbhuḷghāt, situated about 12.87 km. (eight miles) north-east of Cimūr and 65.98 km. (41 miles) from Waroḍā town is a fair sized village in Waroḍā tahsil with a population of 721 in 1961. On every Tuesday is held here one of the best markets in the district and during the open season becomes a regular fair, being patronised by dealers and inhabitants from Umreḍ,

Paonī and many other places from outside the district. A considerable trade is done in cattle; two varieties of bullocks, *viz.*, the heavy bullock from Nāgpūr for use in black soil and the small hardy breed from the eastern jungles of the district, suitable for rice country, being most in demand. Agricultural produce also is largely dealt in. About one and a half kilometres from the village are extensive quarries of soapstone and close to these are others of black serpentine which are not worked now. From this stone, cups, pestles and mortars can be made. It is stated that once these quarries were regularly worked for three years by Raghujī III, *Rajā* of *Nāgpūr*, who employed on them for eight months out of the twelve on fixed wages about 250 persons, the stone being principally used in the construction of a temple at Nāgpūr. Jambhulghāṭ contains a middle school, a rest-house, a medical practitioner, a branch post office and a forest post. Wells and a tank supply drinking water.

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JUNONA RAIYYATWARI.

Junona Raiyyatvarī, with 677 inhabitants in 1961, is a small agricultural village in Candrapūr tahsil about 11.26 km. (seven miles) east of Candrapūr. It possesses a fine tank on the stone embankment of which stand the remains of an ancient palace, said to have been built by Dhuṇḍia Rām Śāh (1597—1622 A.D.) and in its rear are traces of a wall four miles (6.43 km.) in length. This style of building has entirely disappeared from the district and is all the more to be regretted because such water palaces must have been delightfully cool and pleasant. In communication with the tank is an elaborate system of under channels. Junona is a picturesque spot and has a pleasant camping ground, and ducks are always to be found on the tank. The village has a primary school and a medical practitioner. Wells and tank are the drinking water sources.

KUNGHADA RAIYYATWARI.

Kunghaḍa Raiyyatvarī, is a large agricultural village in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil, lying about 80.46 km. (50 miles) due east of Candrapūr and about one and a half miles (2.40 km.) to the east of the Waingaṅgā river. In 1961 the village population was 3,520 which with the exception of a few households is mainly engaged in agriculture. Paddy is the chief crop, a large tank to the north of the village irrigating its extensive rice-fields. A few irrigation wells also serve the purpose. The tank and the irrigation channels were repaired thoroughly by the Government in 1906 and are kept in repairs from time to time. The vast majority of the husbandmen are Telis who are very industrious and hard-working and have the reputation of being close-fisted. The village itself is straggling. In another land the proverbial expression for landward peace and prosperity was that each man should dwell under his own vine and fig tree. Of Kunghaḍā, it may well be said that each man should squat under the shadow of his own *dhan* or corn heap store and dung heap. The house of practically every cultivator is enclosed by a stout brushwood fence, within which, close packed cheek jowl, are

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the grain *dholis*, the dung heaps and the dwelling houses. There is a temple dedicated to Siva, but it is in bad repairs. The village has a middle school, a post office and a medical practitioner. It is connected with Gadhchiroli and Camorśi by a good road.

KELJHAR. Keljhar, with 1,871 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Candrapur tahsil about 28.96 km. (18 miles) from Candrapur having a railway station on the Candrapur-Nagbhid route. Here Sir A. Cunningham found two cromlechs or dolmens, which he at first took for kistvaens which had been broken open. On further enquiry, however, he concluded that they were small shrines raised by the Kurumvar shepherds to Mallana Deva and Mallāni Devi, at which, once goats were sacrificed to avert tigers and murrain from the flocks. These cromlechs have now disappeared. The village has a primary school and a post. On Fridays a weekly bazar is held. The inhabitants depend upon well and tank water.

KHATODA. Khatoda is an agricultural village lying about 41.84 km. (26 miles) north of Candrapur. It contains the remains of what must have been a considerable stone fort with a moat and a double line of defence. Near one of the bastions is the tomb of Cand Khan, who is much venerated by the Muslims of the district.

MADHELI BK. Madheli Bk. is a large and flourishing village in Warora tahsil lying on the Warora-Nagri road 12.87 km. (eight miles) to the north-west of Warora town. Its population in 1961 was 2,125. It is one of the chief trade centres of the tahsil and at the large weekly market held on Mondays, grain and cattle are the principal articles dealt in. The cattle sold are usually of the fine berar breed. *Madheli* has a high school besides primary schools, a dispensary and a post office. People depend upon well water.

MARKANDA. Markanda is a small village in Gadhchiroli tahsil situated on the left bank of the Wainganga river about 64.37 km. (40 miles) east of Candrapur and known amongst the Hindus as a place of pilgrimage. It is not far away from Camorśi, and the archaeological finds discovered between Markandā and Camorśi, including broken idols, go to suggest that at one time Markanda must have been a large and prosperous township extending up to Camorśi. To-day, however, it is no more than an insignificant village, except for its group of temples and holiness, with 520 inhabitants and a primary school. Markanda is supposed to derive its name as well as fame from sage Markandeya who according to the Hindu holy scriptures worshipped Śiva here and obtained immortality[1]; and secondly from a beautiful group of temples, including the one housing Śiva *linga* which Markandeya is

[1]. There is, however, a dispute among the historians regarding the exact place where Markandeya obtained the boon, and they are not unanimous in accepting Markanda as the place.

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believed to have worshipped, built in rich purple coloured stone finely situated on a high bluff overlooking the river. The small hillocks, the group of temples and the river flowing below have made Markanda a pleasing spot. The more pious of the Hindu worshippers here picture Wainganga as chafing uneasily in her bed and meditating the last despairing sweep northwards to join the waters of holy Mother Ganga. For some miles the river has its will, but the relentless fate is too strong for it and hurries it southwards away from the haven where it would be. *Factis Causa deis placuit, sed victa Catoni*: and man honouring the rivers unavailing yearning after purity, has raised a group of noble temples to mark the spot at which it begins its efforts to force its course for the last time to the north. There are nearly twenty four temples in the group and are enclosed in a quadrangle measuring 59.74 × 35.96 metres (196' × 118'), with entrances on the river side, in front and in two side walls. Some of these are in compete ruins, and others are very small, but the general effect is very impressive. "The whole taken together," wrote Sir Cunningham, "forms perhaps the most picturesque group of temples that I have seen. There are no inscriptions to tell their age, but their style is so similar to that of the Candel temples of Khajuraho and other places, that there can be little doubt, that they belong to the same period of 10th and 11th centuries." It is said that when Bibhisan, the brother of Ravan, the prince of the *Rakṣasas*, was sick, Hemadpant the minister of the Yadavas, cured him and the grateful patient told him to ask for a boon. Hemadpant asked for the aid of *Rakṣasas* to build temples wherever he might require them. The boon was granted but on condition that the *Rakṣasas* were not to work for more than one night at a time. Hemadpant accordingly built all the temples at Markanda, Bhandak, Neri, etc., in one night. This is a stock story told about the temples of *Hemadpanti* origin in this district as also the rest of Maharastra. Hemadpant has been identified with Hemadri, the *Srikaranadipa* or the Head of the Secretariat of the Yadava Kings of Devagiri, Mahadev and Ramcandra. He was a renowned Sanskrit scholar. But Hemadri's date is 1260–71 A.D. and the archaeologists date the Markanda temples about 10th or 11th century A.D. Temples of the *Hemadpanti* style are found in about 80 villages in the district some of which lie in utter ruins to-day. Some of them are of remarkable beauty and display wonderful stone carvings. Modern temples and shrines are still built in imitation of these, but carvings are no longer of the same beauty and finish. Among the *Hemadpanti* temples in the district the Markanda temples are undoubtedly the most beautiful.

By far the largest and the most elaborately sculptured temple of the group is that of sage Markandeya, dedicated to Śiva. In general style and finish this temple bears great resemblance to the Khajuraho temples. The whole surface is literally covered with statues and ornaments, human figures, geese and parakeets. Sir A. Cunningham counted over 400 such figures, and there are

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about half as many sculptures of lions and elephants forming divisions between the human figures. About half of the panels are devoted to representations of Śiva and Pārvatī in various forms, the former being frequently represented in a state of nudity. Nude female figures also abound, but these are not represented indelicately. The attitudes of all the figures are easy, but the features are devoid of all intelligent expression. About 260 years ago the temple was struck by a lightning, and the upper part of the massive spire was hurled down on the roof of the *mahamaṇḍap* which was broken in. Another small temple was also utterly destroyed. The roof was repaired later by one of the Gond *Rajas*, whose architect introduced huge piers with radiating arches inside the principal room. The upper part of the temple now seems to topple over at any minute, but the stones are said to have hung in their apparently precarious position for a long time. On the jambs of the south door is inscribed 'Śrī Magardhvaj Jogī 700.' Similar inscriptions have been found in several other places and have long puzzled the archaeologists, who presumed the figure 700 to indicate a date but could fit it in with no known era. The explanation now generally accepted and which has been given by Hira Lal, is that the figure indicates the number of disciples who formed the following of Magardhvaj. Facing the Mārkaṇḍeya temple and nearer the river once stood the pavilion of Nandikeśvar, housing a huge *nandi* image. It has now fallen and a small *nandi* replaces the original. Such shrines are adjuncts to temples dedicated to Śiva. The second largest temple of the group is named after Murkaṇḍ Ṛṣi who is said to have been the father of Mārkaṇḍa. Four richly ornamented pillars support the roof of the hall of this temple, and over the shrine rises a lofty spire, which is nearly perfect, and is a very graceful specimen of its kind. This temple is dedicated to Śiva and has his *liṅga* in the shrine. Unique of its kind among this group is a shrine dedicated to Yama Dharmarāj or the God of Death. Faced as it is by one dedicated to Śiva as Mṛtyuñjaya or the conqueror of death, it would appear that the intention of the builder was to represent Śiva in a two-fold capacity as Yama or death and as Mṛtyuñjaya or conqueror of death by reproduction. In front is a Marāṭhā *dharmaśālā* and to the north of Markaṇḍeya *mandir* is installed a marble statue of *Sant* Gaḍge Mahārāj, a noted saint of Vidarbha. The only other building requiring detailed notice is the temple of the *Daś Avtāra* or ten incarnations of Viṣṇū. This is an open cloister 75 feet long by 7 feet wide within, which runs along the western wall of the enclosure. It is divided by pilasters into twelve compartments, two of the divisions being probably intended for statues of Viṣṇū, and the remaining ten for the *Avatāras*. In each division there is a pedestal, but several of them are now empty. These temple are probably the oldest in the whole group and apparently belong to the 6th or 7th century A.D. An inscription carved on a broken pillar is believed to belong to that date. There are also several curious square pillars which

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seem to be much more ancient than any of the temples. Nearly all of them are sculptured, and some bear inscriptions. The chief figures are soldiers wearing anklets and armed with battle axes, bow and arrow-laden quiver, and depicted in an attitude of attack[1].

The quiet of this spot is seldom broken save once a year, when on *Mahāśivrātra* a large fair is held and to which the pious resort in order to wash away their sins in the waters of the holy Waingangā. Previously the fair was a one-day affair but now it prolongs up to 15 days. In recent years the importance of the fair has anything but increased, for now there are good roads leading up to the temple and ample water-supply. The annual fair attendance comes to over 50,000 and the place is no more plagued with water scarcity.

MANIKGAD.

Māṇikgaḍ in Rājurā tahsil is a railway station on the Wardhā-Madras section lying about two miles south of Candrapūr. It is important, because of an ancient fort which stands overlooking the Wardhā about 27 miles south of Cāndā, on a plateau in the Maṇikgaḍ hill range. To-day the fort lies in complete ruins deserted in the wilderness of the jungle inhabited by wild beasts and animals. It is said to have been built by the last of the Māna Naga Kings, Gahilu, who had established themselves at Wairagaḍ about the 9th century A.D.[2] The fort derives its name from the presiding deity of the Mānā Nāgas, Maṇikadevī, who was also the presiding deity of the Bastar Nāgas. In an inscription found in the ex-Bastar State the goddess is termed as Danteśvarī. Be that as it may, Gahilu under the impression that the extent of his empire in that part of the country was due to the blessings of the goddess named the fort as *Mānikagaḍ* which later came to be called simply as Maṇikgaḍ. There is also a tradition which tells that the fort was built by one of the Gond Kings by name Maṇkyaḷ and hence the name Māṇikgaḍ. But evidence to support this assertion is singularly lacking. On the contrary, the absence of the Gond emblem, lion mounted on the elephant back, on the lintel of the entrance gate which is usually found on Gond constructions, goes to prove that the fort was built by some one other than the Gonds. Mānikgaḍ entrance gate lintel bears a *nāga* image carved in relief and this may be taken as a fair testimony that the fort was built by some one of the Nāga Kings. By the end of the 12th century A.D. the Nagas became the feudatories of Jājalladeva of Ratanpūr. Huge black cut stones have been employed in the construction of the fort which appears to have been a place of great strength. The gateway is solid and imposing and is of good height. Rampart walls have been built along the hills which enclose a sort of a valley containing ruins of what appear to be old buildings and

[1]. Most of the account of the temples of Markanda is based on Sir A. Cunningham's description of Markanda, in vol. IX of the *Report of the Archaeological Survey of India*. The volume contains a ground plan of the temples and several plates illustrating details of the architecture.

[2]. *Settlement Report of Chanda District*, 1869, Major Lucie Smith.

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store-houses. Against the rampart walls outlines of some apartments are also visible. A part of the southern rampart wall along with the bastion fortifying it has collapsed and in the valley below lies a cannon which perhaps was mounted on that bastion. Unlike a cast cannon of one piece, it is built of iron straps welded together very strongly. The fort is overgrown with shrubbery and wild trees. It has become a sanctuary for the animals inhabiting the surrounding dense forests. Animals like tiger, panther, blue bull, sambhar, chital, barking deer, sloth deer, wild dogs, wild goat, boars and numerous other dangerous beasts and birds are very often met with in these forests. There is also a temple of Visnu which, like the fort, lies in a neglected state and may yield before long to the ravages of time. A number of historical and archaeological monuments are found scattered in the vicinity of the fort.

On way to Manikgad, passing *via* Rajurā one comes across a small settlement called Candanvai, two miles south of which is an old silted *talāv* by the side of which are images of Ganapati and other deities. On a stone slab of about four feet high are carved the representations of sun and the moon with an ass mating with a woman below. Such stones are called as Gadhegal. This part is strewn with old broken idols, silted tanks and small Śiva shrines indicating that this tract was once a populous one. Remains of some old buildings are also seen. At Thutre, a village one has to pass through on way to Manikgad, is a compound wall of black cut stone enclosing a spacious courtyard. Though no remnants or even outlines of any construction are seen inside today, there is an antique, out of use well.

From Thutre, the next village on way to Manikgad is Candūr from where the fort is approximately three to four miles off. In the vicinity of this village are seen the remains of a large *vādā* wherein is a stone bearing the images of a man and a woman, with the woman in a sitting posture. In the forests around are nearly six to seven ruined temples which seem to be frequented by wild animals. In many of them were seen the bones of the prey killed by wild animals.

MARODA.

Marodā a small village lying about 49·88 km. (31 miles) from Candrapūr and only 4·82 km. (three miles) west of Mūl, is famed for an antique shrine of Somnath Mahadev crowning a hill top amidst dense forest growth. A flight of stairs leads up to the temple unfolding in the background a bewitching view of mountainous tract thickly covered with forest growth and in the front an extensive plain touching the horizon and strewn with many scattered settlements. In front a water-fall tumbles from a good height and pursues its course in the form of a streamlet. The water-fall and the stream coupled with the lush green forests have heightened the beauty of the spot and today more than pilgrims, the picnic goers are attracted to it. It is said that the Pāndavas had passed some of their days in exile in these jungles. The local story goes that in ancient times a devotee of

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Śiva by name Somnath performed austerities here at the end of which by such a temple which thus came to be known as Somnath Mahadev. The original temple, in the *Hemādpanti* style, could not stand the ravages of time and the temple seen today was constructed after the original collapsed. In April every year a large fair attended by over 2,000 persons is held in honour of the deity. To bring the vast land under cultivation as also to take advantage of the irrigation potential provided by the stream an agricultural school is being established here. A *Gosadan* has already been set up.

MUL.

Mūl, with in 1961 a population of 7,469 is perhaps the largest village in Candrapur tahsil, besides the towns of Candrapūr and Ballārpūr. Formerly it was the headquarters of and gave its name to a large tahsil embracing the old Haveli, Raigarh, Gharkul, Amrapūr and Wairāgadh *parganas*, including the city of Candrapūr within its limits. In 1895, however, the headquarter was shifted to Candrapūr and at the same time the name of the tahsil was changed to Canda from Mūl. The village lies at the trijunction of the Candrapūr-Mūl-Umred and the Mūl-Gadhchiroli roads, 43·45 km. (27 miles) north-east of Candrapūr and well within the heavy rice tract. While the Umred road runs onwards to Nagpūr, the Gadhchiroli road forks at Gadhchiroli one arm of it running towards Armori and the other towards Murumgāon in the extreme east of the district. The Candrapur-Nagbhid railway line has a railway station at Mūl. This position constitutes Mūl an important feeder market to Candrapur through which all traffic or at least a major part of it between Candrapur and a large part of the interior of the district must pass. Mūl is pleasantly and picturesquely situated in the neighbourhood of the hill named after it, a river which also bears its name in the maps but which is locally called Halda, flows in a shallow bed, a mile or two to the east of the village site. Mahārs and Dhīmars form the dominant section of the population. Mūl and the neighbouring village of Marodā boast of several large shops, but yet the trading community is small as compared with the number of those dependent on agriculture. Sugarcane and rice are extensively cultivated and there is a large tank giving full irrigation to an extensive rice growing tract. Along Mul-Gadhchiroli road two agriculture research centres have been set up. The first one of these is at Bothli about 20·92 km. (13 miles) distant from Mul. It covers an area of 34·50 hectares (85 acres) and produces improved seeds of paddy, *tur*, horsegram and wheat. Its lands are irrigated by the channelled waters of the Asola Mendha tank, one of the largest of the many Candrapur *talāvs*. The second centre is at Vehad and grows improved seeds of rice, jowar, wheat and horsegram. It occupies 33 hectares (81·83 acres) of land and also receives waters from Asola Mendha. Mūl and Sindi, yet another important villages in Candrapur are becoming complementary, and figured prominently during the *Khadi Gramodyog* movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi. Mūl once belonged to the Maratha family of Pathans. The

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MUL. village has facilities up to high school education, a hospital a veterinary dispensary, post and telegraph office and a police station. Though there is plenty of water for irrigation it suffers from inadequacy of potable water. The only antiquarian remains are some cromlechs which are used by Kurumvārs as shrines for their deities. A large weekly bazar is held on Wednesdays.

MUNDIPUR. Mundipūr, with in 1961 only 27 inhabitants, is a small hamlet in Gadhchiroli tahsil. It contains a *kot* or a wall built of stone without mortar, but no local history or tradition can be ascertained in its connection.

NAGBHID. Nāgbhid, with 6,159 inhabitants in 1961 is a considerable village in Brahmapurī tahsil, situated to its north-west. It lies 104.60 km. (65 miles) north-west of Candrapūr. It is, however, a straggling village which has grown up without any conscious plan and the confusion of its houses and the tortuousness of its lanes are brought into strong contrast by the high road which cuts a ruthlessly straight line undeviatingly through its inhabited locality. This is the Candrapūr-Umred road which ultimately runs to Nāgpūr. A branch emanating from this road connects Brahmapurī, the tahsil headquarters. Nāgbhīd has risen to importance since its inclusion on the railway map and has now become a junction where the Candrapūr-Gondiā railway line forks, one arm branching towards Nāgpūr. At one time the place was celebrated for tasar silk spinning and weaving and the yarn produced here was of a very fine texture. This industry is almost extinct now. There is a Khoja trading family which deals almost in everything including hides, bones, cloth, stationery and cutlery, pharmaceuticals, tembru leaves, and groceries. It also owns rice and oil mills, a cinema theatre and a petrol pump. A weekly bazar is held here on Thursdays and an annual fair is held on *Mahāśivrātra*, about a mile from the village. Conspicuous for miles around as a white spot against a dark background of hill is a temple. Behind the temple is a natural cave. Nāgbhīd has two high schools, *pañcāyat samiti*, a police station, post and telegraph office, a primary health centre and a veterinary dispensary. The rest-house here is built on somewhat an eerie spot strewn with some Muhammedan tombs. Amidst dense forest growth, about three and a half miles from Candrapūr-Nāgbhīd road near Nāgbhīd, nestles a beautiful expansive *talāv*, called Ghodājharī. There is a rest-house in the vicinity.

NAGRI. Nāgrī, a village in Warodā tahsil with a population of 2,786 in 1961, has a railway station on the Wardhā-Candrapūr line of the Central Railway. Between it and Wāghnak two miles (3.21 km.) away are found stones set up in circles such are often seen elsewhere. Nagri has educational facilities up to S. S. C. examination, a dispensary and a post office. A weekly bazar is held on Tuesdays. Drinking water is obtained from the wells.

NALESHWAR. Naleśvar is a village of 613 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census lying about 38.62 km. (24 miles) north-east of Candrapūr the

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NALESHWAR. tahsil headquarters. It has an ancient temple dedicated to Śiva built in the *Hemadpanti* style. It is situated in a picturesque mango grove, where water from a perennial spring emerges out of rock which is carved in the shape of a *gomukh* or cow's mouth. Hence the place is known as Gaimukh. The village has a primary school. Wells, a tank and river form the sources of water supply.

NAWARGAON. Navargaon is a fertile village in the Brahmapurī tahsil lying at some distance from the Mul-Brahmapuri road, and about midway between the two places. In 1961 its population was 7,131. It has sprung up in the middle of an open undulating plain which stretches away to the forested hills of the Mūl range. The flat lands around the town are well tilled and irrigated and interspersed with neat little vegetable gardens which make the approaches to the village rather pretty. There are fine mango groves to the east and west of the village. It is divided into two parts called Dhuman Kheda and Deval *talav* and between them lies a tank which during heavy rains is so flooded as to cut off one part of the village from the other. A large cattle bazar, at which agricultural commodities are also sold, is held on Thursdays on the spacious bazar site on the bank of the tank. During the peak season it is sometimes attended by nearly 5,000 persons, many coming from distant towns like Umred and Bhisi. Grain in large quantities and bamboo matting goes to Umred and Nagpūr. The cultivators mainly belong to the Kohli caste and grow sugarcane, rice, linseed and jovar, and this together with the vegetable garden produce finds ready sale in the weekly bazar. There are a few families of Kurumvars (Canarese shepherds) who are engaged in rearing and tending sheep and weaving coarse blankets out of the wool. There are also a few families of Koștis who weave fine silk saris and are reported to belong to the stock of the weavers who once made Gadhori famous for its saris. On a large scale gur out of cane is prepared. In the hills that border on Devalvādi there is a memorial to a saint. Every year on 16th of January is held the Devalvādī Pat which is a occasion for general rejoicing to the villagers. Navargaon has two high schools, a veterinary and an allopathic dispensaries, and a post and telegraph office. There are two rice mills.

NERI. Neri is a large and flourishing village in the Warodā tahsil, situated on the Gondur, a small tributary of the Andhārī river 9.65 km. (six miles) south-east of Cimūr and 62.76 km. (39 miles) from Warodā town. The population of the village was 5,083 in 1961. The village is divided into two parts, the old and the new, on account of a large tank or *talav* and extensive stretch of paddy cultivation in between. It is recorded that the place had two old forts in ruins, but to-day nothing remains to indicate their existence. By the side of the *talav* there is an old temple of no small size and beauty, the pillars and carvings of which resemble those met with in the Ajantā Cave temples. It is

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dedicated to Śiva who is represented by a *liṅga* symbol. Though popularly known as *Hemādpanti*, it bears great resemblance to the Cālukyan style. Lying in the open in the village there is a disfigured image of Śiva riding on a bull. Recently an idol of a goddess was discovered in the land of one Keśavrāv Birevār. It is four-handed with an inscription at the base which appears to be of a later date. The idol is a fine piece of sculpture. Of more modern construction there are some Pāñcāl tombs in which husband and wife have been laid side by side. The village contains some families of Pāñcāls and Koṣṭis who manufacture brass and copper vessels and cotton cloth. On Wednesdays a weekly market is held, there being a considerable trade in these goods and also in rice which is largely grown here. It shares with Cimūr the honour of being the favourite residential quarter of this half of the tahsil. There is a middle school, a dispensary and a post office. It is connected with Warodā and Cimūr by good roads, buses plying all the year round.

PANOLI.

Panoli is a small village about two miles (3.21 km.) north-east of Deoṭak in Brahmapuri tahsil, containing ruins of a small temple of laterite, similar to the one at Deoṭek. There are also several slabs precisely similar to the inscribed slab at Deoṭek, and like it they are grooved with a channel, but they are broken across and not inscribed. Several statues of Viṣṇu, Lakṣmi and Nandi, and some *liṅgas* lie scattered about. The ruins lie on a small mound, about 15 feet (4.57 metres) high and about 30 feet (9.14 metres) in diameter. There are no inscriptions on them, nor are there any traditions bearing upon them.

PANZURNI.

Panzurṇi, a village 9.65 km. (six miles) north-west of Warodā in Warodā tahsil, has a peculiarly shaped temple supposed to have been built on the site of a *sati*. In the centre of the building is seen a tomb with a figure representing a woman kneeling on the funeral pyre before its being lighted. The population in 1961 was 759 as against 876 in 1951, the decline being attributed to migration to Warodā. There is a primary school and a branch post office.

PIMPALGAON.

Pimpalgāṅv, also known locally as Pipalgaṅv Makta, is a village in Brahmapuri tahsil settled on the high bank of the Waingaṅgā and lying about four miles (6.43 km.) from Brahmapuri. Here the Waingaṅgā divides itself into two channels with the island of Laḍuz in between. The villages, situated on the western channel, is liable to floods during heavy rains. In 1961 its population was 2,896 and consisted mainly of Kunbis, Marāthās and Mahārs. The village is entirely agricultural, the chief crops being jovar and rice. No bazar as such is held except a small weekly vegetable market. Raghuji I had granted this village to the queen of Mudhoji Bhosle to provide for her personal allowance. On her death it came into the possession of Bakā Bāi who willed it to Jānoji Bhosle, her adopted son. In commemoration of a local saint by name Akḍuji Mahārāj a temple to Rāma has been built. It is reported to be about ninety years old.

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On *Ramanavami* an annual festival is held in honour of the saint. On this day a considerable number of people gather from the neighbouring villages. Pimpalgaṅv has a middle school, a medical practitioner and a post office. Wells and the river are the sources of water supply. No scarcity of water is felt as in many of the Cāndā villages.

POMBHURNA.

Pombhurṇa is a rice producing village in Candrapūr tahsil with two excellent tanks, situated about 41.84 km. (26 miles) to the east of Cāndā. The population in 1961 was 2,965. The Pañcals here used to work in wood lacquered in different colours and make toys, fan handles, chess and draughts of excellent workmanship. Due to lack of encouragement this art is falling into decay and the Pañcals are taking to agriculture. Sugar cane is the next important crop of the village. On Tuesdays a small weekly bazar is held. Pombhurṇā has a high school, a post office, a medical practitioner and a rest house.

RAJGADH.

Rajgadh, lying 6.43 km. (four miles) south-east of Mūl, is a fair sized village in Candrapūr tahsil with a population of 1,205 as per the 1961 Census. It contains an old temple which, though small in size, is noted for its details, due to its excellent state of preservation. The temple is dedicated to Mahadev whose *liṅga* is enshrined inside. The style is the same as that of Mārkaṇḍa temples, and the roof of the sanctum is a pyramid rising in steps like the pyramidal spires of the *Daś Avatāra* temple at Mārkaṇḍā. Although surrounded by a tract of country closely studded with larger villages, Rajgadh is a place of importance, as it boasts of a large weekly bazar held on Tuesdays. It is attended by over 2,000 persons. Large transactions in agricultural commodities take place on these occasions. The village has a primary school, a post office and a medical practitioner. Wells and a tank supply drinking water.

RAJOLI.

Rajoli, with in 1961 a population of 2,594, is a village in Canda tahsil laying along Candrapūr-Nagpūr road about eleven miles from Mūl. It is a model village on development front and has made such phenomenal progress in recent times that it even evoked the admiration of late Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru who happened to visit it once. In pre-independence days and even up to 1956 not only no progress worth the name was made but it was infested with all sorts of epidemics and diseases. With the *grampañcayat* elections of 1956, a beginning was made towards the development of Rajoli. The first challenging task was to get rid of the epidemics and the diseases which was successfully done over a period of years. Now Rajoli has an *ayurvedic* dispensary and a filaria centre. The *pañcāyat* raised and saved funds which were employed in constructing broad roads remarkable for any small town, in laying out drains, constructing and repairing bridges and culverts, wells for drinking water and buildings for schools. At a later stage the problem of potable water was overcome by providing for tap-water. Scavengers were provided with residential colonies. Funds

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essential for these works were for the most part raised by arranging drama shows performed by *Bharat Bhūṣaṇ Naṭak Mandal*. Development aid was also received in course of time which resulted in the construction of a spacious school building enviable for a village of Rājoli's size. Rājoli has now educational facilities up to pre-secondary stage. Adult literacy classes are also conducted. The village has also taken a lead in the co-operative field, there being a multipurpose co-operative society and a foodgrains co-operative. A large number of agriculturists have availed themselves of the services and facilities rendered by these co-operatives. More than anything else these co-operatives have made the agriculturists as well as the villagers realize the benefits of co-operation. It inspired them to work collectively for the repair and deepening of a large tank which now irrigates nearly 800 acres of land. The village has been electrified and the main roads provided with electric lights. A drama club, a youth club and a *mahila mandal* have been constituted and are doing some useful work in the social and cultural spheres. Rājoli *grampañcayat* is a model *grāmpañcāyat* and arranges from time to time for *Bharat Sevak Samāj* camps, labour camps, *Mahila Śibir* and agricultural and cattle exhibitions. Fine and spacious houses are coming up in the well planned Kannamwar Colony. The village library and the radio centre are the main attractions to the villagers during leisure hours. There are two rice mills.

RAJURA.

Rājura is a municipal town and the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name lying hardly four miles across the Wardha from Ballarpūr. Two miles east of it is the railway station of Mānikgad on the Wardha-Madras route of the South-Central Railway thus giving it the advantage of rail transport. Rājura tahsil previously formed a part of Ādilabād district of the ex-Hyderābād State. It was transferred to Nanded district in 1956 and made a part of Candrapūr district in March 1959. On account of the different set of rules and regulations in force, Rājura is actually notified as an independent district and division in itself, but for all administrative purposes, is placed under the Collector, Candrapūr, who is responsible to the Divisional Commissioner, Nāgpūr Division[1].

Municipality.

The municipality at Rājurā was established in 1954 and started functioning with an elected council from February of the same year. Its committee is composed of fifteen elected councillors presided over by a president who in turn is elected by the councillors from among themselves. As per the 1961 Census the municipal jurisdiction extended over an area of 0.3 sq. miles only.

Finance. In 1966-67 the municipal income derived from sources like taxes, municipal property and powers apart from taxation, grants and miscellaneous stood at Rs. 41,846.42. Expenditure incurred due to collection and general administration,

[1] *District Census Hand Book*, Chanda, 1961.

public health, safety, etc., came to Rs. 37,394.66 during the same year.

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Health, Sanitation and Water Supply. The medical needs are met by a Government Civil Dispensary which has an attached maternity ward. Only a nominal fee is charged for the treatment given. The town has also a few private medical practitioners. A veterinary dispensary maintained by the Zilla Parisad besides helping the growth of live-stock by means of artificial insemination, also treats the sickly animals and birds. A few *kutca* drains constitute the drainage system of the town. At present the inhabitants solely depend upon well water. But a water-works to be installed on Naleśvar *naki* about two furlongs west of the town is likely to make tap water available by 1972. It is estimated to cost about three lakhs of rupees.

Education. Compulsory primary education programme is implemented by the Zilla Parisad. Of the four primary schools three are Marathi and one Urdū. The town has two high schools of which one is conducted by the Zilla Parisad and the other though privately conducted receives a substantial grant from the Government. A library is maintained by the municipality.

Cremation and burial places. They are maintained and used by the communities concerned. However, the municipality is planning to take those over and equip the cremation grounds with sheds and other necessities. It is also planning to have a vegetable market for which there is no shed and platforms at present.

Objects.

Among the objects claiming antiquity may be listed the remnants or rather the outlines of a fort, and two temples. A large platform like structure is pointed out as the remains of a ground fort where once stood the tahsil office. A small part of the southern wall of this fort is still seen and is built of long whitish cut sand stone. On the same side is a blocked entrance flanked by fairly artistic figures of *dvarapalas*. The antiquity of this ground fort is put earlier than that of the Ballarpūr fort. In a field to the north stands a $5 \cdot 1^{1}/_{4}$ feet pillar called *Bhatstambha* bearing a cavalryman's figure with a much abrased inscription. It appears that the *stambha* commemorates some fallen hero in a battle. Not far away, to the south of the town, is an ancient shrine of Someśvara Mahadev, said to have been built at the command of Kholeśvara, the general of the Devagiri Yadavas. In front of this temple is a built in tank with steps on all the four sides leading up to water level and a few cloisters or *ośvaris* around it. The temple is built of black dressed stone. To the west is a temple of Bhavani reported to be built by Janoji Bhosle of Nagpūr. It is deeply revered.

Rajura is primarily agricultural, cotton being the staple crop. Jovar, wheat and a few other crops are also grown. The only other industry is the pottery and tile manufacturing, there being a tile factory. A few Kumbhar families are engaged in the manufacture of earthen vessels and bricks. Rajura has a sale

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and purchase union and a branch of the district central co-operative bank. Five miles from Rājurā are the Sasti coal mines employing a large number of people. Rājurā being the tahsil headquarters has Mamlatdār's office, Civil and Criminal Courts, a *pañcāyat samiti*, a police station and post and telegraph office. There is also a fine rest house. On Saturdays is held the weekly bazar. Of late a recreational club has started functioning in Rājurā.

RAJURA. Objects.

RAMDIGHI POOL.

Rāmdighī pool lies at the foot of a precipice on the western slopes of the Cimūr hills, some 16 km. (ten miles) north-north-east of Śegāṅv in Waroḍā tahsil. It is hollowed out of the rock, about 40 feet in diameter, and of unknown depth. In the monsoon a considerable stream falls into its basin from the precipice above. Tradition attributes the formation of the pool to Rama when passing through this part of the country. There is an ancient temple on an eminence above with two good carvings of a warrior with shield and straight sword. One of the warriors has fallen backwards and the second one is bent towards the pool and may fall in it before long.

SAOLI.

Sāolī is a large village in Candrapūr tahsil situated on the Mūl-Gaḍhciroli road, about 11.26 km. (seven miles) east of Mūl. The population in 1961 was 4,871. Sāolī is one of the largest rice producing villages in Cāndā, three-fourths of its total acreage being under paddy cultivation. Its lands are irrigated by two fine tanks, Asola Mendha *talav* and numerous irrigation wells. A few families of Koshatis are engaged in tasar silk weaving and once the industry was in a very flourishing condition. It is now on the decline and may be extinct if no encouragement is given. The other local industry worthy of mention is the manufacture of slippers for which the place is so well-known. In 1894 the village was seriously affected by a fire that gutted and reduced to ashes over 800 houses. However, the village has recovered from that blow ere long and is now well on its way to prosperity. Sāoli has a school, a dispensary and a post office. A weekly market is held on Thursdays.

SINDEVAHI.

Sindevāhī is the large village in Brahmapuri tahsil on Mūl-Umred road about 24.14 km. (fifteen miles) north of Mūl and 45 miles (72.42 km.) from Candrapūr. The Candrapūr-Nāgbhid railway line passes through the village, there being a station at Sindevāhī. It is pleasantly situated on the wide wooded plain bordered by low hills. The village is wholly agricultural, rice and sugarcane being the principal crops raised. Jovar is taken as a winter crop. Water for irrigation purposes is drawn from a large tank at Gadmānsā, a place about 3.21 km. (two miles) away from the village. In order to increase the paddy yield in Vidarbha region a research centre was set up at Sindevāhī in 1957-58. This centre not only carries out research in the agricultural field but also produces seeds and has a training centre attached to it imparting training to Agricultural Development Officers. The centre now trains the *grām sevaks* and *sevikās* too.

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Grām sevikas are also trained in home science. Arrangements are also made to give training in carpentry and blacksmithy to the desiring youths from the nearby villages. On the upkeep of this centre a total of Rs. 1.50 to two lacks is spent annually by the Union Government. The village population in 1961 was 6,923. The cultivators belong mainly to the Kohli, Gondli and Salevar castes. A few Marathas are also engaged in agriculture. Sindevahi was gifted by Vyankoji Bhosle to his nephew Gajābā Dada. There is a temple dedicated to the great local saint Someśvar Maharaj. It was founded some eighty-five years ago. Besides primary schools, Sindevāhi has a high school, *pañcāyat samiti* office, a primary health centre, post and telegraph office and a rest house. It is the headquarter of two forest ranges viz., South and North Sindevāhī. Two Deputy Engineers, one each for Buildings and Communications, and minor irrigation, are posted here. There is one saw mill and four rice mills of which one is organised on co-operative basis.

SINDEVAHI.

SIRONCHA.

Sironcā, the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name was a place of much greater importance when it was the headquarters of the old Upper Godāvarī district. It is 180.24 km. (112 miles) to the south-east of Cāndā and 98.17 km. (61 miles) from Aherī with both of which it is connected by a good motorable road. When in 1860 it was selected as the site of the *sadar* station, it consisted merely of a few huts on the river bank and the total population was just under 500, but it rapidly grew and today the population is 3,420 (1961 Census). Sironcā is pleasantly situated on the left bank of the Prāṇhita, two miles (3.21 km.) above its confluence with the Godāvarī, and 109.72 metres (321 ft.) above sea level. It enjoys a very salubrious climate. On a ridge overlooking the river stand the survivors of the old civil station buildings, the most notable of which has now been converted into a rest house. It previously was the bungalow of the Deputy Commissioner. Until 1885 two companies of Madras Native Infantry were quartered here but to-day nothing is left of their barracks or the military buildings. The old district jail which was later reduced to the status of a subsidiary jail and still later used to accommodate only local offenders is now used to house the judicial court. A part of the tahsil building is used as magisterial lockup. Sironcā once possessed a fort which was built in 1698 A.D. has an inscription on its principal gateway indicated. It appears to have been built under the auspices of one Haidar Wali Śāh, a short time before this part of the country passed under the possession of Velamā family. This fort figured prominently in the later history of Sironcā[1]. When the district passed under the British dominion it was considered advisable to dismantle the fort, and as anybody who cared to do so was allowed to take stone from it, the process of dismantling was pretty thorough and quick. Much of the stone was used in the construction of the jail which now houses the judicial court, and many other public buildings.

[1] For details see Chapter II.

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SIRONCHA.

Thus the memory as well as the trace of an historical monument was totally erased. Haidar Wali Śah, who is supposed to have built this castle, was a holy man and is the patron saint of Sirońca, where he lies buried and whither his tomb attracts many Muhammedans from the surrounding country at the time of the annual *urus*. Sirońca has also sacred associations for the Hindus owing to its location close to the confluence of the Godavarī and the Praṇhitā rivers and pilgrims from many parts of India flock here at the time of *Simhastha* which takes place once in twelve years. On the confluence, but falling within the borders of Andhra State is an antique shrine of Kāleśvar-Mukteśvar which is being renovated. The village has a fair export of jovar and *til* but no manufactures of any kind. Rice is also grown but is locally consumed. Being the headquarters of a tahsil Sirońca besides the mamlatdar's office, has the office of the *pañcayat samiti*, civil and criminal courts, a police station, a post and telegraph office and a rest house. There is a civil hospital with fifteen beds as well as an outdoor patient department and a veterinary dispensary. Among educational institutions there is a high school and two middle schools besides primary schools. The American Methodist Episcopal Church has established a mission here and the mission buildings occupy the site of the old barracks. Water is obtained from wells and the river. Weekly bazar is held on Mondays.

SOMSUR.

Somnur with 327 inhabitants in 1961, is a petty village in Sirońcā tahsil lying at a distance of 257.49 km. (160 miles) from Candrapūr and 48.27 km. (30 miles) from Sirońcā, the road up to Sirońcā being a *pucca sadak*. It is a spot of great scenic beauty and hence of tourist attraction. It is the meeting place of three rivers in a valley glade formed by numerous hills clothed with lush green forests. The view is enchanting and if properly developed can be one of the most beautiful spots attracting even tourists from foreign countries. Nearabout here the boundaries of three states viz., Mahārāṣtra, Madhya Pradeś and Āndhra Pradeś meet.

TADOBA.

Tāḍobā National Park is the most attractive spot in Candrapūr district and is situated in the heart of the Government Reserved Forests of West Candrapūr Division. It has become an ideal resort for the visitors who want to get away from the din and bustle of the city life and the modern civilization, for here they can observe, undisturbed, amidst tranquil conditions the splendid wild life in its natural surroundings, hues and colours.

Extending over an area of 45 square miles, Tadoba is a picturesque spot lavishly endowed by nature and lies about 28 miles from Cānda. Its forests are inhabited by a large variety of wild animals excepting lion, elephant, rhino and a few other species. It is said that there were elephants also but they are extinct now. A *pucca* road from Candrapūr runs to Tāḍobā which for the first six or seven miles traverses through

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TADOBA.

open country or *māl rān* after which it plunges in the forests cutting a zig zag path. After crossing Durgapūr and Padmapūr, two villages in the open country, the first forest village that is to be crossed is Agarzari which serves as a check post. Next comes Mohorli, the headquarters of the Mohorli range in which Tadoba is situated and which lies about 16 miles from Cānda. Seven miles hence is the forest village of Khatodā where the prohibitive boundary around Tadoba begins. At Mohorli the road bifurcates, one arm of it running to Khodaingi touching the forest village of Ramdegi which together with Khatoda are the only two approach roads to Tadoba. At both these places two manned gates have been erected. From Khatoda the real dense forests of Tadoba begin and at some places these are so dense as to prevent even sunrays from penetrating. The road now traverses over an undulating tract and after crossing the Kumbhi *nala* climbs up a hillock unfolding a bewitching view of an expansive lake covering an area of 300 acres with the forest-clothed hills providing an excellent background. This is the Tadoba lake. On this hillock there is a recently constructed rest house of the forest department.

The beautiful Tadoba lake has been formed by bunding up a *nala* and joining three hillocks which surround it. Interesting legends are related about the Tadoba lake and though every one of these is a fantasy of human imagination at least one of these needs to be recorded here. It is said that in ancient days there was no lake here. Once a marriage party happened to camp here during summer. Searching for water to quench their thirst they could not find it anywhere and there was no inhabitation in sight for a long distance round. So it was suggested by the elders in the party that the newly wed pair dig in the centre of the camp. The digging was started accordingly and soon a spring gushed out and they had their meals happily. But to their surprise they found the waters encircling them rapidly and despite their best efforts not a single soul could escape alive. Some say that where the water finally stopped a temple rose and a *Tad* tree grew up by its side. Soon the news spread and people began to flock there. Some even go further and tell that pilgrims in need of utensils used to get them from the pool merely by praying, on the condition that these be returned after the use. Once a greedy pilgrim tried to run away with them but was killed on the way and since then they never appeared again. This is however a stock story told about several wells and lakes in Mahārāṣtra. Immediately after this incident a lightning destroyed the *Tad* tree. Whatever may be the authenticity and credibility of the tale, the fact remains that ruins of an antique dilapidated shrine, with the idols still intact, were discovered here and a pious pilgrim erected a small shrine over it. This is the shrine of Tadobā where on every Sunday of the *Pausa* month a fair is held. Many *adivasis* visit the temple on these occasions. Sometimes people from Candrapūr also visit the temple. There is also a shrine of Maruti. It

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is curious to note that the people still believe in the holiness of the water and take it to sprinkle their crops with, under the mistaken belief that it would keep the crop-pests away.

The Tāḍobā National Park made a humble beginning in 1905 when as a shooting block it was closed for shooting except the destructive carnivora for which a special permit had to be obtained. But in spite of this when it was noticed that wild animal and bird life was rapidly depleting, shooting of all kind was prohibited and in 1935 the block was declared a sanctuary. In 1955 it was declared as a national park and a 45 square mile belt was marked out whose development began at a rapid rate. As an additional protection to wild life a buffer zone of 22 square miles has been created around the park where shooting is also prohibited and as said earlier, in order to regulate traffic and control poaching, two manned gates, one at Khaṭodā on Cāndā-Tāḍoba road and another at Rāmdegi on Mohorli-Khoḍāingī road have been set up. Visitors are forbidden to carry fire-arms inside and a mobile squad is posted to detect poaching. A park officer and a park guard are posted to look after the animals as also to guide and help the tourists. Game wardens keep the track of the movements of the wild animals. As a result of the protection given, wild life has increased rapidly and is not scared easily by the sound of the cars and trucks. No *sanctum sanctorum* is maintained in this park and regular forestry operations are carried out. However, care is taken to avoid disturbing the wild life unduly. Herds of cheetal, *sāmbhar,* blue bull, bison etc., are a common sight in the late afternoons, evenings and mornings around the lake. The lake itself contains quite a few crocodiles and a variety of fishes. Crocodiles can be seen basking in the sun on the lake embankment during winter months. In order to allow the tourist to observe the animals in their natural habitat a network of 88 km. of fair weather roads have been constructed in the park leading to different points. Of these the most important and which the tourists never miss, is the circular road around the lake at whose vantage points *mācaṇs* or towers have been erected from where tourists can observe the animals approaching the lake, drinking and then relaxing. The second important road is the Cheetal road, so named because in the grassy patches along this road large herds of cheetal, *sāmbhar,* bison, deer etc., can be seen grazing at peace, oblivious of the visitors, and occasionally lifting their heads to look around. At convenient places along the roads and near the *mācaṇs* artificial salt-licks have been created to attract the wild animals. *Nālās* have also been bunded to provide a plentiful supply of water to the animals.

The following are the animals commonly met with in the Tāḍobā park: tiger, panther, bison, sloth bear, hyaena, jackal, wild dog, blue bull, *sāmbhar,* cheetal, barking deer, four-horned antelope, chinkara, hare, porcupine, langur and a variety of other animals.

CHAPTER 19. Places. TADOBA.

On the hillock which is reached after crossing the Kumbhi *nālā* is a rest house from where a view of the lake nestling amidst well maintained forests can be had. The sight almost enthrals the visitor. On the bank of the lake there is another rest house from whose verandah, lying in an arm chair one can observe all the animals coming for water on the lake. In the mornings one can have a fine view of the flocks of birds passing over the lake with their images reflected in its still waters. There is also a rest house in the centre of the park and a new one is under construction. A care-taker-*cum*-cook is attached to the forest rest house. There is a proposal to start canteen services. In the vicinity of the lake can be seen the dwellings of the forest employees. Two more rest houses, one each at Moherli and Khaḍsingī, but outside the park limit, are maintained. It is proposed to install refrigerator in the newly constructed rest house and make filtered tap-water available in all the rest houses. These will also be electrified.

The park can be visited during the fair-weather from November to June. But the best time to visit it is from February till the onset of monsoon. At present a luxury coach equipped with radio, and microphone with loud-speaker takes the visitors to the park on every Saturday evening. A running commentary is given by a park officer sitting by the driver's side. The bus leaves in the evening and returns back well after mid-night. Search light arrangement is also made. To-day the park has become a valuable earner of foreign exchange attracting besides tourists, even foreign dignitaries paying visits to this country.

Under a new scheme it is not only proposed to extend the roads inside the park but also to asphalt the already constructed ones. Powerful binoculars would be made available to the interested tourists. Photography arrangements are also being made. It is also proposed to set up benches in the park, lay out a garden in front on the new rest house besides maintaining the old one, to prepare new grass patches, to erect a few more *mācaṇs* or observation towers, and to arrange for the conveyance and lodging and boarding of school and college parties.

TALODHI.

Taḷodhī also known as Taḷodhī Baḍge, is an agricultural village in Brahmapurī tahsil lying on the Mūl-Umreḍ road about 35.40 km. (22 miles) distant from Brahmapurī. Actually it consists of two villages of Taḷodhī and Bamhanī, both of which are shaded by mango and tamarind trees. The population in 1961 was 3,964 and consisted of Mahār, Kompṭī, Dhimār and Khāpevār castes, with a sprinkling of Buruḍs and Sālevārs. Though all pursue their various hereditary occupations, the village is mainly agricultural growing rice and jovar, rice being the staple crop. On a small scale wheat and jovar are also taken as winter crops. There are several shops dealing in cloth and groceries. Taḷodhī has a primary school for girls, a middle school, a post office and an *āyurvedic* dispensary. There are

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three rice mills and one oil mill. Weekly market is held on Wednesday. Drinking water is obtained from the wells and a tank.

THANEGAON.

Ṭhāṇegāṅv is a small village of 1,858 inhabitants, lying 6.43 km. (four miles) south of Ārmorī in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil. Here are a small temple and a tank, the former being of about the same age as that of Ārmorī. The village has a primary school and in addition to the tank drinking water is also obtained from the wells. For household supplies the inhabitants resort to Ārmorī market held on Fridays.

TIPAGAD FORT.

Ṭipagaḍ hills are situated about 95 miles (152.89 km.) north-east of Candrapūr in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil and only three miles (4.82 km.) from Murumgāṅv, also a village in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil, and forms the highest portion of a wild and mountainous region 2,000 feet (609.60 metres) above the sea. From Candrapūr to Murumgāṅv there is a good motorable road which passes through Gaḍhcirolī. On the summit of this range, encircled by the chain upon chain of hills, all covered with the densest forest, stands far from human habitation, the old-fortress of Ṭipagaḍ. Its massive ramparts of huge undressed stone, flanked by bastions and entered through a winding gateway are over two miles in circuit, and within is a tank of considerable size with stone embankment and steps along its water face. This reservoir never fails and is supposed to be of fabulous depth, forming the source of the Ṭipagaḍī river, which flows from its western bank, and becomes in the rains a roaring mountain torrent. This river later unites with the Khobrāgaḍī river. South of the tank, on lofty ground commanding the fortress and an immense expanse of country beyond, rises the inner fort or the citadel (*bāle killā*), with lines of defence similar to those of the outer work, and having within it the remains of what was doubtless the dwelling of the lords of Ṭipagaḍ. Herein there is a cellar similar to that of the Bāḷāpūr fort. There is another, but much smaller, tank in the north-west corner of the fort. According to tradition the greatest of the lords of Ṭipagaḍ was a Goṇḍ prince named Puram Rājā, who had a bodyguard of 2,000 fighting men, and 5 elephants and 25 horses, and held the whole Wairāgaḍ country under his sway. It is said that Puram Rājā was a feudatory of the Cāndā Goṇḍ King, Bābajī Ballāḷśāh, and when Puram conquered Wairāgaḍ for his overlord, it was made over to him by Bābajī Ballāḷśāh. But those were the days when princes only kept their own by doughty deeds in battle field, and as his fame for wealth waxed great, so his peers of Chattisgaḍ swore more and more deeply to wrest the province from him. At length an invading army from Chattisgaḍ entered his dominions, and Puram Rājā advanced to check it. The contending forces met at Kotgul and from thence to Pāṭaṇ a distance of eight miles. The battle raged among the hills during the whole long day. Wherever the fight was the hottest, there rode Puram, striking to the earth all foes within sweep of his

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sword, and as evening drew on the Chattisgaḍ troops began to fall back. But unfortunately one of Puram's embroidered sandals dropped unnoticed to the ground, and, as the battle rolled northwards, was picked up by a laggard in the Ṭipagaḍ ranks. This man fled with it to Ṭipagaḍ and, showing it to the Rāṇī, told that the day was lost and her lord among the slain. The *Rāṇī* shed no tears, but placing the sandal in her bosom, decked herself in all her braveries of gems and silken robes, then mounting her ox-chariot, she drove to the bank of the little lake. Here she halted for a moment and raising her right hand, filled with *til* seeds, to the heavens, thus prayed to Goddess Bhavānī, who guards the fortress walls: 'Grant', dread goddess, that none in days to come may rule thy fort who hath not piled this bank with our foemen's heads as many as the *til* seeds in my hand, and thus saying she forced the oxen down the steep slope in her front and the waters closed above her loving head. In the meanwhile, the Chattisgaḍ forces had been totally routed, and Puram Rājā returned in triumph with roll of drum and cymbal's clash, but as he proudly rode through the arched gateway of his house he learned what woe to him a coward's tale had wrought. Passing onwards he drew bridle on the spot where his wife had breathed her last prayer to heaven, and there springing from the saddle, he plunged into the lake and was seen no more. From that day Ṭipagaḍ became desolate and its kingdom passed away. Nearby the fort a small hamlet of that name has come up now.

WAGHANAKH.

Vāghanakh, with in 1961 a population of 591, is a small village in Waroḍā tahsil lying about two miles (3.21 km.) south of Nāgrī railway station. It contains a very old and peculiarly shaped temple, built of solid slabs without mortar.

WAIRAGAD.

Wairāgaḍ, situated at the confluence of the Kophrāgarhi and the Satnālās in Gaḍhcirolī tahsil, lies about 128.74 km. (80 miles) north-east of Candrapūr and about eight miles from Ārmorī. From Ārmorī it can be reached only by a bullock-cart road. It is a place of great antiquity and is supposed to have been founded in the *Dvāpara Yuga* by a king of the family of the moon, who called it Wairāgaḍ after his own name Vairocan[1]. It has been identified by some as being the same as Virāṭnagarī of the *Mahābhārat* where the Pāṇḍavas passed in hiding the period of their exile in disguise. On coming to historic times we find the city ruled by Mānā Chiefs, who about the 9th century fell before the Goṇḍs and a line of Goṇḍ princes then succeeded, holding in subjection to the Cāndā Kings the *parganas* of Wairāgaḍ with the *Zamindāris* attached to it, and Gārborī and Rājgadh. In those days Wairāgaḍ was a prosperous place, but it has sunk steadily in importance and now has only 2,069 inhabitants. The village is surrounded by groves of extremely fine and ancient

1. Mr. Hira Lal Jain considers the name to be a corruption of 'Vajrakar' meaning 'Diamond mine'. The latter name is mentioned in Tamil inscriptions. For details of identification see Mr. Hira Lal Jain's article in *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. X.

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trees and is grouped around a large stone fortress occupying an area of nearly ten acres. It was erected about the beginning of the 17th century and now lies in a partially decayed condition. It is entered through a triple gateway with a deep and very filthy ditch or *khandak* and the height of its rampart walls ranging in height from 15 to 20 feet (4.57 to 6 metres). At a short distance from the entrance is a broad platform on which perhaps stood the *killedār's* house, with a ruined stepped well nearby. To the right against the rampart is a temple to Keśavnāth from where the idol was removed by the villagers when the temple fell into disrepair and housed it in the village. From the eastern bastions a fine view of the thickly wooded hills can be had. Within the forest, outside the fort premises, is the tomb of the Goṇḍ prince Durgā Śāh, not far from which is the grave of an unknown English girl, said to have been the daughter of the officer who commanded the garrison between 1818 and 1830 A.D. The surrounding land is thickly covered with forest and contains numerous foundations of former buildings. Near the village are several temples, none of which, however, is of much significance. The most antique among them is that of Mahākālī, an unpretending structure probably built by one of the Goṇḍ Rājās. It overlooks a deep reach of the Kophrāgarhi, wherein is supposed to stand an old-world temple buried in the sand. Wairāgaḍ once possessed diamond mines and are referred to in the *Ain-i-Akbarī* of Abul Fazl. On a hill, at the foot of which there used to be one of these mines, stands an old Muhammedan *Idgāh* and nearly 108 Musalman tombs which appear to be those of the soldiers killed in the battle when Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī made a raid on Wairāgaḍ about 1422 A.D. About half a mile to the south of Wairāgaḍ is a small temple of Bhadreśvar crowning the top of a small hillock. It is probably quite antique and bears great resemblance to the style after which the Mārkaṇḍeya temple at Mārkaṇḍā is built. Wairāgaḍ has a medical practitioner, a middle school and a post office. Thursday is the bazar day.

WARODA.

Waroḍā the headquarters town of the Waroḍā tahsil is a colliery town in Candrapūr district with in 1961 a population of 14,148. It is situated in 20° 14′ north latitude and 79° 1′ east longitude and lies 45 km. (28 miles) north-west of Candrapūr on the Candrapūr-Nāgpūr road. It is also connected with Candrapūr by a broad gauge railway line of the Central Railway which further runs to Madras. Prior to 1908 this road was the only connecting link with Cāndā and Waroḍā derived much importance from its position as the terminus of the Wardhā-Waroḍā rail extension, the merchandise of the western half of this district as also a large part of Edlābād district of the present Āndhra Pradeś State passing through Waroḍā to and from the outside regions. Most of the traffic was then naturally with Bombay *via* Wardhā. Later the extension of the railway to Candrapūr, Ballarpūr, otherwise known as Ballārśāh, and beyond

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linking Madras affected the position and importance of Waroḍā, but it nevertheless continues to be an important trading centre. Waroḍā tahsil as a whole has over 12,545.26 hectares (31,000 acres) of land under cotton crop and before the establishment of the market committee at Waroḍā, practically the entire produce used to be carried either to the important cotton market of Hiṅganghāṭ or Waṇī. In 1960 was established the Waroḍā agriculture market committee which started functioning in 1963 and since then no cotton or grain is taken to the outside market. It now handles large quantities of cotton, rice and jovar. In fact it is the only significant cotton market of the district. There was also the inadequacy of gins and presses in spite of a few factories. This difficulty was overcome with the establishment of a large ginning and pressing factory in 1964 on co-operative basis. An oil mill has also been established on the same line. In order to provide improved variety of seeds and seedlings to the agriculturists after carrying out scientific research and experiments, a seed growing farm covering an area of 33.82 hectares (83.57 acres) and named as Ekārjunâ seed and seedling growing centre has been established along Cāndā road, about two miles (3.21 km.) from Waroḍā. It produces improved seeds of cotton, jovar, wheat, paddy, sesamum, lacquer and *javas*. Research and experiments are also carried out to produce better strains. An artificial tank for conserving water has also been built. Besides providing improved seeds, a *Dhan Vikās Yojnā* for the propagation of Japanese method of paddy cultivation, which yields more rice per acre, has also been started. Through the efforts of this centre large areas have already been brought under the Japanese method with excellent results. Primarily the town owed its importance to the colliery which was formerly worked here and it was simply the existence of the colliery which initially led to the construction of the Wardhā-Waroḍā rail extension. The colliery was stopped in 1906. Recently new deposits of coal seams covering an area of 5.18 km.^{2} (two square miles) and estimated to be 90 lakh tons have been struck. To finance the agriculturists and other small scale industries the Waroḍā Central Co-operative Bank was established in 1912 and a year earlier that of Brahmapurī. These two were amalgamated in 1963 and the headquarters were fixed at Candrapūr. A district industrial society has been set up and under its programme two handloom units have been opened at Waroḍā.

Municipality

Waroḍā was constituted a municipality in 1867 and has an area of 9.73 km.^{2} (3.76 square miles) under its jurisdiction. The municipal committee headed by the president, elected by the councillors from among themselves, consists of 16 councillors. Aided by the necessary ministerial staff an elected president looks after the municipal administration.

Finance.—In 1964-65 the total municipal income derived from various sources like taxes, municipal property, realizations under special acts, miscellaneous, etc., amounted to Rs. 7,28,608. Correspondingly, during the same year, an expenditure of

CHAPTER 19. Places. WARODA. Municipality.

Rs. 8,48,849 was incurred on account of general administration, public safety, health, convenience and instruction, and other miscellaneous heads. The excess of expenditure seems to have been made up from the reserves or the balance of the previous years.

Health, Sanitation and Water supply.—Medical aid is rendered by a civil dispensary conducted by the municipality. Besides, special arrangements are made from time to time as the need arises to vaccinate and inoculate the people. A veterinary dispensary is also maintained by the municipality. The malaria eradication centre working under the Zillā Parisad has largely succeeded in wiping out malaria from this area. The town has only stone-lined open drains. Water works supplying tap water to the inhabitants was constructed in 1963 at an approximate cost of Rs. 2.50 lakhs. However, during the latter part of summer scarcity of water is intensely felt.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is implemented by the town municipality. Besides primary schools, Waroḍā has four privately conducted high schools. The Zillā Parisad also maintains a high school. For higher education there is a college with the faculties of arts, commerce, agriculture and science. Thus it can be seen that Waroḍā has good educational facilities. The public library of the town makes newspapers, magazines and periodicals available to the general public.

The municipality has provided three markets, one each for vegetables, meat and cloth. Of the three cremation and burial grounds in the town only one is maintained by the municipality. A garden covering nearly seven acres of land is maintained by the municipality.

Being the headquarters of a tahsil, the town besides the māmlatdār's office has civil and criminal courts, a police station, a block development office and various other government offices. There is a post and telegraph office and a rest house too. But yet the town itself is very congested and the whole appearance it wears is unattractive. However, in recent times a few modern buildings have come up here and there and these are the only bright spots amongst a whole crowd of old and shabby dwellings Every year, however, something new is done to improve the appearance of the town by the construction of new roads and drains as the funds permit. Of the buildings presenting any antiquarian or artistic interest there are none whatever. On Waroḍā-Cimūr road about two miles from Waroḍā a large colony of leprosy affected persons has sprung up. It was started and is conducted by one Sri Amte. Various types of small scale enterprises are run by the recovered patients. Yet, in spite of water difficulties, Waroḍā to-day is one of the healthiest places in the district.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATIONS OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of Towns and Villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the District.

Column (1).—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā-आ; ī-ई; ū-ऊ; ṛ-ऋ; c-च; ch-छ; ṭ-ट; th-ठ; ḍ-ड; ḍh-ढ; n-ण; ñ-ञ; ṅ-ङ; ṇ-ण; s-स; ś-श; ṣ-ष; l-ळ.

Abbreviations indicating tahsils.—

Bhm—Brahmapuri.	Raj—Rajura.
Chd—Chanda.	Srn—Sironcha.
Gdc—Gadhchiroli.	War—Warora.

Column (2).—(*a*) Direction and (*b*) Travelling distance of the village from the tahsil headquarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from tahsil headquarters :—

E—East.	NE—North-East.
W—West.	SE—South-East.
N—North.	NW—North-West.
S—South.	SW—South-West.

Column (3).—(*a*) Area (Sq. miles); (*b*) Total population ; (*c*) Number of households ; (*d*) Total number of agricultural population.

Column (4).—(*a*) Post office ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.
Column (5).—(*a*) Railway station ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.
Column (6).—(*a*) Weekly bazar ; (*b*) Bazar day; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.
Column (7).—(*a*) Nearest motor stand ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.
Column (8).—Drinking water facilities available in the village :—

br—brook.	Pl—pipe-line.	cl—canal.	spr—spring.
n—nalla.	str—stream.	o—scarcity of water.	
t—tank.	p—pond.	W—big well.	rsr—reservoir.
w—small well.			

Column (9).—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription :—

Sl—school.	Cs—Co-operative society.	(sp)—sale and purchase.	dh—dharmashala.
(h)—high.	(c)—credit.	(wvg)—weaving.	gym—gymnasium.
(m)—middle.	(fmg)—farming.	(Fr)—fair.	ch—chavadi.
(pr)—primary.	(gr)—group.	tl—temple.	lib—library.
(tr-clg)—training college.	(i)—industrial (con)—consumers.	m—math.	dp—dispensary.
		mq—mosque.	(vet)—veterinary.
mun—municipality	(mis)—miscellaneous.	dg—dargah.	Cch—Church.
pyt—panchayat.	(mp)—multipurpose.		ins—inscription.

Months according to Hindu calendar :—

Ct—Chaitra ; Vsk—Vaishakha ; Jt—Jaishtha ; Asd—Ashadha ; Srn—Shravana ; Bdp—Bhadrapada; An—Ashvina ; Kt—Kartika ; Mrg—Margashirsha ; Ps—Pausha ; Mg—Magha ; Phg—Phalguna. Sud—Shuddha (first fortnight of the month); Vad—Vadya (second fortnight of the month).

N.B.—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) and (7) are given in miles and furlongs.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ābā Maktā—War.—आबा मक्ता ..	N; 19·0	1·9; 369; 84; 208	Sakhara; 2·0	Warora; 19·0	Sakhara; 2·0; Sun.	Chargaon Bk.; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Abanapallī—Srn.—अबनपल्ली ..	N; 70·0	0·2; 32; 7; 24	Kondoli (Surveyed); 2·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Allapalli; .. Sun.	.. 16·0	W.	ch.
Abanapallī (Surveyed)—Srn.—अबनपल्ली (सर्व्हेड) ..	N; ..	0·4; 154; 29; 84	Aheri; 4·0	Balharshah; 76·0	Aheri; 4·0; Sat.	Aheri; 3·0	n.	..
Ābāpūr—Gdc—आबापूर ..	S; 24·0	0·1; 30; 7; 19	Muranda; ..	Mul; 34·0	Talodhi Mokasa; .. Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0	W;t.	..
Aḍaṅgā—Srn.—अडंगा ..	NE; 120·0	0·2; 56; 10; 17	Yetapalli; 25·0	Balharshah; 152·0	Allapalli; 58·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 58·0	W;n.	..
Aḍapallī—Gdc.—अडपल्ली ..	N; 2·6	1·7; 893; 178; 453	Gogaon; 0·2;	Mul; 28·0	Gadhchiroli; 2·6; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 2·6	W;t.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl.
Aḍapallī—Gdc.—अडपल्ली ..	S; ..	2·6; 537; 127; 228	Konsari; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Fri.	Ashti; ..	W.	..
Aḍapallī Patch—Gdc.—अडपल्ली पॅच ..	S; ..	2·6; 294; 67; 165	Ashti; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Fri.	Ashti; ..	W.	..
Aḍegāṅv—Chd.—अडेगांव ..	SE; ..	2·1; 512; 102; 251	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Aḍegāṅv—War.—अडेगांव ..	NE; 40·0	1·8; 763; 146; 459	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 40·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	W.	Cs; 2tl.
Aḍegāṅv—War.—अडेगांव ..	NE; 46·0	1·1; 235; 52; 136	Neri; 7·0	Kanpa; 28·0	Neri; 8·0; Wed.	Neri; 8·0	W.	..
Āḍimuttāpūr—Srn.—आदिमुत्तापूर ..	S; 1·0	0·5; 225; 46; 125	Sironcha; 1·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Sironcha; 1·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 1·0	W.	..
Aḍyāḷ—Bhm.—अडयाळ ..	W; 6·0	3·9; 794; 199; 480	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·6	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·6	Kirmiti Mendha; .. Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha;	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Aḍyāḷ—Gdc.—अडयाळ ..	S; 30·0	7·6; 888; 192; 536	.. 1·0	Mul; 24·0	Local; ..	Ashti; 12·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Āgaḍī—Chd.—आगडी ..	E; 20·0	2·0; 170; 38; 103	Chiroli; 4·0	Totewahi; 3·0	Mul; 7·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr).
Āgaṛā—War.—आग्रा ..	E; 12·0	1·5; 332; 62; 193	Sagara; 2·0	Warora; 12·0	Chandankheda; 3·0; Thu.	Warora; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Aherī—Raj.—अहेरी ..	SW; 5·0	2·2; 737; 152; 420	Pandharpouni; 2·0	Manikgad; 7·0	Rajura; 5·0; Sat.	Rajura; 5·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); tl.
Aherī—Srn.—अहेरी ..	N; 65·0	3·7; 4608; 1,032; 671	Local; ..	Balharshah; 62·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;t.	5Sl(2pr, 2m, h); 2Cs; 4tl; mq; dg; lib; 2dp.
Āīpeṭā Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—आईपेटा रैय्यतवारी	SE; 10·0	3·6; 115; 28; 70	Janampalli; 9·0	Balharshah; 139·0	Sironcha; 8·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 10·0	W;rv; t.	Sl(pr).
Ājagāṅv—War.—आजगांव ..	NE; 51·0	1·0; 296; 59; 168	Shankarpur; 2·0		3·0 Shankarpur; 2·0; Mon.	Local; 0·4	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Ājanagāṅv—War.—आजनगांव ..	N; 13·0	2·3; 456; 102; 228	Barvha; 2·0	Nagri; 3·0	Nagri; 2·0; Tue.	Khambada; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Ajayapūr Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—अजयपूर रैय्यतवारी ..	E; 15·0	2·1; 422; 89; 248	Chichpalli; 1·0	Chichpalli; 5·0	Chichpalli; 1·0; Mon.	Chichpalli; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl; 2dp(vet).
Ākāpūr—Bhm.—आकापूर ..	SW; 23·0	1·5; 620; 135; 330	Balapur Bk.; ..	Talodhi; 3·0	Balapur; 4·0; Fri.	Balapur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; gym.
Ākāpūr—Bhm.—आकापूर ..	S; 35·0	1·1; 485; 98; 300	Mudza; 2·0	Sindevahi; 30·0	Mudza; 2·0; Mon.	Vyahad; 10·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Ākāpūr—Chd.—आकापूर ..	NE; 30·0	0·8; 269; 52; 137	Chiwandha; 1·0	Mul; 2·0	Mul; 2·0; Wed.	Local, ..	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; tl; ch.
Ākāpūr (Rupāḷā)—Bhm.—आकापूर (रुपाळा) ..	S; 10·0	1·8; 141; 28; 81	Mendaki; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 10·0	Mendaki; 2·4; Tue.	Brahmapuri; 10·0	W;t.	2tl; ch.
Ākasāpūr—Bhm.—आकसापूर ..	S; 15·0	2·1; 352; 81; 225	Gangalvadi; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 25·0	Gangalvadi; 3·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Ākolā—Raj.—आकोला ..	W; 32·0	1·3; 191; 43; 65	Korpana; 4·0	Rajura Manikgad; ..	Korpana; 4·0; Fri.	Local; ..	rv.	..
Ākolā—War.—आकोला ..	NE; ..	2·6; 439; 92; 259	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	..
Āksāpūr—Chd.—आक्सापूर ..	SE; ..	1·1; 391; 88; 226	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Āladaṇḍī Masāhat—Srn.—आलदंडी मसाहत ..	N; 26·0	0·1; 86; 14; 44	Perimili; 2·0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 22·0; Sun.	Perimili; 2·0	W;n.	ch.
Āladaṇḍī (Surveyed)—Srn.—आलदंडी (सर्व्हेड)	N; 80·0	2·2; 112; 15; 50	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Allapalli; 27·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 27·0	rv;n.	tl; ch.
Ālaphaḷ Urf Sātārā—War.—आलफळ उर्फ सातारा	N; ..	2·1; 258; 50; 157	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Āleṅgā—Srn.—आलेंगा ..	N; 118·0	0·2; 74; 12; 47	Kasansoor; 8·0	Mul; 67·0	Gadhchiroli; 42·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 8·0	W;n.	..
Āleṅgā—Srn.—आलेंगा ..	NE; 100·0	2·9; 132; 16; 50	Yetapalli; 20·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 38·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 38·0	rv;n.	Sl(pr); Cs(gr).
Āleṅgā Masāhat—Srn.—आलेंगा मसाहत ..	N; ..	0·3; 144; 21; 84	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Ālesūr—Bhm.—आलेसूर ..	SW; 32·0	1·2; 241; 54; 156	Navargaon; 1·0	Sindevahi; 8·0	Navargaon; 1·0; Thu.	Navargaon; 1·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Ālevāhī—Bhm.—आलेवाही ..	SW; 28·0	6·8; 1123; 245; 525	Local; ..	Local, ..	Vadhona; Sun.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr); tl.
Ālevāhī Navegāṅv—Chd.—आलेवाही नवेगांव	NE; 91·0	1·1; 91; 21; 56	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Alīṭolā—Gdc.—अलीटोला ..	NE; 31·0	1·4; 238; 43; 139	Kurkheda; 31·0	Wadsa; 47·0	Betkathi; 1·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 34·0	W;n; t.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Aloṇḍī—Gdc.—अलोंडी ..	SE; 70·0	2·4; 83; 16; 50	Kurkheda; 45·0	Desaiganj; 70·0	Kotgul; 7·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	n.	..
Āmaḍī—Chd.—आमडी ..	SE; 18·0	2·5; 558; 123; 331	Kothari; 4·0	Balharshah; 8·0	Kothari; 4·0; Mon.	Kothari; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āmaḍī—War.—आमडी ..	NE; ..	3·1; 694; 149; 313	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Āmaḍī Harabājī—War.—आमडी हरबाजी ..	W; 11·0	2·9; 600; 136; 340	Soit; 3·0	Warora; 11·0	Madheli Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	Warora; 11·0	rv;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; Wadkeshwar Fr. Pus. Vad. 6; 2tl.
Āmagāṅv—Gdc.—आमगांव ..	N; 32·0	5·7; 2112; 414; 992	Desaiganj; 1·0	Desaiganj; 1·0	Desaiganj; 1·0; Sun.	Desaiganj; 1·0	W;rv; t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; Ram Navami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3tl; m; gym; lib.
Āmagāṅv—Gdc.—आमगांव ..	S; ..	2·1; 1008; 212; 548	Local; ..	Mul; ..	Chamorshi; .. Sat.	Ghot; ..	W;rv; t.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Āmapāyalī—Gdc.—आमपायली ..	NE; 34·0	0·1; 33; 6; 19	Yerkadmohad; 4·4	Mul; 49·0	Murumgaon; 3·0; Tue.	Stage; ..	W;t.	Cs.
Amarakāsā—Gdc.—अमरकासा ..	NE; 43·0	1·6; 347; 64; 171	Kurkheda; 43·0	Wadsa; 52·0	Kotgul; .. Fri.	Murumgaon; 16·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); pyt; tl.
Amarapurī—War.—अमरपुरी ..	NE; ..	1·3; 514; 110; 242	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Amarāvatī Clearance—Srn.—अमरावती क्लियरन्स ..	N; 4·0	0·8; 307; 73; 182	Sironcha; 4·0	Manchatiyal; 39·0	Sironcha; 4·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	..
Āmbaī Tukūm—Chd.—आंबई तुकूम	E; ..	0·2; 86; 14; 49	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Āmbaṭ Pallī—Gdc.—आंबट पल्ली ..	S; 70·0	1·1; 143; 26; 87	Yelgur; 8·0	Balharshah; 95·0	Bori; 12·0; Wed.	Bori; 12·0	W;t.	tl.
Āmbejharā—Srn.—आंबेझरा ..	N; 38·0	0·1; 56; 13; 35	.. 12·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	tl.
Āmbejharī—Gdc.—आंबेझरी ..	NE; 85·0	0·2; 67; 11; 49	Kurkheda; 11·0	Desaiganj; 27·0	Kurkheda; 11·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 11·0	n.	..
Āmbejharī—Gdc.—आंबेझरी ..	NE; 33·0	0·2; 62; 11; 35	Murumgaon; 10·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Murumgaon; 10·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 10·0	rv.	..
Āmbejharī—War.—आंबेझरी ..	SE; 18·0	0·4; 101; 31; 34	Moharli; 2·0	Bhadravati; 15·0	Sawarla Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon; 3·0; Wed.	Moharli; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ambekhairī—Gdc.—आंबेखैरी ..	NE; 80·0	1·9; 79; 14; 45	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Maseli; 6·0; Fri.	Kurkheda; ..	W.	..
Ambekharī—Gdc.—आंबेखरी ..	NE; 66·0	0·8; 92; 17; 62	Kurkheda; 27·0	Wadsa; 43·0	Belgaon; 6·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 27·0	W.	..
Ambenerī—War.—आंबेनेरी ..	NE; 43·0	1·9; 737; 152; 459	Local; ..	Kanpa; 14·0	Jambhulghat; 3·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 3·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl.
Ambeśīvanī—Gdc.—आंबेशिवनी ..	E; 9·0	2·3; 891; 169; 509	Local; ..	Mul; 34·0	Gilgaon; 5·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 9·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Ambeṭolā—Gdc.—आंबेटोला ..	E; 10·0	1·5; 268; 56; 155	Ambeshioni; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 10·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Ambhorā—Chd.—अंभोरा ..	N; 4·0	0·9; 217; 53; 147	Chanda; 4·0	Chanda; 4·0	Chanda; 4·0; Wed.	Chanda; 4·0	rv.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Āmbolī—Bhm.—आंबोली ..	SW; 29·0	1·3; 219; 45; 103	Sindevahi; 1·6	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevah ; 1·6; Mon.	Sindevahi; 1·6	W;rv.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Āmbolī—Gdc.—आंबोली ..	SW; 34·0	1·3; 218; 44; 132	Chittaranjan; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Adyal; .. Sat.	Ashti; 10·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āmbolī—War.—आंबोली ..	NE; 50·0	3·1; 1620; 346; 959	**Shankarpur; 3·0**	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 3tl; m.
Amirjhā—Gdc.—अमिर्झा ..	N; 12·0	3·0; 1637; 330; 905	Local; ..	Wadsa; 30·0	Gilgaon; 3·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2tl; m. mq; dg; lib; 2dp(lvet);
Anakhoḍā—Gdc.—अनखोडा ..	SW; 42·0	2·2; 1475; 285; 823	Local; ..	Ballarshah; 35·0	Ashti; 1·0; Fri.	Ashti; 1·0	W.	2Sl(pr,m); 2Cs; 2tl; ch; lib.
Āndhaḷī—Gdc.—आंधळी .	N; 59·0	1·1; 753; 138; 453	Kurkheda; 5·0	Wadsa; 12·0	Kurkheda; 5·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 5·0	W;rv;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āndhaḷī—Gdc.—आंधळी ..	NE; 114·0	2·1; 108; 20; 80	Kurkheda; 10·0	Desaiganj; 26·0	Kurkheda; 10·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;n;t	Cs; ch.
Aṅgārā—Gdc.—अंगारा ..	NE; 44·0	1·4; 566; 117; 371	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 30·0	Malevada; 5·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 14·0	W.	2Sl(pr,m); Cs; tl; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Aṅkisā—Srn.—अंकिसा ..	SE; 16·0	6·0; 3474; 794; 1,461	Local; ..	Manchariyal; 75·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W.	3Sl(2pr,h) Cs; Ramjanma Fr.Ct.Sud.9;2tl;mq;dp.
Annūr—Raj.—अन्नूर ..	S; ..	1·9; 163; 32; 94	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Antaragāṅv—Bhm.—अंतरगांव ..	SW; ..	2·2; 1141; 197; 629	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Antaragāṅv—Bhm.—अंतरगांव ..	S; 30·0	8·4; 1925; 383; 971	Local; ..	Rajoli; 15·0	Pathari; 5·0; Fri.	Vyahad; 7·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); 2Cs; 4tl; dp.
Antaragāṅv—Chd.—अंतरगांव ..	NE; 27·0	2·0; 23; 5; 7	Mul; 0·4	Mul; 0·2	Mul; 0·6; Wed.	Mul; 0·4	W.	..
Antaragāṅv—Gdc.—अंतरगांव ..	NE; 68·0	1·5; 135; 29; 83	Kurkheda; 45·0	Wadsa; 67·0	Kotgul; 5·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 26·0	n.	Sl(pr).
Antaragāṅv—Gdc.—अंतरगांव ..	NE; 114·0	1·7; 410; 79; 240	Purada; 1·0	Desaiganj; 26·0	Ramgad; 3·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W; rv;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; ch.
Antaragāṅv—Raj.—अंतरगांव ..	SE; 21·0	2·9; 245; 67; 124	Chincholi Bk.; 2·0	Local; ..	Virur; .. Wed.	.. 16·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); tl.
Antaragāṅv Bk.—Raj.—अंतरगांव बु..	W; 24·0	3·5; 1140; 250; 594	Local ; ..	Ghugus; 12·0	Vansadi; 6·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;n.	2Sl(pr, m.); pyt; Cs(c); Ram Navami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; tl.
Antaragāṅv Kh.—Raj.—अंतरगांव खु.	W; 6·0	1·7; 261; 50; 134	Pandharpouni; 4·0	Manikgad; 9·0	Rajura; 6·0; Sat.	Rajura; 6·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); tl.
Anturlā—Chd.—अंतुर्ला ..	W; 7·0	1·8; 274; 52; 165	Shengaon; 2·0	Tadali; 5·0	Ghugus; 5·0; Sun.	Tadali; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Apāpallī—Srn.—अपापल्ली ..	N; 72·0	0·2; 25; 5; 15	Bori; 12·0	Balharshah; 68·0	Bori; 12·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	W;n.	..
Āraḍā—Srn.—आरडा ..	S; 2·0	2·3; 613; 140; 126	Janampalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 131·0	Sironcha; 4·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 4·0	W;rv;t.	Sl(pr); Mallikarjun Fr. Mg; tl.
Ārmorī—Gdc.—आरमोरी ..	N; 21·0	8·8; 8628; 1,812; 2,492	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 12·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W.	6Sl(2pr, 2m, 2h); 8Cs (c, sp, frm, 5mis); 5tl; m; 2gym; lib; dp.
Arasoḍā—Gdc.—अरसोडा ..	N; 22·0	2·1; 1153; 223; 655	Armori; 1·0	De aiganj; 13·0	Armori; 1·0; Fri.	Armori; 1·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Aratatoṇḍī—Gdc.—अरततोंडी ..	N; 28·0	0·7; 308; 58; 188	Visora; 5·0	Desaiganj; 8·0	Desaiganj; 8·0; Sun.	Visora; 8·0	n.	Sl(pr); 3tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Aratatoṇḍī—Gdc.—अरततोंडी ..	N; 50·0	2·6; 244; 52; 162	Desaiganj; 16·0	Desaiganj; 16·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W.	Sl(pr);Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 2tl.
Āravaṭ—Chd.—आरवट ..	S; 4·0	1·4; 693; 134; 258	Marda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Āravī—Chd.—आरवी ..	SE; ..	1·6; 286; 77; 167	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ārendā—Srn.—आरेंदा ..	N; 72·0	6·5; 158; 28; 102;	Aheri; 21·0	Balharshah; 85·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Ārevāḍā—Srn.—आरेवाडा ..	NE; 96·0	4·3; 374; 77; 205	Allapalli; 50·0	Balharshah; 122·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Aheri; 54·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Arher Navargāṅv—Bhm.—अऱ्हेर नवरगांव ..	N; 5·0	4·6; 2943; 602; 1535	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Local; .. Mon.	Brahmapuri 5·0	W.	2Sl(pr, h); Cs; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3tl; lib; dp.
Arjunī—Gdc.—अर्जुनी ..	NE; 31·0	1·5; 88; 17; 55	Yerkadmohad; 5·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Bhakarandi; 5·0; Tue.	Dhanora; 10·0	W;n.	..
Arjunī—War.—अर्जुनी ..	NE; 16·0	3·1; 742; 167; 457	Chargaon Bk.; 4·0	Warora; 16·0	Chargaon Kh.; 3·0; Tue.	Chargaon Bk.; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl; ch.
Arjunī Tukūm—War.—अर्जुनी तुकूम ..	NE; 16·0	0·3; 17; 4; 9	Chargaon Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 16·0	Chargaon Kh.; 2·0; Tue.	Chargaon Bk.; 3·0	t.	tl.
Arkāpallī—Srn.—अर्कापल्ली ..	NE; 33·0	1·1; 171; 39; 110	Kamalapur; 10·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Kamalapur; 10·0; Sun.	Gundera; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); ch.
Ārvī—Raj.—आर्वी ..	W; 2·0	1·8; 477; 103; 234	Rajura; 2·0	Manikgad; 3·2	Rajura; 2·0; Sat.	Rajura; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt.
Ārvī—War.—आर्वी ..	N; 14·0	1·4; 211; 54; 136	Barvha; 0·3	Nagri; 6·0	Barvha; 0·3; Wed.	Khambada; 3·8	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Āsālā—War.—आसाला ..	N; ..	2·0; 341; 57; 200	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Āsalī Masāhat—Srn.—आसली मसाहत ..	NE; 45·0	0·2; 29; 5; 16	Aheri; 45·0	Balharshah; 109·0	Aheri; 45·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 15·0	W.	..
Āsā Masāhat—Srn.—आसा मसाहत ..	N; 48·0	0·2; 50; 9; 37	Kamalapur; 10·0	Balharshah; 99·0	Kamalapur; 10·0; Sun.	Repanapalli; 12·0	W;n	ch.
Āsan Bk.—Raj.—आसन बु. ..	W; 20·0	1·1; 110; 23; 76	Nanda; 2·0	Manikgad; 22·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandur; 6·0	W;n	Sl(pr); tl.
Āsan Kh.—Raj.—आसन खु. ..	W; 23·0	1·0; 114; 29; 97	Antargaon Bk.; 5·0	Manikgad; 26·0	Vansadi; 3·0; Wed.	Vadgaon; 3·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Āsarallī—Srn.—आसरल्ली ..	SE; 20·0	3·7; 2913; 582; 1371	Local; ..	Balharshah; 138·0	Local; .. Fri.	Sironcha; 20·0	W.	4Sl(3pr, m); Cs; 3tl; dp; Cch.
Āsāvaṇḍī—Srn—आसावंडी ..	N; 111·0	2·2; 144; 23; 79;	Ghotsur; 14·0	Mul; 64·0	Gadhchiroli; 34·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 8·0	n.	Sl(pr); ch.
Āśī—War.—आशी ..	NW; 7·0	3·9; 844; 164; 522	Chikani; 2·0	Chikani; 2·0	Chikani; 2·0; Fri.	Warora; 7·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; 3dg.
Āsolā—War.—आसोला ..	NE; 52·0	0·9; 42; 9; 27	Shankarpur; 3·0	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W.	tl.
Āṣṭā—Chd.—आष्टा ..	E; ..	1·8; 390; 71; 243	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Āṣṭā—Gdc.—आष्टा ..	N; 24·0	1·6; 321; 66; 161	Armori; 4·0	Desaiganj; 12·0	Armori; 4·0; Fri.	Armori; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Āṣṭā—War.—आष्टा ..	NE; 19·0	3·0; 1146; 227; 515	Local; ..	Warora; 19·0	Local; .. Sun.	Shegaon Bk.; 7·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2tl; 2dg; lib; dp.
Āṣṭī—Chd.—आष्टी ..	SE; 16·0	2·0; 49; 8; 27	Kotheri; 5·0	Balharshah; 6·0	Ballarpur; 5·0; Sun.	Ballarpur; 5·0	W;t.	tl; ch.
Āṣṭī—Gdc.—आष्टी ..	SW; 52·0	0·8; 843; 180; 375	Local; ..	Balharshah; 34·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Āṣṭī Kākaḍe—War.—आष्टी काकडे ..	E; 18·0	3·3; 403; 91; 234	Chora; 3·0	Bhadravati; 12·0	Chandankheda; 5·0; Thu.	Bhadravati; 12·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āṣṭī Nokevāḍā—Gdc.—आष्टी नाकेवाडा ..	SW; 52·0	1·1; 124; 31; 30	Ashti; ..	Balharshah; 34·0	Local; .. Fri.	Ashti; 0·½	W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Āṣṭī Paṅkharāj—War—आष्टी पंखराज ..	W; ..	0·7; 190 37; 112	Warora; ..	Warora; ..	Warora; .. Sun.	Warora; ..	W;n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Āṣṭī Tukūm—War.—आष्टी तुकूम ..	E; 18·0	0·8; 85; 15; 50	Chora; 3·0	Bhadravati : 12·0	Chandan-kheda; 5·0; Thu.	Chandan-kheda; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Āsvalahuḍakī—Gdc.—आस्वलहुडकी..	NE; 70·0	1·3; 64; 9; 42	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Kurkheda; 27·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Āsvalapūr—Gdc.—आस्वलपूर ..	NE; 25·0	2·4; 89; 17; 61	Mohali; 3·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Rangi; 3·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 14·0	W;n.	..
Āṭamurḍī—War.— आटमुर्डी ..	N; 7·0	2·0; 260; 53; 155	Tembhurda; 1·0	Dongargaon; 2·0	Tembhurda; 1·0; Thu.	Tembhurda; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āvaḷagāṅv—Bhm.—आवळगांव ..	SE; 20·0	6·6; 2633; 495; 1,533	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 20·0	Gangalvadi; 6·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 6·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); 2Cs; Mahashivratra Fr.Mg; 4tl;dp.
Āvalamarrī—Srn.—आवलमर्री ..	N; 45·0	1·7; 363; 80; 196	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 14·0	rv;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Avālapūr—Raj.— अवालपूर ..	W; 18·0	3·5; 744; 158; 406	Nanda; 2·0	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandur; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Āvaṇdhā Raiyyatvārī—War.—आवंढा रैय्यतवारी	SE; ..	3·2; 613; 136; 349	.. 2·0	Tadali; 4·0	Tadali; 4·0; ..	Mokha; 4·0	W;n;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Bābāpūr—Raj.—बाबापूर ..	S; 44·0	0·2; 68; 12; 38	Indhani; 2·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Indhani; 2·0; ..	Indhani; 2·0	W;n.	..
Bābāpūr—Raj.—बाबापूर ..	N; ..	1·4; 269; 48; 155	Charli; 2·0	Manikgad; 9·0	Rajura; 6·0; Sat.	Rajura; 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Bābārāḷā—Chd.—बाबाराळा ..	E; 36·0	1·2; 233; 44; 135	Bembal; 2·0	Mul; 11·0	Nandgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Mul; 11·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Bādalī Tukūm—Gdc.—बादली तुकूम	E; 4·0	0·1; 817; 149; 505	Local; ..	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Bādhonā—Gdc.—बाधोना ..	NE; 38·0	1·1; 235; 40; 160	Angara; 5·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Bhakrandi; 2·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 18·0	W.	Sl(pr); ch.
Bāhmaṇī—Chd.—बाह्मणी ..	S; 12·0	2·3; 1440; 283; 557	Local; ..	Balharshah; 2·0	Ballarpur; 2·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2tl; gym; ch; lib.
Bāmhaṇī Dev—Gdc.—बाम्हणी देव ..	SW; 36·0	0·4; 98; 24; 61	Konseri; 4·0	Mul; 20·0	Ashti; 5·0; Fri.	Ashti; 5·0	W.	..
Bākharḍī—Raj.—बाखर्डी ..	W; 14·0	3·8; 833; 171; 386	Local; ..	Manikgad; 16·0	Chandur; 7·0; Tue.	Chandur; 7·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 3tl; ch.
Bālāpūr Bk.—Bhm.— बालापूर बु. ..	SW; 20·0	2·6; 1252; 284; 658	Local; ..	Talodhi; 1·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2tl; 2gym; dp.
Bālāpūr Kh.—Bhm.— बालापूर खु. ..	W; 6·0	1·4; 431; 88; 247	Mousi; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Mousi; 2·0; Sat.	Kirmiti Mendha; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Ballārapūr—Bhm.—बल्लारपूर ..	S; 30·0	7·9; 306; 56; 169	Halda; 2·0	Alevahi; 18·0	Mudza; 2·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Ballārapūr (Urban—Area II)——Chd. बल्लारपूर (नागरी विभाग 2)	S; 11·0	3·5; 20351; 5,055; 557	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	12Sl(4pr, 4m, 4h); 6Cs; 3tl; m; mq; dg; gym; 2lib; 7dp; 2Cch.
Bāmanavāḍā—Raj.—बामनवाडा ..	E; 1·0	4·7; 511; 104; 261	Rajura; 1·0	Manikgad; 0·2	Rajura; 1·0; Sat.	Rajura; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt.
Bāmaṇī—Bhm.—बामणी ..	SW; 38·0	0·8; 75; 15; 47	Petgaon; 2·0	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 4·0	W;t.	Cs; tl.
Bāmaṇī—Bhm.—बामणी ..	SW; 22·0	0·8, 632; 138; 281	Talodhi; 0·1	Balapur; 5·0	Talodhi; 0·1; Wed.	I ocal; ..	W.	5Sl(3pr, m, h); Cs; tl.
Bāmaṇī—Srn.—बामणी ..	N; 12·0	1·1; 85; 18; 54	Tekda (Talla); 4·0	Manchariyal; 36·0	Venkatapur; 1·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	tl.
Bāmarḍā—War.— बामर्डा ..	NW; 13·4	1·0; 297; 66; 158	M dheli Bk.; 2·0	Dongargaon; 5·0	Madheli Bk; 2·0; Mon.	Warora; 13·4	W;n.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Bāmhaṇagāṅv—War.—बाम्हणगांव ..	NE; 42·0	3·5; 224; 52; 133	Masal Bk.; 1·0	Warora; 42·0	Masal Bk; 1·0; Mon.	.. 8·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Bāmhaṇī—Bhm.—बाम्हणी ..	W; 1·3	1·1; 1010; 208; 592	Mohali Mokasa; 1·3	Mangali; 1·3	Nagbhid; 4·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; gym.
Bāmhaṇī—Gdc.—बाम्हणी ..	N; 58·0	1·9; 43; 8; 30	Kurkheda; 10·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Kurkheda; 18·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 10·0	rv;n.	..
Bāmhaṇī—Gdc.—बाम्हणी ..	E; 6·0	3·4; 899; 173; 547	Badlitukum; 2·0	Mul; 31·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Bāmhaṇī—War.—बाम्हणी ..	NE; 59·0	0·6; 18; 4; 11	Sathgaon; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Shankarpur; 4·0; Mon	Shankarpur; 4·0	W;n.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distence (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bāmhaṇī—War.—बाम्हणी	NE; 35·0	1·0; 611; 134; 329	Chimur; 2·0	Warora; 35·0	Chimur; 2·0; Fri.	Chimur; 2·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Banagāḍī—Srn.—बनगाडी	NE; 117·0	0·1; 58; 11; 35	Bhamaragad; 17·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Allapalli; 59·0; Sun.	Aheri; 61·0	W;n.	ch.
Banavāhī Mālagujā ī—Bhm.— बनवाही मालगुजारी	NW; 19·0	0·6; 216; 48; 125	Mohali Mokasa; 1·0	Mangali; 1·6	Kanpa; 2·0; Sun.	Mohali Mokasa; 1·0	W;t.	Cs.
Bandar—War.—बंदर	.. NE; ..	0·9; 80; 17; 36	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Bāndarā —War.—बांदरा ..	N; ..	1·1; 442; 94; 225	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Bāṇḍe Masāhat—Srn.—बांडे मसाहत ..	N; 88·0	0·3; 85; 19; 47	Yetapalli; 12·0	Balharshah; 97·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 30·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Bāndhagāṅv—Gdc.—बांधगांव ..	NE; 68·0	1·9; 247; 44; 148	Sonsari; 2·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Sonsari; 2·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;t.	tl.
Bāndhonā—Gdc.—बांधोना ..	S; 13·0	1·9; 246; 51; 146	Gilgaon; ..	Mul; 39·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 6·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 13·0	W.	..
Bāndhūr—Gdc.—बांधूर ..	SE; ..	0·3; 16; 3; 13	Yerkad; ..	Mul; ..	Murumgaon; .. Tue.	Murumgaon; ..	W;n; t.	2 tl.
Bandūkapallī—Gdc.—बंदूकपल्ली	S; 80·0	0·1; 94; 21; 57	Lagam; 12·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Lagam; 12·0; Tue.	Lagam; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Baraḍagāṭā—War.—बरडगाटा ..	NE; 26·0	0·9; 74; 14; 40	Khadsangi; 0·4	Warora; 26·0	Khadsangi; 0·4; Thu.	Khadsangi; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; 3 ch; lib.
Baraḍakinhī—Bhm.—बरडकिन्ही	SE; 13·0	3·2; 1635; 295; 942	Gangalvadi; 1·6	Brahmapuri; 13·0	Gangalvadi; 1·6; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 1·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Barāñj Mokāsā—War.—बरांज मोकासा ..	SE; 10·0	2·6; 745; 164; 401	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 4·0; Wed.	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bārasagaḍ—Bhm.—बारसगड ..	SE; 28·0	0·6; 123; 20; 72	Geora Bk.; 0·3	Sindevahi; 26·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Bārasevāḍā—Srn.—बारसेवाडा ..	N; 75·0	0·2; 66; 9; 39	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 35·0; Sat.	Khambada; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bāravhā—War.—बारव्हा ..	N; 14·0	2·6; 490; 85; 300	Local; ..	Nagri; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Allapalli; 8·0	W;t.	..
Baṭalāceru—Srn.—बटलाचेरू ..	N; 63·0	0·2; 156; 27; 47	Local; ..	Balharshah; 68·0	Allapalli; 7·0; Sun.	Aheri; 47·0	n.	tl.
Baṭer—Srn.—बटेर ..	N; 127·0	0·01; 30; 4; 19	Yetapalli; 23·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Aheri; 47·0; Sat.	Chandur; 2·0	W;n.	tl.
Behalamapūr—Raj.—बेहलमपूर ..	W; 14·0	0·8; 178; 39; 94	Chandur; 2·0	Manikgad; 16·0	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Aheri; 34·0	n.	..
Bejjūr—Srn.—बेज्जूर ..	NE; 74·0	0·1; 61; 12; 19	Allapalli; 30·0	Balharshah; 102·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	Bamani; 4·0	W;n.	..
Bejūrapallī—Srn.—बेजूरपल्ली ..	N; 20·0	1·3; 370; 86; 218	Regunta Malgujari; 12·0	Mancharyal; ..	Bamani; 8·0; Sun.			
Beladāṭī—Bhm.—बेलदाटी ..	S; 1·0	1·3; 90; 16; 37	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;n.	tl.
Belagāṅv—Bhm.—बेलगांव ..	S; 25·0	0·8; 519; 96; 291	Ni gaon; 3·0	Mul; 18·0	Vyahad Kh.; 2·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Belagāṅv—Bhm.—बेलगांव ..	NW; 9·0	2·1; 812; 164; 508	Savrala; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 9·0	Dighori; 3·0; Wed.	Brahmapuri; 9·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Belagāṅv—Gdc.—बेलगांव ..	E; 36·0	1·3; 167; 29; 97	Yerkad; 6·2	Mul; 61·0	Murumgaon; 1·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; ..	w;t.	Sl (pr).
Belagāṅv—Gdc.—बेलगांव ..	NE; 60·0	1·1; 303; 53; 195	Kurkheda; 21·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Local; .. Mon.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Belagāṅv—Gdc.—बेलगांव ..	N; 15·0	0·9; 323; 68; 199	Moushi Khamb; 2·0	Wadsa; 30·0	.. .. ..	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Belagāṅv—Gdc.—बेलगांव ..	N; 61·0	1·2; 381; 79; 252	Kurkheda; 4·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 4·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Belagāṅv—Gdc.—बेलगांव ..	NE; 72·0	2·1; 404; 99; 192	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 42·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 26·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; 2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distanee; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Belagāṅv—Raj.—बेलगांव ..	W; 25·0	2·4; 194; 42; 106	Chandur; 5·0	Manikgad; 25·0	Chandur; 5·0; Tue.	Chandur; 5·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Belagāṅv—War.—बेलगांव ..	N; 2·0	1·9; 263; 57; 168	Tembhurda; 2·0	Dongargaon; 2·0	Tembhurda; 2·0; Thu.	Tembhurda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Belagāṅv Bhūsārī—War.— बेलगांव भूसारी ..	E; 22·0	1·5; 966; 175; 542	Chcra; 3·0	Bhadravati; 12·0	Chandan-kheda; 3·0; Thu.	Bhadravati; 12·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; gym.
Belagāṅv Kh.—Bhm.—बेलगांव खु	S; 15·0	0·7; 63; 12; 36	Mendki; 4·0	Balapur; 14·0	Gangalvadi; 6·0; Sat.	Mendki; 4·0	t.	Cs.
Belagāṅv Urf Yeragāṅv—Chd.— बेलगांव उर्फ येरगांव ..	E; 35·0	1·7; 1018; 192; 580	Bhejgaon; 2·0	Mul; ..	Bhejgaon; 2·0; Fri.	.. 10·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Belagāṭā—Chd.—बेलगाटा ..	NE; 33·0	0·6; 356; 66; 198	Chikhli; 1·6	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Belagaṭṭā—Gdc.—बेलगट्टा ..	S; 19·0	0·4; 19; 3; 10	Ghot; 3·0	Balharshah; 58·0	Ghot; 3·0; Tue.	Ghot; 3·0	W.	..
Belaragoṇḍī—Gdc.—बेलरगोंडी ..	NE; 81·0	1·9; 105; 16; 64	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Maseli; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Belasanī—Chd.— बेलसनी ..	W; 18·0	2·8; 746; 168; 399	Shengaon; 4·0	Ghugus; 4·0	Ghugus; 4·0; Sun.	Tadali; 7·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Belorā—War.—बेलोरा ..	E; 7·0	1·5; 200; 40; 120	Kondha; 3·0	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Takli; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bembāḷ—Chd.—बेंबाळ ..	E; 41·0	9·6; 2973; 650; 1492	Local; ..	Mul; 14·0	Nandgaon; 1·6; Fri.	Mul; 14·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h) ; 4 Cs (c); 3 tl, ch; lib; dp
Bembāḷ Raiyyatavārī—Chd.— बेंबाळ रैय्यतवारी	E; ..	1·6; 29; 5; 19	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Bembaḷ Tukūm—War.— बेंम्बळ तुकूम ..	NE; ..	1·0; 404; 74; 229	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Benolī—Gdc.—बेनोली ..	SE; 25·0	1·4; 106; 23; 65	Potegaon; 2·0	Mul; 50·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 25·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 25·0	W.	..
Beraḍī—Raj.—बेरडी ..	S; 9·0	2·4; 126; 24; 43	Virur; 4·0	Virur; 4·0	Virur; 4·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	n.	..
Besevāḍā—Srn.—बेसेवाडा ..	NE; 113·0	0·1; 82; 12; 27	Yetapalli; 33·0	Balharshah; 99·0	Irpanar; 20·0; ..	Allapalli; 51·0	W,n.	Cs (gr).
Betakāṭhī—Gdc.—बेतकाठी ..	NE; 82·0	3·7; 498; 116; 206	Kurkheda; 30·0	Desaiganj, 52·0	Local; .. Tue.	Kurkheda; 30·0	W,t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mandai Fr. Phg; tl; mq.
Beṭāḷā—Bhm.—बेटाळा ..	S; 5·0	1·7; 1074; 202; 682	Chougan; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Chougan; 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·5	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Bhāḍabhīḍ—Gdc.—भाडभीड ..	S; ..	N.A; 164; 25; 94	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Bhāḍabhīḍ—Gdc.—भाडभीड ..	S; 15·0	2·9; 324; 60; 191	Talodhi Mokasa; 2·0	Mul; 26·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 2·0; Wed.	Ghot; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhadrāvatī—War.—भद्रावती ..	S; 10·0	4·8; 5492; 1219; 1014	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	6Sl (2pr, 2 m, 2h); 4Cs; Bhadranath Fr. Srn Sud. 1; Jain Fr. Mrg; 6tl; mq; 3dg; 2gym; ch; lib; 4dp.
Bhādurṇī—Chd.—भादुर्णी ..	NE; 38·0	0·2; 789; 163; 433	Maroda; 3·0	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W.	2Sl (pr); Cs; Maruti Fr.; 2tl.
Bhagavānapūr—Bhm.—भगवानपूर	SW; 7·0	0·9; 244; 50; 153	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhagavānapūr—Gdc.—भगवानपूर	N; 26·0	4·2; 83; 16; 49	Armori; 14·0	Wadsa; 13·0	Kadholi; 2·6; Mon.	Kurkheda; 12·6	W;t.	..
Bhākaraṇḍī—Gdc.—भाकरंडी ..	NE; 32·0	3·0; 718; 149; 421	Local; ..	Wadsa; 35·0	Local;	.. ..	W;t; n.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; ch; 2C h.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bhāleśvar—Bhm.—भालेश्वर ..	N; 6·4	1·7; 367; 65; 222	Arher 1·0	Brahmapuri; 6·6	Arher Navargaon; 1·0; Mon.	Brahmapuri; 6·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhāmaḍeḷī—War.—भामडेळी ..	E; 45·0	1·1; 844; 177; 313	Navargaon; Moharli; 1·0	Chandrapur; 17·0	Local; .. Tue.	Moharli; 1·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Sitaramdev Fr. An ; tl.
Bhāmarāgaḍ—Srn.—भामरागड ..	NE; 80·0	2·7; 245; 60; 93	Allapalli; 36·0	Balharshah; 108·0	Allapalli; 36·0; Sun.	Aheri; 40·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs: dp.
Bhānāpūr—Bhm.—भानापूर ..	S; 25·0	0·4; 80; 14; 49	Pathari; 2·0	Rajoli; 10·0	Pathari; 2·0; Fri.	Hirapur; 7·0	t.	pyt; Cs.
Bhānasī—Gdc.—भानसी ..	NE; 35·0	1·3; 244; 46; 175	Bhakrandi; 1·0	Wadsa; 33·0	Bhakrandi; 1·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;n; t.	Sl (pr); tl; Cch.
Bhaṅgārāmapeṭā—Srn.—भंगारामपेटा ..	NE; 56·0	5·4; 278; 48; 180	Kamalapur; 22·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 48·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 24·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Bhaṅgārām Taḷodhī—Chd.—भंगाराम तळोधी	SE; ..	6·4; 2567; 542; 1114	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Bhānsī—Chd.—भांसी ..	E; 53·0	0·4; 248; 49; 161	Nilsani 1·0	Mul; 25·0	Vyahad Kh.; 9·0, Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 8·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Bhāpaḍā—Gdc.—भापडा ..	SE; 22·0	3·5; 56; 10; 32	Pethgaon; Karwafa; 11·0	Mul; 58·0	Potegaon; 5·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W.	ch.
Bhāpaḍā—Srn.—भापडा ..	NE; 110·0	2·6; 274; 48; 136	Jaravandi; 4·0	Balharshah; 172·0	Aheri; 62·0; Sat.	Aheri; 58·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhārapellī—Chd.—भारपेल्ली ..	NE; 38·0	1·7; 166; 31; 102	Saoli; 2·0	Mul; 9·0	Saoli; 2·0; Thu.	Saoli; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhārī—Raj.—भारी ..	S; 43·0	0·9; 282; 49; 173	Indhani; 7·0	Manikgad; 45·0	Indhani;	Vakadi; 14·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Bhārīṭolā—Gdc.—भारीटोला ..	NE; ..	1·1; 123; 25; 80	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; ..	Korchi; 2·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; ..	W;n.	Cs.
Bhārosā—Raj.—भारोसा ..	NW; 18·0	2·1; 360; 79; 208	Bhoyegaon; 2·0	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 14·0; Tue.	Kavthala; 3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; ch.
Bhasavāpūr—Srn.—भसवापूर ..	N; 30·0	1·1; 102; 23; 62	Kamalapur; 14·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Bamani; 13·0; Sun.	Umanur; 3·0	W.	..
Bhaṭagāṅv—Gdc.—भटगांव ..	NE; 115·0	2·3; 140; 30; 88	Purada; 2·0	Desaiganj; 27·0	Ramgad; 2·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 11·0	W;n.	ch.
Bhaṭāḷā—War.—भटाळा ..	N; ..	3·1; 985; 195; 428	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14.
Bhaṭāḷī—War.—भटाळी ..	E; 5·0	1·2; 261; 49; 158	Dongargaon; 1·6	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0; Sun.	Nandori Bk.; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhāṭamarhāṇ—Gdc.—भाटमऱ्हाण	NE; 38·0	0·2; 38; 8; 23	.. 10·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Murumgaon; 5·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 5·0	n.	..
Bhaṭapār—Srn.—भटपार ..	NE; 112·0	7·6; 364; 72; 225	Bhamaragad; 12·0	Balharshah; 118·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 58·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Bhāṭegāṅv—Gdc.—भाटेगांव ..	NE; 66·0	1·0; 70; 9; 37	Kurkheda; 40·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Bhaṭṭījām—Chd.—भट्टीजाम ..	NE; 41·0	1·2; 128; 27; 81	Jibgaon; 2·0	Mul; 14·0	Saoli; 7·0; Thu.	Saoli; 7·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Bhavarāḷā—Chd.—भवराळा ..	E; 35·0	2·6; 411; 72; 257	Rajgadh; 1·0	Mul; 6·0	Rajgadh; 1·0; Tue.	.. 0·1	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Bheḍāḷā—War.—भेडाळा ..	NE; ..	1·8; 655; 126; 295	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Bhedoḍā—Raj.—भेदोडा ..	S; 5·0	1·8; 700; 171; 384	Warur; 2·0	Manikgad; 7·0	Local; .. Fri.	Varur Road; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhejagāṅv—Chd.—भेजगांव ..	E; 34·0	4·8; 2087; 374; 1139	Local; ..	Mul; 7·0	Local; .. Fri.	Mul; 7·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); ch.
Bheṇḍāḷā—Bhm.—भेंडाळा ..	SW; 32·0	0·7; 726; 138; 289	Palasgaon 1·0	Sindevahi; 6·0	Palasgaon Jat; 1·0; Wed.	Palasgaon Jat; 1·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Bheṇḍāḷā—Gdc.—भेंडाळा ..	SW; ..	2·3; 1011; 188; 536	Jat; Local; ..	Mul; ..	Local; .. Mon.	Mul; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bheṇḍāḷā—Raj.—भेंडाळा ..	S; 10·0	2·7; 219; 45; 110	Virur; 2½	Virur; 2½	Virur; 2½; Wed.	.. 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bheṇḍavī—Raj.—भेंडवी ..	S; 16·0	4·3; 478; 111; 204	Chandur; 6·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandanwai; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bheṇḍīkanhāḷ—Gdc.—भेंडीकन्हाळ	S; 21·0	0·1; 48; 8; 36	Gilgaon; 3·0	Mul; 45·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 9·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; ..	W.	..
Bheṇḍīkanhāḷ—Gdc.—भेंडीकन्हाळ	SE; 53·0	0·2; 75; 13; 47	Pendhari; 13·0	Mul; 78·0	Pendhari; 13·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 13·0	rv.	..
Bhikārmauśī—Gdc.—भिकारमौशी	E; 11·0	0·6; 157; 25; 99	Amirza; 1·0	Wadsa; 31·0	Gilgaon; 3·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 11·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhikeśvar—Bhm.—भिकेश्वर ..	W; 10·0	0·6; 552; 119; 207	Navegaon Pandav; 1·0	Nagbhid; 2·0	Nagbhid; 2·0; Tue.	Nagbhid; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Bhikṣīmāḷ—Gdc.—भिक्षीमाळ ..	SW; 32·0	0·5; 216; 41; 132	Lakhamapur *alias* Bori; 1·0	Mul; 16·0	Chamorshi; 12·0; Sat.	Ashti; 18·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Bhimanakhojī—Gdc.—भिमन-खोजी	SE; 65·0	0·1; 41; 7; 26	Yerkad; 25·0	Wadsa; 75·0	Kotgul; 9·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 23·0	n.	..
Bhimanapāyalī—Gdc.—भिमन-पायली	NE; ..	0·1; 37; 8; 25	Kurkheda; 2·0	Wadsa; 18·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	rv;n.	..
Bhimanavāḍā—Gdc.—भिमनवाडा	NE; 21·0	1·4; 109; 24; 80	Rangi; 3·0	Wadsa; 33·0	Rangi; 3·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 11·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Bhimanī—Chd.—भिमनी ..	E; ..	1·7; 599; 117; 330	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	..
Bhimapūr—Gdc.—भिमपूर ..	SE; 38·0	0·2; 135; 25; 58	Pendhari; 9·0	Mul; 64·0	Pendhari; 9·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;rv; n.	Cs.
Bhimapūr—Gdc.—भिमपूर ..	NE; 73·0	2·4; 223; 47; 133	Kurkheda; 32·0	Wadsa; 48·0	Korchi; 3·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 32·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Bhisī—War.—भिसी ..	NE; 56·0	5·4; 5365; 1085; 1925	Local; ..	Kanpa; 13·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;t.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; Ramnavmi Fr.; 7 tl; mq; dg; 3 gym; ch; dp.
Bhivakuṇḍ—Chd.—भिवकुंड ..	S; 6·0	0·5; 6; 1; 4	Ballarpur; 4·0	Balharshah; 4·0	Ballarpur; 4·0; Sun.	Stage; 1·0	W;n.	tl; m.
Bhivakuṇḍ—War.—भिवकुंड ..	N; 24·0	2·3; 466; 102; 274	Sawari; 2·0	Warora; 24·0	Amadi; 2·0; Sat.	Bothali; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Bhogāpūr—Srn.—भोगापूर ..	E; 2·4	0·8; 201; 47; 120	Sironcha; 2·4	Manchariyal; 40·0	Sironcha; 2·4; Mon.	Sironcha; 0·4	W;t.	..
Bhoyegāṅv—Raj.—भोयेगांव ..	NW; 17·0	2·4; 805; 162; 442	Local; ..	Manikgad; 19·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	Nandgaon; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Bhuj Tukūm—Bhm.—भुज तुकूम	S; 24·0	3·1; 483; 111; 286	Pathari; 18·0	Alevahi; 12·0	Mudza; 6·0; Mon.	.. 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhumakan—Srn.—भुमकन ..	NE; 114·0	8·4; 166; 45; 78	Ghotsur; 7·0	Chandrapur; 133·0	Gadhchiroli; 57·0; Sun	Gadhchiroli; 57·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Bhurakuṇḍā Bk.—Raj.—भुरकुंडा बु. ..	SW; 14·0	2·9; 564; 131; 281	Local; ..	Manikgad; 16·0	Bhedoda; 4·0; Fri.	Bhedoda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Bhurakuṇḍā Kh.—Raj.—भुरकुंडा खु. ..	S; 14·0	2·4; 201; 41; 117	Devada; 5·0	Manikgad; 16·0	Bhedoda; 5·0; Fri.	Bhedoda; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhuranaṭolā—Gdc.—भुरनटोला ..	E; 19·0	0·2; 58; 11; 36	Dhanora; 5·0	Mul; 44·0	Dhanora, 5·0; Thu.	Dudhamara, 4·0	n.	..
Bhusamakuḍo—Gdc.—भुसमकुडो	E; 23·0	0·8; 48; 6; 21	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 2·0	W;rv; n.	..
Bhusevāḍā—Srn.—भुसेवाडा ..	NE; 111·0	0·2; 50; 12, 29	Bhamaragad; 11·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 59·0	n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Bibi—Raj.—बिबि ..	W; 17·0	2·4; 448; 118; 242	Chandur; 3·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Chandur; 3·0; Tue.	Chandur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl
Bidarī—Srn.—बिदरी ..	N; 72·0	7·7; 348; 64; 216	Yetapalli; ..	.. 95·0	Allapalli; .. Sun.	.. 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Bihaṭe Kh.—Gdc.—बिहटे खु. ..	NE; 82·0	0·8; 190; 38; 116	Kurkheda; 30·0	Wadsa; 46·0	Markekasa; 0·6; Sun.	Kurkheda; 30·0	W;n; t.	..
Bihīṭekalā—Gdc.—बिहीटेकला ..	NE; 86·0	1·3; 544; 98; 316	Kurkheda; 34·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Markekasa; 1·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 34·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mandai Fr. Mg.-Vad. 14.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bijāpūr—Gdc.—बिजापूर ..	NE; 96·0	2·1; 67; 11; 34	Belgaon; 14·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Maseli; 5·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Bijāpūr—Gdc.—बिजापूर ..	NE; 57·0	1·7; 148; 31; 95	Desaiganj; 23·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Kurkheda; 9·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 9·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr).
Bijonī—War.—बिजोनी ..	E; 12·0	2·4; 602; 112; 343	Sagara; 2·0	Warora; 12·0	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Bikalī—Bhm.—बिकली ..	NW; 20·0	2·9; 275; 62; 170	Kanpa; 1·0	Kanpa; 1·0	Kanpa; 1·0; Sun.	Kanpa; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Bināguṇḍā—Srn.—बिनागुंडा ..	NE; 123·0	0·01; 48; 9; 27	Bhamaragad; 23·0	Balharshah; 129·0	Allapalli; 65·0; Sun.	Aheri; 67·0	rv;n.	Ch.
Birhāḍaghāṭ—Srn.—बिऱ्हाडघाट	NE; 30·0	1·7; 100; 26; 66	Aheri; 48·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Aheri; 48·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 20·0	rv;n.	..
Biṭanaṭolā—Gdc.—बिटनटोला ..	SE; 30·0	0·7; 36; 10; 19	Potegaon; 3·0	Mul; 55·0	Gadhchiroli; 30·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 30·0	rv.	..
Boḍadhā—Bhm.—बोडधा ..	SE; 26·0	1·7; 473; 89; 245	Mudza; 2·0	Alevahi; 16·0	Mudza; 2·0; Mon.	Porla; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Boḍadhā—War.—बोडधा ..	NE; 44·0	1·5; 770; 145; 446	Naotala; 2·0	Kanpa; 23·0	Jambhul-ghat; 5·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Boḍakhā—War.—बोडखा ..	N; 18·0	1·4; 393; 69; 197	Kosarsar; 2·0	Warora; 18·0	Kosarsar; 2·0; Sat.	Khambada; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bodaladaṇḍ—Gdc.—बोदलदंड ..	NE; 95·0	2·6; 278; 54; 173	Belgaon; 14·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Maseli; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Bodalīmaḷ—Gdc.—बोदलीमळ ..	E; 4·0	1·2; 68; 14; 42	Badlitukum; ..	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W;t.	..
Boḍametṭā—Srn.—बोडमेट्टा ..	NE; 97·0	0·1; 55; 10; 16	Yetapalli; 23·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 35·0	W;n.	..
Boḍegāṅv—Bhm.—बोडेगांव ..	SE; 3·0	1·3; 301; 58; 197	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Boḍegāṅv—Bhm.—बोडेगांव ..	S; 31·0	1·2; 12; 2; 8	Mudza; 1·0	Sindevahi; 20·0	Mudza; 1·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W;t.	..
Bodenā—Gdc.—बोदेना ..	NE; 80·0	3·0; 105; 20; 58	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Korchi; .. Thu.	Kurkheda; ..	W.	..
Bodīn—Gdc.—बोदीन ..	E; 39·0	0·1; 46; 7; 26	Dhanora; 18·0	Mul; 64·0	Dhanora; 18·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 18·0	W;n.	..
Bodrā—Bhm.—बोद्रा ..	SW; 30·0	1·1; 249; 65; 157	Alevahi; 6·0	Alevahi; 6·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	.. 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Bogaṭāguḍam (Raiyyatavārī)—Srn.—बोगटागुडम (रैय्यतवारी)	N; 18·0	0·6; 335; 78; 198	.. 2·6	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 18·0	W;n.	Mutyalam Fr. Asd.; tl.
Bogāṭolā—Gdc.—बोगाटोला ..	NE; 89·0	0·9; 155; 29; 95	Kurkheda; 37·0	Wadsa; 53·0	Markekasa; 5·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 37·0	W;t.	Cs.
Boḷadhāgāṅv—Gdc.—बोळधागांव	N; 42·0	1·5; 1166; 237; 637	Koregaon; 2·0	Wadsa; 10·0	Wadsa; 10·0; ..	Shankarpur; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bonathaḷā—War.—बोनथळा ..	SE; 12·0	1·3; 59; 17; 29	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 5·6	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 5·0	n;t.	tl.
Boṇḍ—Bhm.—बोंड ..	SW; 24·0	1·2; 384; 84; 207	Balapur Bk.; 3·0	Talodhi; 3·0	Balapur Bk.; 3·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk., 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Boṇḍāḷā Bk.—Chd.—बोंडाळा बु..	E; ..	1·6; 695; 130; 370	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Boṇḍarā—Srn.—बोंडरा ..	N; 24·0	0·8; 60; 13; 33	.. 1·0	Manchariyal; 42·0	.. .. ..	.. 18·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Boṇḍe—Gdc.—बोंडे ..	NE; 187·0	2·6; 178; 34; 105	Belgaon; 12·0	Wadsa; 70·0	Maseli; 6·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Boṇḍegāṅv—Bhm.—बोंडेगांव ..	N; 2·0	1·7; 962; 191; 398	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dg.
Bopāpūr—War.—बोपापूर ..	N; 14·0	1·7; 301; 61; 168	Barvha; 2·0	Nagri; 3·0	Kosarsar; 2·0; Sat.	Khambada; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Boraḍā—War.—बोरडा ..	E; 1·0	2·1; 564; 108; 243	Warora; 1·0	Warora; 1·0	Warora; 1·0; Sun.	Warora; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); dg.
Boragāṅv—Bhm.—बोरगांव ..	E; 4·0	1·03; 608; 123; 330	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Boragāṅv—Chd.—बोवगांव ..	SE; ..	1·1; 1154; 225; 605	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Boragāṅv—Raj.—बोरगांव ..	W; 20·0	1·5; 143; 26; 99	Virur Gadegaon; 2·0	Manikgad; 22·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	Chandur; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Boragāṅv—War.—बोरगांव ..	S; 20·0	0·7; 2; 1; ..	Sakharvahi; 3·0	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 5·0	W.	..
Boragāṅv—War.—बोरगांव ..	NE; 18·0	1·4; 60; 19; 41	Sagara; 1·0	Warora; 18·0	Chandan-kheda; 1·6; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W.	tl.
Boragāṅv—War.—बोरगांव ..	NE; 54·0	1·0; 207; 42; 142	Shankarpur; 6·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Shankarpur; 6·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Boragāṅv Bhosale—War.—बोरगांव भोसले	N; 14·0	2·1; 160; 32; 83	Bhatala; 3·0	Warora; 14·0	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	W.	tl.
Boragāṅv Bk.—Raj.—बोरगांव बु. ..	W, 35·0	1·1, 155; 29; 93	Korpana; 5·0	Manikgad; 37·0	Korpana; 5·0; Fri.	Korpana; 5·0	W.	tl.
Boragāṅv Buṭī—War.—बोरगांव बुटी	NE; 43·0	1·1; 247; 51; 149	Ambeneri; 1·0	Kanpa; 13·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Boragāṅv Deśapaṇḍe—War.— .. बोरगांव देशपांडे	N; ..	1·9; 616; 122; 375	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Boragāṅv Kh.—Raj.—बोरगांव खु. ..	W; 32·0	1·5; 176; 42; 124	Korpana; 2·0	Manikgad; 32·0	Korpana; 2·0; Fri.	Korpana; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Boragāṅv Mokāsā—War.—बोरगांव मोकासा	NE; ..	1·7; 336; 89; 208	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Boragāṅv Sivaṇaphaḷ—War.— .. बोरगांव सिवणफळ	N; 13·0	1·7; 446; 90; 203	Tembhurda; 5·0	Warora; 13 0	Tembhurda; 5·0; Thu.	Mangali; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl; lib; Cch.
Boraghāṭ—Gdc.—बोरघाट ..	S; ..	0·7; 1; 1; 5	Ankhoda; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Fri.	Ashti; ..	W.	..
Boramāḷā—Bhm.—बोरमाळा ..	SE; ..	3·3; 957; 185; 557	Vihirgaon; 2·0	Mul; 26·0	Gadhchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; gym.
Boramapallī—Srn.— बोरमपल्ली ..	N; 13·0	0·5; 170; 35; 93	Tekda (Talla); 2·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Vyanktapur; 3·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Boraṭolā—Gdc.—बोरटोला ..	NE; 69·0	4·8; 81; 15; 56	Sonsari; 3·0	Wadsa; 27·0	Sonsari; 3·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 11·0	W;n.	ch.
Bor Cāndalī—Chd.—बोर चांदली ..	E; 31·0	2·8; 1258; 247; 667	Rajgadh; 1·0	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl; ch.
Borḍā—Chd.—बोर्डा ..	NW; 10·0	0·4; 723; 144; 401	Chichpalli; 5·0	Chanda; 10·0	Chichpalli; 5·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; lib.
Borḍā Borakar—Chd.—बोर्डा बोरकर	E; ..	0·4; 399; 81; 228	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Borḍā Dikṣit—Chd.—बोर्डा दिक्षित ..	E; ..	0·8; 158; 31; 84	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Borḍā Jhuluravār—Chd.—बोर्डा .. झुलुरवार.	E; ..	0·8; 326; 73; 155	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Borī—Gdc.—बोरी ..	N; 20·0	1·2; 88; 18; 54	Rangi; 2·0	Wadsa; 31·0	Rangi; 2·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 11·0	W;t.	..
Borī—Gdc.—बोरी ..	NE; 84·0	3·9; 422; 78; 197	Kurkheda; 36·0	Desaiganj; 52·0	Local; .. Sat.	Kurkheda; 36·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; Mandai Fr. Phg.
Borī—Gdc.—बोरी ..	S; 112·0	0·4; 744; 154; 276	Local; ..	Balharshah; 52·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 3tl.
Borī—War.—बोरी ..	W; 12·0	2·0; 599; 118; 359	Soit; 1·6	Warora; 12·0	Madheli; 2·0; Mon.	Warora; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Borī Navegāṅv—Raj.—बोरी नवेगांव	W; 22·0	0·9; 171; 37; 91	Antargaon Bk; 5·0	Chandrapur; 20·0	Wansadi; 4·0; Wed.	Chandur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Boriyā—Srn.—बोरिया ..	NE; 102·0	3·4; 101; 23; 61	Bhamaragad; 21·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 39·0; Sun.	Aheri; 42·0	W;rv.	..
Boṭagāṅv—Raj.—बोटगांव ..	S; 4·0	1·5; 243; 45; 126	Rajura; 4·0	Manikgad; 6·0	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	Rajura; 4·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Boṭanaphuṇḍī—Srn.—बोटनफुंडी ..	N; 65·0	4·2; 120; 23; 69	Bhamaragad; 15·0	Balharshah; 95·0	Allapalli; 23·0; Tue.	.. 33·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr).
Boṭehūr—Gdc.—बोटेहूर ..	SE; 55·0	2·0; 91; 17; 54	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 74·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	W;n.	..
Boṭejharī—Gdc—बोटेझरी ..	E; 66·0	0·5; 98; 19; 55	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; 76·0	Kotgul; .. Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	n.	..
Boṭejharī—War.— बोटेझरी ..	E; 52·0	0·3; 155; 39; 74	Moharli; 8·0	Chandrapur; 24·0	Sawarla Sirpur 11·0; Sat. *alias* Wadegaon;	Moharli; 8·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Boṭekasā—Gdc.—बोटेकसा ..	NE; 83·0	1·8; 428; 76; 258	Kurkheda; 31·0	Wadsa; 47·0	Markekasa; 5·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 31·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m).
Bothalī—Bhm.—बोथली ..	S; 65·0	4·4; 1650; 370; 769	Local; ..	Mul; 14·0	Savali; 3·0; Thu.	Hirapur; 1·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Bothalī—Bhm.—बोथली ..	W; 12·0	1·2; 767; 147; 407	Ketgaon; 1·6	Nagbhid; 2·0	Nagbhid; 2·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 2·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Bothalī—War.—बोथली ..	NE; 43·0	1·1; 391; 89; 241	Neri; 5·0	Kanpa; 25·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Bothalī—War.—बोथली ..	NE; ..	2·6; 780; 179; 484	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bothedā—Gdc.—बोथेडा ..	E; 13·0	0·3; 66; 10; 32	Gilgaon; 1·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Gilgaon; 1·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 13·0	W.	tl.
Brāhmaṇapallī—Srn.—ब्राह्मणपल्ली ..	NE; 50·0	4·8; 412; 77; 181	Kamalapur; 14·0	Balharshah; 124·0	All.palli; 40·0; Sun.	Kamalapur; 14·0	W;w.	Sl(pr).
Brāhmaṇapeṭh—Gdc.—ब्राह्मणपेठ ..	S; ..	0·5; 219; 50; 108	Ashti; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Fri.	Ashti; ..	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Brahmapurī—Bhm.—ब्रह्मपुरी ..	HQ; ..	2·7; 8532; 1975; 1854	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W.	12Sl(pr, 4m, 3h, clg); 4Cs; Chaitra Pournima Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 27tl; 2mq; 7dg; dh; 2gym; 2 lib; 8 dp.
Burgī—Srn.—बुर्गी ..	N; 74·0	5·7; 614; 108; 394	4·0	Balharshah; 100·0	.. 42·0; ..	Allapalli; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; dp(vet).
Burgī Masāhat—Srn.—बुर्गी मसाहत ..	NE; 110·0	0·4; 228; 41; 99	Ghotsur; 14·0	Balharshah; ..	Irpanar; 8·0; ..	Yetapalli; 20·0	W;r.	Sl(pr); ch.
Burukamalamapallī—Srn.—बुरुकमलमपल्ली. ..	N; 57·0	1·3; 114; 21; 64	Allapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 66·0	Allapalli; 1·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 1·0	W;n.	..
Caiḍamapallī—Gdc.—चैडमपल्ली ..	SW; 54·0	0·4; 306; 73; 115	Local; ..	Balharshah; 52·0	Ashti; 8·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Caitī Tukūm—War.—चैती तुकूम ..	NE; 42·0	1·4; 140; 29; 84	Masal Bk.; 2·6	Warora; 40·0	Masal Bk.; 2·6; Mon.	Chimur; 9·0	t.	tl.
Cak Ākāpūr—Gdc.—चक आकापूर ..	N; ..	1·7; 307; 56; 194	Deulgaon; 3·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Deulgaon; 3·0; Mon.	Kitali; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Cakalapeṭh—Gdc.—चकलपेठ ..	SW; ..	1·1; 540; 91; 323	Bhendala; ..	Mul; ..	Bhendala; .. Mon.	Mul; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cak Ālcsūr—Bhm.—चक आलेसूर ..	SW; 33·0	1·2; 130; 35; 78	Navargaon; 2·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Navargaon; 2·0; Thu.	Navargaon; 2·0	W.	..
Cak Āmagāṅv No. 2—Gdc.—चक आमगांव नं. २. ..	S; 30·0	0·7; 45; 9; 28	Ghot; 12·0	Mul; 32·0	Ghot; 12·0; Tue.	Ghot; 12·0	W.	..
Cak Āmbe Dhānorā—Chd.—चक आंबे धानोरा. ..	E; ..	1·3; 302; 54; 185	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W	..
Cak Aṅkisā—Srn.—चक अंकिसा ..	SE; 17·0	1·9; 434; 91; 268	Ankisa; 1·0	Balharshah; 133·0	Ankisa; 1·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Asolā—Bhm.—चक असोला ..	S; 25·0	0·6; 195; 40; 117	Pathari; 2·0	Rajoli; ..	Pathari; 2·0; Fri.	Hirapur; 7·0	W;t.	pyt; Cs; tl.
Cak Āṣṭā—Chd.—चक आष्टा ..	SE; ..	2·1; 646; 124; 386	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Balhārapūr—Chd.—चक बल्हारपूर. ..	SE; ..	3·5; 711; 134; 424	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Bāmhaṇī——Bhm.—चक बाम्हणी	SW; 37·0	1·3; 158; 38; 96	Petgaon; 3·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Bāmhaṇī—Chd.—चक बाम्हणी ..	SE; ..	1·4; 209; 41; 129	.. ..	Rajoli; 5·0	Rajoli; 5·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cak Bāpūr—Chd.—चक बापूर ..	S; ..	2·5; 238; 55; 160	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Barāñj—War.—चक बारांज ..	SE; 10·0	1·8; 310; 71; 173	Bhadravati; 2·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Belagaṭā—Gdc.—चक बेलगटा ..	S; 30·0	0·1; 45; 9; 36	Ghot; 1·0	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 2·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Beraḍī—Chd.—चक बेरडी ..	SE; ..	2·4; 414; 85; 263	.. ..	Balharshah; 70·0	Ghot; 1·0; Tue.	Ghot; 1·0	W.	..
Cak Boladhā—Gdc.—चक बोळधा ..	N; 16·0	2·7; 379; 72; 219	Deloda Bk.; 1·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Boragāṅv—Chd.—चक बोरगांव ..	SE; ..	3·0; 465; 92; 235	.. ..	Wadsa; 25·0	Deloda Bk.; 1·0; Wed.	Porla; 15·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Borḍā—Chd.—चक बोर्डा ..	NE; 11·0	3·6; 48; 4; 13	Chichpalli; 5·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Borī—Gdc.—चक बोरी ..	N; 18·0	1·5; 470; 82; 264	Waladha; 1·0	Chanda; 11·0	Chichpalli; 5·0; Mon.	Stage; 1·0	n;t.	..
Cak Cāpalavāḍā—Gdc.—चक चापलवाडा. ..	S; 27·0	1·6; 41; 7; 29	Ghot; 6·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Deloda Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Cak Cāragāṅv—Bhm.—चक चारगांव	SW; 24·0	1·1; 201; 56; 132	Talodhi; 3·0	Balharshah; 61·0	Ghot; 6·0; Tue.	Ghot; 6·0	W;n.	..
Cak Cindhī—Bhm.—चक चिंधी ..	SW; 21·0	2·6; 303; 60; 193;	Nagbhid; 9·0	Balapur Bk.; 8·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
				Nagbhid; 9·0	Nagbhid; 9·0; Thu.	Local; 0·5	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station ; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Cak Curacurā—Gdc.—चक चुरचुरा	N; 5·0	1·5; 8; 2; 6	Sakara; 2·0	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 5·0	W;t.	..
Cak Darśanī—Gdc.—चक दर्शनी	S; 12·0	3·1; 84; 20; 56	Kunghada; 0·3	Mul; 33·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W.	tl.
Cak Darur—Chd.—चक दरूर	SE, ..	3·1; 1011; 214; 627	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Cak Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Bhm.—चक धामणगांव.	SE; 28·0	1·4; 107; 32; 67	Navargaon; 6·0	Balapur Bk.; 14·0	Navargaon; 6·0; Tue.	Talodhi; 8·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Dhānolī Pohā—Bhm.—चक धानोली पोहा.	S; 3·0	0·6; 296; 61; 178	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cak Dudhavāhī—Bhm.—चक दुधवाही	W; 5·0	1·6; 239; 53; 162	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Gaḍamausī—Bhm.—चक गडमौसी	S; ..	4·3; 400; 86; 63	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Gaṇeśapūr—Gdc.—चक गणेशपूर	N; 21·0	1·9; 348; 72; 195	Deulgaon; 5·0	Desaiganj; 23·0	Wairagad; 7·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Gaṅgāpūr—Chd.—चक गंगापूर	E; ..	1·1; 126; 27; 83	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Cak Gavarlā—Bhm.—चक गवर्ला	S; 7·0	1·6; 33; 8; 23	Gangalvadi; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 7·0	W.	..
Cak Ghaḍolī—Chd.—चक घडोली	SE; ..	1·3; 336; 72; 195	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Ghanoṭī No. 1—Chd.—चक घनोटी नं. १.	E; ..	2·9; 206; 38; 116	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Ghanoṭī No. 2—Chd.—चक घनोटी नं. २.	E; ..	2·5 ; 211; 48; 130	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Cak Gollāguḍam—Srn.—चक गोल्लागुडम.	SE; 19·0	0·8; 223; 52; 153	Asaralli; 1·6	Balharshah; 135·0	Asaralli; 1·6; Fri.	Asaralli; 1·6	W;n.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Govindapūr—Bhm.—चक गोविंदपूर.	SW; 34·0	1·0; 43; 7; 33	Rajoli; 3·0	Rajoli; 3·0	Rajoli; 3·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 3·0	W.	tl.
Cak Hattīboḍī—Chd.—चक हत्तीबोडी	E; ..	2·3; 80; 13; 46	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Iṭolī No. 1—Chd.—चक इटोली नं. १.	SE; 24·0	0·8; 554; 114; 339	Manora; 2·0	Balharshah; 6·0	Ballarpur; 6·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W;t;cl.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Cak Jāmbhuḷ Vihīrā—War.—चक जांभुळ विहीरा.	NE; 35·0	0·6; 355; 67; 207	Jamgaon Komti; 1·0	Kanpa; 19·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Jānāḷā—Chd.—चक जानाळा	NE; 22·0	1·3; 345; 76; 212	Mul; 5·0	Mul; 5·0	Mul; 5·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; m.
Cak Jāpharābād—Srn.—चक जाफराबाद.	N; 19·0	1·6; 81; 20; 46	Tekda; 1·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Venkatapur; 4·0; Mon.	Kambalpeta Raiyyatwari; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Jāṭepār—War.—चक जाटेपार	NE; 43·0	1·6; 141; 30; 92	Doma; 1·4	Kampa; 10·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Cak Jinagānūr No. 1—Srn.—चक जिनगानूर नं. १.	E; 23·0	0·3; 343; 72; 129	Asaralli; 15·0	Balharshah; 142·0	Sironcha; 23·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 23·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Jinagānūr No. 2—Srn.—चक जिनगानूर नं. २.	E; 23·0	1·8; 245; 47; 85	Asaralli; 15·0	Balharshah; 142·0	Sironcha; 23·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 23·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cak Kambālapeṭā—Srn.—चक कंबालपेटा.	N; 18·0	1·3; 159; 34; 108	Tekda; 2·0	Balharshah; 115·0	Venkatapur; 4·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Cak Kāntāpeṭh—Chd.—चक कांतापेठ	E; 22·0	1·1; 410; 75; 209	Chiroli; 1·0	Totewahi; 0·2	Chiroli; 1·0; Sun.	Agdi; 1·0	W;w;w	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; m.
Cak Kāragāṅv—Bhm.—चक कारगांव	S; 53·0	2·3; 364; 81; 189	Pathari; 2·0	Rajoli; 14·0	Pathari; 2·0; Fri.	Pathari; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cak Kārakāpallī—Gdc.—चक कारकापल्ली.	S; ..	1·7; 5; 1; 3	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Cak Karapāḍā—Gdc.—चक करपाडा	N; 18·0	1·6; 116; 24; 49	Wairagad; 2·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Wairagad; 2·0; Thu.	Deulgaon; 5·0	W;t.	..
Cak Kāṭavan—Chd.—चक काटवन ..	NE; 26·0	0·5; 102; 22; 66	Maroda; 2·0	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W;	Sl(pr).
Cak Kavaḍāpūr—War.—चक कवडापूर. ..	N; ..	1·0; 202; 47; 122	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Khairī—Bhm.—चक खैरी ..	SW; 36·0	5·2; 134; 33; 79	Gunjewahi; ..	Sindevahi; 10·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 10·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Khāparī—Chd.—चक खापरी ..	E; ..	1·7; 382; 78; 212	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Khārapuḍī—Gdc.—चक खारपुडी	N; 3·0	2·0; 486; 90; 295	Badlitukum; 2·0	Mul; 29·0	Gadhchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 3·0	W;rv;t	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Khordā—Gdc.— चक खोर्दा ..	S; 19·0	2·8; 413, 83; 245	Talodhi Mokasa; 3·0	Mul; 27·0	Talodhi Mckasa; 3·0; Wed.	Ghot; 9·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Kojabī—Bhm.—चक कोजबी ..	SW; 23·0	1·4; 159; 36; 86	Talodhi; 3·0	Balapur Bk.; 8·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 3·0	W;t.	tl.
Cak Korlā—Srn.—चक कोर्ला ..	E; 31·0	0·4; 5; 1; 5	Asaralli; 23·0	Balharshah; 161·0	Asaralli; 23·0; Fri.	Sironcha; 31·0	W;n.	tl.
Cak Kosambī—Chd.—चक कोसंबी ..	E; ..	1·7; 199; 36; 120	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Kunaghaḍā—Bhm.— चक कुनघडा. ..	W; ..	0·9; 185; 34; 107	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Kurāṇḍī—Gdc.—चक कुरांडी ..	N; 33·0	0·6; 124; 21; 60	Wairagad; 5·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 5·0; Thu.	Armori; 13·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Lakṣmīdevīpeṭā—Srn.—चक लक्ष्मीदेवी पेटा. ..	SE; ..	1·2; 213; 51; 102	Ankisa; 0·4	Manchariyal; 77·0	Ankisa; 0·4; Tue.	Sironcha; 16·0	W;t.	..
Cak Likhītavāḍā—Chd.—चक लिखीतवाडा. ..	E; ..	2·0; 646; 126; 360	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Lohārā—War.—चक लोहारा ..	NE; 58·0	2·5; 45; 6; 26	Doma; 3·0	Kanpa; 7·0	Shankarpur; 2·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Cak Māḍeāmagāṅv—Gdc.- चक माडेआमगांव. ..	S; 30·0	0·8; 331; 68; 217	Regadi; 3·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Ghot; 10·0; Tue.	Regadi; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); ch.
Cak Māḍeāmagāṅv No. 1—Gdc.—.. चक माडेआमगांव नं. १. ..	SE; ..	3·1; 90; 20; 56	Regadi; 3·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Ghot; 10·0; Tue.	Regadi; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); ch.
Cak Mākepallī No. 1— Gdc.—चक .. माकेपल्ली नं. १. ..	S; ..	0·7; 135; 29; 83	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Cak Mākepallī No. 3—Gdc.—चक .. माकेपल्ली नं. ३. ..	SE; 35·0	1·9; 119; 24; 73	Ghot; 12·0	Mul; 30·0	Ghot; 12·0; Tue.	Ghot; 12·0	W.	..
Cak Mākepallī No. 4—Gdc.—चक .. माकेपल्ली नं. ४. ..	S; 35·0	0·4; 24; 4; 13	Ghot; 12·0	Balharshah; ..	Ghot; 12·0; Tue.	Ghot; 12·0	W;t.	..
Cak Māler—Gdc.—चक मालेर ..	S; 15·0	0·6; 211; 44; 104	Kunghada; 2·0	Mul; 22·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 4·0; Wed.	Ghot; 12·0	W;t.	..
Cak Māṇakāpūr—Chd.—चक माणकापूर. ..	NE; ..	0·3; 55; 9; 36	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Māṅgalī—Bhm.—चक मांगली ..	S; 41·0	1·1; 44; 6; 14	Pathari; 4·0	Rajoli; 8·0	Pathari; 4·0; Fri.	Rajoli; 8·0	W.	..
Cak Maregāṅv—Bhm.—चक मरेगांव	S; ..	0·1; 18; 4; 10	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Mauśī—Bhm.—चक मौशी ..	NW; 6·0	0·4; 22; 5; 16	Mousi; 0·4	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Mousi; 0·4; Sat.	Mendha; 4·6	W.	..
Cak Mauśī—Gdc.—चक मौशी ..	SE; 14·0	0·3; 97; 19; 56	Amirza; 2·0	Wadsa; 44·0	Gilgaon; 3·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	tl.
Cak Meṇḍheboḍī—Gdc.—चक मेंढेबोडी. ..	N; 31·0	1·0; 174; 34; 102	Wairagad; 1·6	Wadsa; 21·0	Wairagad; 1·0; Thu.	Armori; 9·0	W;t.	Cs; 2tl.

Village Name	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop; Households ; Agriculturists	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station ; Distance	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Cak Mudholī No. 1—Gdc.—चक मुधोळी नं. १. ..	SW; 35·0	1·4; 267; 47; 143	Ganpur Raiyyatwari; 4·0	Mul; 20·0	Adyal; 5·0; Sat.	Ashti; 7·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Cak Mudholī No. 2—Gdc.—चक मुधोळी नं. २. ..	SW; 33·0	1·5; 581; 125; 342	Ganpur Raiyyatwari; 3·0	Mul; 21·0	Adyal; 4·0; Sat.	Adyal; 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cak Murkhāḷā—Gdc.—चक मुरखाळा	S; ..	3·3; 441; 81; 279	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Cak Muttāpūr– Srn.—चक मुत्तापूर..	SE; 22·0	0·1; 225; 57; 133	Local; ..	Balharshah; 142·0	Asaralli; 4·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 4·0	W.	..
Cak Nāndagāṅv—Chd.—चक नांदगांव	SE; ..	0·9; 317; 69; 173	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Nārāyaṇapūr No. 2—Gdc.— चक नारायणपूर नं. २. ..	S; ..	0·1; 10; 2; 5	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Narotī—Gdc.—चक नरोटी ..	N; 20·0	3·3; 130; 23; 69	Waladha; 2·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 8·0; Thu.	Armori; 12·0	W.	..
Cak Navegāṅv—Bhm.—चक नवेगांव	SW; 32·0	0·3; 53; 12; 32	Rajoli; 2·0	.. ..	Rajoli; 3·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 2·0	W.	pyt; tl; ch.
Cak Navegāṅv—Chd.—चक नवेगांव..	E; ..	1·8; 244; 44; 134	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;cl.	..
Cak Nimagāṅv—Gdc.—चक निमगांव	S; 18·0	1·1; 8; 2; 6	Chamorshi; 3·0	Mul; 24·0	Chamorshi; 3·0; Thu.	Ghot; 6·0	W.	..
Cak Nimbāḷā—Chd.—चक निबाळा ..	NE; 14·0	3·0; 337; 71; 205	Chanda; 14·0	Chanda; 14·0	Chanda; 14·0; Wed.	Valni; 6·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
CahPāragāṅv—Chd.—चक पारगांव..	SE; ..	1·8; 592; 111; 331	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Pavanā—Bhm.—चक पवना ..	S; 24·0	2·4; 327; 69; 198	Gunjevahi Mahal; 3·0	Sindevahi; 12·0	Pathari; 9·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 12·0	W;t.	2tl.
Cak Pelūr—Chd.—चक पेलूर ..	SE; ..	1·7; 241; 53; 120	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Peṇṭipākā No. 1—Srn.—चक पेंटिपाका नं. १. ..	SE; 6·0	2·7; 12; 3; ..	Janampalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 135·0	Sironcha; 6·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 6·0	rv.	..
Cak Peṭagāṅv—Chd.—चक पेटगांव ..	E; ..	2·4; 36; 7; 22	Jibgaon; 1·0	Mul; 16·0	Saoli; 8·0; Thu.	Saoli; 8·0	W.	..
Cak Phuṭāṇā—Chd.—चक फुटाणा ..	E; ..	1·9; 317; 61; 180	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Piparī—Chd.—चक पिपरी ..	SE; ..	3·5; 587; 130; 342	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Cak Piraṅjī—Chd.—चक पिरंजी ..	NE; 38·0	2·7; 476; 107; 266	Saoli; 2·0	Mul; 9·0	Saoli; 2·0; Thu.	Saoli; 2·0	W;cl.	Sl(pr); tl.
CakRāīpeṭā urf Pocampallī—Srn — चक राईपेटा उर्फ पोचमपल्ली.	N; 8·0	0·8; 247; 56; 104	Takda (Talla); 7·0	Manchariyal; 34·0	Venkatapur; 3·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·3	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Rājagaṭā—Gdc.—चक राजगटा ..	N; 8·0	1·7; 416; 75; 251	Ambeshioni; 2·0	Mul; 33·0	Gadhchiroli; 8·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W;rv;t	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cak Rājapūr—Gdc.—चक राजपूर ..	S; 75·0	0·5; 571; 132; 234	Bori; 0·4	Balharshah; 60·0	Bori; .. Wed.	Aheri; 12·0	W;rv;t	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Rājolī—Chd.—चक राजोली ..	NE; 40·0	1·8; 418; 84; 252	Bothali; 2·0	Mul; 12·0	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0	W;cl.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Cak Raṅgadhām Peṭā—Srn.—चक रंगधाम पेटा. ..	SE; 15·0	0·8; 99; 23; 31	Ankisa; 1·0	Manchariyal; 75·0	Ankisa; 1·0; Tue.	Sironcha; 15·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cak Rudrāpūr—Chd.—चक रुद्रापूर ..	NE; 37·6	2·2; 283; 61; 181	Saoli; 3·6	Mul; 10·6	Saoli; 3·6; Thu.	Saoli; 3·6	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cak Sāyamārā—Bhm.—चक सायमारा	S; ..	1·0; 24; 8; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Selūr—Chd.—चक सेलूर ..	E; ..	1·5; 26; 5; 13	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	cl.	..
Cak Śivapūr—Chd.—चक शिवपूर ..	NE; 38·0	4·0; 55; 12; 25	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Sukavāsī—Chd.—चक सुकवासी	SE; ..	0·8; 316; 68; 197	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Cak Taḷegāṅv—Gdc.—चक तळेगांव..	NE; 39·0	1·3; 172; 31; 126	Angara; 4·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Malevada; 6·0; Sun.	.. 18·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cak Taḷodhī—Chd.—चक तळोधी ..	SE; ..	1·1; 114; 21; 79	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Tembhā—Gdc.—चक टेंभा ..	N; 14·0	1·0; 46; 8; 27	Waladha; 2·0	Wadsa; 27·0	Deloda Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	Porla; 8·0	W;t.	tl.
Cak Thāṇā—Chd.—चक ठाणा ..	E; ..	2·1; 348; 71; 171	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..

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Cak Ṭhāṇevāsanā—Chd.—चक ठाणेवासना.	E; ..	2·3; 658; 123; 437	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Tumanūr—Srn.—चक तुमनूर	SE; 9·0	1·7; 35; 7; 26	Janampalli; 8·0	Balharshah; 138·0	Sironcha; 9·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 9·0	W;rv.	..
Cak Undīragāṅv—Chd.—चक उदीरगांव.	SE; ..	0·2; 195; 41; 122	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Uśrāḷā—Chd.—चक उश्राळा	NE; 31·0	2·9; 414; 82; 252	Mul; 5·0	Mul; 5·0	Mul; 5·0; Wed.	Mul; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Cak Vāsā No. 2—Gdc.—चक वासा नं. २.	N; 10·0	0·9; 38; 4; 23	Porla; 2·0	Porla; 2·0	Porla; 2·0; Tue.	Vasa; 1·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Cak Vāyagāṅv No. 2—Chd.—चक वायगांव नं. २.	NE; 12·0	0·8; 136; 33; 84	Chanda; 12·0	Chanda; 12·0	Chanda; 12·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cak Vāyagāṅv—War.—चक वायगांव	NE; ..	0·7; 135; 31; 77	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Virakhal—Bhm.—चक विरखल	S; 25·0	4·5; 681; 134; 404	Nimgaon; 2·0	Rajoli; 14·0	Pathari; 4·0; Fri.	Vyahad; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Cak Visāpūr—Gdc.—चक विसापूर	S; 19·0	1·7; 164; 25; 98	Amgaon; 2·0	Mul; 27·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 4·0; Wed.	Ghot; 8·0	W;w.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cak Viṭṭhalavāḍā—Chd.—चक विठ्ठलवाडा.	SE; ..	2·3; 242; 55; 159	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Viṭṭhalarāvapeṭā—Srn.—चक विठ्ठलरावपेटा.	N; ..	1·3; 96; 21; 46	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Vyāhāḍ (1)—Chd.—चक व्याहाड (१).	NE; 42·0	0·4; 7; 4; ..	Mokhala; 2·0	Mul; 14·0	Vyahad Kh.; .. Mon.	.. ..	W.	..
Cak Vyaṅkaṭāpūr—Chd.—चक व्यंकटापूर.	SE; ..	0·6; 44; 9; 21	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cālabarḍī—War.—चालबर्डी	S; 8·0	2·0; 458; 86; 243	Kondha; 1·0	Manjari; 1·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Takli; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cālabarḍī—War.—चालबर्डी	SE; 17·0	2·5; 589; 125; 302	Kachrala; 3·0	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Ghodpeth Raiyyatwari; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cāmbhāraḍā—Gdc.—चांभारडा	N; 14·0	1·1; 583; 122; 331	Amirza; ..	Wadsa; 25·0	Gilgaon; 5·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Cāmorśī—Gdc.—चामोर्शी	N; 22·0	1·6; 534; 114; 308	Wasala; 2·0	Desaiganj; 19·0	Armori; 7·0; Fri.	Armori; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 3tl; gym; ch.
Cāmorśī—Gdc.—चामोर्शी	SW; 21·0	12·1; 4872; 1042; 2161	Local; ..	Mul; 18·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	5Sl(3pr, m, h); 2Cs; 5tl; m; ch; lib; dp.
Canaī Bk.—Raj.—चनई बु.	W; 34·0	1·7; 284; 71; 181	Korpana; 4·0	Rajura; 36·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; 4·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Canaī Kh.—Raj.—चनई खु.	W; 32·0	1·7; 34; 8; 7	Korpana; 4·0	Rajura; 34·0	Chanai Bk.; 2·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;n.	..
Canākhā—Raj.—चनाखा	E; 5·0	4·2; 605; 111; 330	Rajura; 5·0	Chunala; 3·0	Rajura; 5·0; Sat.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cāndāgaḍ—Gdc.—चांदागड	NE; 63·0	2·7; 544; 123; 331	Sonsari; 3·0	Wadsa; 21·0	Sonsari; 3·0; Wed.	.. 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; ch.
Cāndagāṅv—Bhm.—चांदगांव	S; 3·0	0·9; 198; 43; 115	Brahmanpuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cāndāgoṭā—Gdc.—चांदागोटा	NE; 80·0	0·6; 10; 1; 6	Kurkheda; 28·0	Wadsa; 44·0	Bori; 1·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 28·0	W.	..
Cāndāḷā—Gdc.—चांदाळा	SE; 8·0	4·8; 430; 86; 266	Badlitukum; 2·0	Mul; 36·0	Gadhchiroli; 8·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cāndalā Surlā—Chd.—चांदला सुर्ला	N; 4·6;	1·4; 317; 62; 166	Durgapur; 2·0	Chanda; 4·6	Chanda; 4·6; Wed.	Chanda; 4·6	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cāndalī—Bhm.—चांदली	NW; 4·0;	1·3; 577; 115; 308	Nanhori; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cāndalī Bk.—Chd.—चांदली बु.	NE; 32·4	2·6; 1037; 233; 340	Rajgadh; 1·0	Mul; 5·6	Rajgadh; 1·0; Tue.	Rajgadh; 1·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Candankhedā—War.—चंदनखेडा ..	E; 20·0	5·5; 1363; 283; 606	Local; ..	Warora; 20·0	Local; .. Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 7·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl; lib; dp.
Candankhedā Maktā—War.—चंदनखेडा मक्ता ..	E; 20·0	0·3; 631; 114; 155	Local; ..	Warora; 20·0	Local; .. Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; ..	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Candanavāī—Raj.—चंदनवाई ..	W; 10·0	1·5; 678; 144; 307	Pandharponi; ..	Manikgad; 12·0	Local; .. Mon.	Rajura; 10·0	W;n.	2Sl(pr, m); 3tl; ch.
Candanavelī—Srn.—चंदनवेली ..	N; 65·0	5·7; 497; 96; 249	Yetapalli; 12·0	Balharshah; 100·0	.. 38·0; ..	Yetapalli; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Candan Khedī—Gdc.—चंदन खेडी ..	S; ..	0·8; 292; 56; 183	Konsari; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Tue.	Ashti; ..	W.	tl.
Cāndāpūr—Chd.—चांदापूर ..	E; 32·6	2·2; 1100; 236; 644	Rajgadh; 3·0	Mul; 7·0	Rajgadh; 3·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 3tl; ch.
Cāndā Urban Area I—Chd.—चांदा नागरी विभाग १ ..	HQ; ..	11·0; 51484; 10612; 1414	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	pl.	Sl(pr); Mahakali Devi Fr. Ct; Ashadhi Fr. Asd.; 4tl; gym; dp.
Cāndonā—Gdc.—चांदोना ..	NE; 64·0	2·1; 140; 24; 86	Sorsari; 5·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 6·0	W.	ch.
Candrā (Surveyed)—Srn.—चंद्रा (सर्व्हे) ..	N; ..	3·6; 269; 54; 165	Perimili; 6·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Allapalli; 26·0; Sun.	Perimili; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); ch.
Cāndūr—Chd.—चांदूर ..	W; 14·0	0·8; 183; 37; 45	Ghugus; 1·6	Ghugus; 2·0	Ghugus; 2·0; Sun.	Tadali; 6·0	W;rv.	tl.
Cāndūr—Raj.—चांदूर ..	W; 14·0	6·4; 1886; 435; 1036	Local; ..	Manikgad; 16·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;n.	2Sl(pr, m); 2Cs(mis); tl; m; ch; dp.
Cannāboḍī—Srn.—चन्नाबोडी ..	NE; 108·0	3·1; 88; 16; 65	Jaravandi; ..	Balharshah; 170·0	Aheri; 60·0; Sat.	Aheri; 56·0	W;n;t.	..
Cāpalavāḍā—Gdc.—चापलवाडा ..	S; 26·0	0·8; 502; 116; 299	Ghot; 25·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Ghot; 5·0; Tue.	Ghot; 5·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Caprāḷā—Gdc. –चप्राळा ..	SW; 52·0	1·1; 184; 40; 82	Chaidampalli 3·0	Balharshah; 52·0	Ashti; 8·0; Fri.	Chaidampalli; 3·0	W;rv; t.	Cs; Hanuman Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl.
Cārabhaṭṭī—Gdc.—चारभट्टी ..	NE; 58·0	1·7; 388; 72; 216	Kurkheda; 10·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Kurkheda; 10·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Carabīdaṇḍ—Gdc.—चरबीदंड ..	SE; 65·0	0·4; 43; 6; 26	Yerkad; 12·0	Mul; 75·0	Murumgaon; 5·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 5·0	n.	..
Cāragāṅv—Chd.—चारगांव ..	NW; 7·0	1·4; 353; 68; 217	Tadali; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0; Thu.	Morwa; 1·6	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cāragāṅv—Chd.—चारगांव ..	NE; ..	1·2; 355; 69; 224	Chimatha; 4·0	Mul; 8·0	Saoli; 2·0; Thu.	Saoli; 2·0	W;rv; t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cāragāṅv—War.—चारगांव ..	S; 18·0	2·0; 357; 81; 178	Kondha; 6·0	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 4·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 4·0	n.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Cāragāṅv Baḍage—Bhm.—चारगांव बडगे ..	SW; 30·0	1·5; 355; 70; 225	Palasgaon; 1·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Palasgaon; 1·0; Wed.	Palasgaon; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Cāragāṅv Bk.—War.—चारगांव बु. ..	NE; 16·0	3·3; 967; 215; 419	Local; ..	Warora; 16·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;t.	3Sl(pr, m, h); Cs; 2tl; lib; dp.
Cāragāṅv Kh.—War.—चारगांव खु...	NE; 14·6	3·1; 947; 198; 454	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 14·0	Local; .. Tue.	Stage; 0·6	W;n.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 5tl; dh; ch; lib.
Cāragāṅv Mānāpūr—Bhm.—चारगांव मानापूर ..	SW; 23·0	1·7; 232; 46; 121	Talodhi; 3·0	Balapur; 8·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); Sat Fr. Mrg. Sud. 6; tl.
Cāravāhī—Gdc.—चारवाही ..	E; 43·0	0·2; 53; 10; 38	Yerkad; 15·0	Mul; 70·0	Murumgaon; 6·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 6·0	n.	..
Cāravaṭ—Chd.—चारवट ..	S; 5·0	1·3; 224; 44; 130	Marda; 4·0	Chanda; 5·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Charda; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Caravīdaṇḍ—Gdc.—चरवीदंड ..	NE; 75·0	0·8; 54; 9; 29	Kurkheda, ..	Desaiganj; ..	Maseli; 6·0; Fri.	Kurkheda; ..	W.	..
Ceravīdaṇḍ—Gdc.—चरवीदंड ..	NE; 74·0	1·3; 153; 21; 93	Malevada; 3·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Malevada; 3·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;t.	Sl(pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Cārlī—Raj.—चार्ली ..	N; 12·0	4·0; 668; 143; 332	Local; ..	Balharshah; 4·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl; gym.
Carur Ghārāpure—War.—चरुर घारापुरे ..	E; 19·0	2·3; 303; 60; 163	Chandan-kheda; 0·6	Warora; 19·0	Chandan-kheda; 0·6; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); tl; lib
Carur Khaṭī—War.—चरुर खटी ..	N; 4·0	4·0; 1091; 234; 557	Panzurni; 2·0	Warora; 4·6	Warora; 4·0; Sun.	Warora; 4·0	W;rv; n.	2Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Cātagāṅv—Gdc.—चातगांव ..	E; 10·0	3·2; 241; 49; 116	Local; ..	Mul; 34·0	Gilgaon; 7·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch.
Cauḍampallī—Srn.—चौडमपल्ली ..	N; 74·0	4·4; 157; 26; 112	Aheri; 20·0	Balharshah; 84·0	Allapalli; 16·0; Sun.	.. 8·0	W;n.	..
Caveḷā—Gdc.—चवेळा ..	E; 26·0	4·5; 300; 56; 184	Dhanora; 50·0	Mul; 51·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 5·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cavheḷā—Gdc.—चव्हेळा ..	NE; 31·0	1·6; 47; 8; 29	Delanwadi; 1·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Delanwadi; 1·0; Sat.	.. ..	t;n.	..
Cek Bothaḷī—Bhm.—चेक बोथळी ..	S; 6·0	1·4; 487; 96; 318	Chougan; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Chougan; 2·0; Wed.	Kinhi; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Celevāḍā—Srn.—चेलेवाडा ..	N; 41·0	0·2; 95; 20; 52	Kamalapur; 3·0	Balharshah; 92·0	Kamalapur; 3·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 5·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cerapallī—Srn.—चेरपल्ली ..	N; 58·0	0·2; 172; 33; 80	Rajaram; 3·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 10·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W;n.	..
Cerapallī—Srn.—चेरपल्ली ..	N; 63·0	1·8; 258; 47; 82	Aheri; 2·0	Balharshah; 64·0	Aheri; 2·0; Sat.	Aheri; 2·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Cerapallīdinā—Srn.—चेरपल्लीदिना ..	NW; 70·0	2·2; 293; 61; 171	Bori; 3·0	.. 58·0	Bori; 3·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cicaboḍī—Chd.—चिचबोडी ..	NE; 43·0	2·6; 950; 205; 384	Mokhala; 3·0	Mul; 14·0	Vyahad Kh.; 2·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 2·0	W;t; cl.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cicagāṅv Ḍorlī—Bhm.—चिचगांव डोर्ली ..	SE; 16·0	2·8; 636; 127; 373	Avalgaon; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 15·0	Gangalvadi; 3·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(c); 2tl; 2ch; 3Cch.
Cicaghāṭ—War.—चिचघाट ..	N; ..	0·6; 365; 70; 205	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Cicakheḍā—Bhm.—चिचखेडा ..	S; 13·0	0·5; 236; 47; 146	Mendaki; 2·0	Balapur; 7·0	Mendaki; 2·0; Tue.	Mendki; 2·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cicāḷā—Chd.—चिचाळा ..	NW; 5·0	1·1; 74; 19; 46	Chanda; 5·0	Tadali; 4·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Morwa; 2·4	W;n.	tl.
Cicāḷā—Chd.—चिचाळा ..	E; 29·0	1·5; 1734; 350; 790	Local; ..	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W.	2Sl(pr,m); 3Cs; 2tl; ch; lib.
Cicāḷā—War.—चिचाळा ..	N; ..	0·5; 40; 9; 23	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cicāḷā—War.—चिचाळा ..	NE; 51·0	1·4; 425; 91; 137	Shankarpur; 4·0	Kanpa; 10·0	Shankarpur; 6·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cicāḷā—War.—चिचाळा ..	NE; 52·0	1·5; 353; 72; 216	Shankarpur; 3·0	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Cicāḷā Raiyyatavārī—War.—चिचाळा रैय्यतवारी ..	S; ..	1·4; 33; 4; 8	Warora; ..	Warora; ..	Warora; .. Sun.	Warora; ..	W.	..
Cicapallī—Chd.—चिचपल्ली ..	E; 13·0	2·9; 731; 153; 269	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w; w.	3Sl(pr,m,h,); 2Cs (mis); 3tl; ch; dp.
Cicelā—Gdc.—चिचेला ..	S; 70·0	1·0; 143; 23; 96	Yelgur; 6·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Bori; 12·0; Wed.	Bori; 12·0	W;n.	tl; ch.
Cicevāḍā—Gdc.—चिचेवाडा ..	N; 65·0	2·4; 226; 34; 132	Sonsari; 5·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); ch.
Cicoḍā—Srn.—चिचोडा ..	NE; 106·0	3·5; 177; 27; 120	Bhamaragad; 25·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 43·0; Sun.	Aheri; 44·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Cicoḷā—Gdc.—चिचोळा ..	SE; 39·0	1·8; 194; 32; 119	Pendhari; 7·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 7·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Cicolī—Chd.—चिचोली ..	NE; 27·0	0·7; 31; 6; 16	Mul; 2·0	Mul; 2·0	Mul; 2·0; Wed.	Mul; 2·0	W.	..
Cicolī—Gdc.—चिचोली ..	N; 14·0	0·3; 7; 2; 4	Moushi Khamb; 2·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Cicolī—Gdc.—चिचोली ..	E; 25·0	1·6; 337; 65; 203	Dhanora; 4·0	Mul; 50·0	Dhanora; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;rv; t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Cicolī—War.—चिचोली ..	NE; 45·0	1·0; 264; 56; 148	Bhisi; 4·0	Kanpa; 21·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cicolī—War.—चिचोली ..	E; 20·0	3·8; 340; 65; 205	Chora; 2·0	Bhadravati; 14·0	Bhadravati; 14·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 14·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.

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Cicorḍī—War.—चिचोर्डी ..	S; 8·0	2·1; 53; 12; 26	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 2·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 2·0	W.	tl.
Cikamārā—Bhm.— चिकमारा ..	S; 41·0	1·4; 384; 86; 229	Gunjevahi; 3·0	Rajoli; 7·0	Pathari; 5·0; Fri.	Rajoli; 5·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; tl.
Cikamārā—Bhm.— चिकमारा ..	W; 10·0	1·4; 947; 199; 528	Vilam; 2·0	Nagbhid; 3·0	Nagbhid; 3·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 3·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); pyt; Cs; 2tl; ch.
Cikaṇī—War.—चिकणी ..	N; 10·0	5·5; 1376; 300; 614	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Madheli; 2·0	W;n.	2Sl(pr, m); pyt; Cs; Vithal Gopal Kala Fr. Ct. Vad. 4.; 2tl; dg; ch; 2lib; dp.
Cikhalagāṅv—Bhm.—चिखलगांव ..	SW; 27·0	1·8; 591; 124; 309	Savargaon; 2·0	Alevahi; 6·0	Navargaon; 5·0; Thu.	Local; 0·4	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; dg; ch.
Cikhalagāṅv—Bhm.—चिखलगांव ..	E; 6·0	1·1; 1073; 219; 703	Hardoli; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Arhet Nawargaon; Mon.	Hardoli; 2·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; 4tl.
Cikhalapār—War.—चिखलपार ..	NE; 36·0	0·6; 134; 28; 58	Savargaon; 0·4	Warora; 37·0	Chimur; 4·0; Fri.	Chimur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cikhal Dhokaḍā—Gdc.—चिखल धोकडा ..	NE; 112·0	0·6; 68; 10; 37	Purada; 1·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Ramgad; 2·6; Thu.	Kurkheda; 8·0	t;n.	..
Cikhalī—Bhm.—चिखली ..	SE; 28·0	1·4; 437; 96; 229	Nifandra; 2·0	Mul; 24·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cikhalī—Chd.— चिखली ..	NE; 35·0	1·5; 1182; 245; 654	Local; ..	Rajoli; ..	Rajoli; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl; gym.
Cikhalī—Gdc.—चिखली ..	N; 58·0	2·7; 817; 162; 413	Gevardha; 2·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl.
Cikhalī—Raj.—चिखली ..	SW; ..	10·0; 264; 55; 158	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cikhalī—War.—चिखली ..	NE; 39·0	2·3; 74; 16; 49	Neri; 1·6	.. 23·0	Neri; 1·6; Wed.	Neri; 1·6	W;t.	..
Cikhalī Mokāsā—War.—चिखली मोकासा ..	NE; 37·0	0·4; 75; 20; 60	Jamgaon Komti; 1·0	Kanpa; 16·0	Bhisi; 2·0; Sat.	Bhisi, 2·0	W.	tl.
Cikhalī Riṭh—Gdc.—चिखली रीठ ..	N; 40·0	0·6; 195; 34; 106	Kokadi; 2·0	Desaiganj; 9·0	Desaiganj; 9·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cikhalī Tukūm—Gdc.—चिखली तुकूम ..	N; 40·0	2·0; 135; 39; 90	Shankarpur; 4·0	Desaiganj; 9·6	Desaiganj; 9·6; Sun.	Shankarpur; 4·6	W;t.	tl.
Cikhal Minagharī—Bhm.— चिखल मिनघरी ..	SW; ..	0·5; 33; 7; 25	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n;str.	..
Cikhal Parasoḍī—Bhm.— चिखल परसोडी ..	W; 11·0	1·4; 783; 156; 338	Nagbhid; 2·0	Nagbhid; 2·0	Nagbhid; 2·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 2·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; ch, lib.
Cikyālā—Srn.—चिक्याला ..	N; 20·0	0·8; 154; 40; 98	Regunta Malgujari; 2·0	Manchariyal, ..	Bamani; 10·0; Sun.	Bamani; 10·0	rv;n.	..
Cilamaṭolā—Gdc.— चिलमटोला ..	NE; 61·0	0·8; 165; 27; 111	Kurkheda; 23·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Belgaon; 2·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;t.	ch.
Cimarīkal—Gdc.—चिमरीकल ..	E; 45·0	0·2; 65; 13; 35	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	.. 6·0	W;n.	Cs.
Cimūr—War.—चिमूर ..	NE; 33·0	3·4; 7005; 1465; 1380	Local; ..	Warora; 33·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv; t.	7Sl(pr, m, 2h); Baleji Maharaj, Fr. Mg. Sud. 13, Ghoda Fr. Mg.; 10tl; 2mq; 2dg; 2gym; ch; lib; dp.
Cicabodī—Raj.—चिचबोडी ..	S; 8·0	0·5; 262; 60; 134	Warur; 3·0	Wirur; 4·0	Wirur; 4·0; Wed.	Warur; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Cicagunḍī—Srn.—चिचगुंडी ..	N; 65·0	1·5; 592; 128; 304	Aheri; 2·0	Balharshah; 74·0	Aheri; 2·0; Sat.	Aheri; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Cicālā—Raj.—चिचाला ..	SE; 14·0	3·2; 169; 40; 99	Wirur; 2·0	Wirur; 2·0	Wirur; 2·0; Wed.	.. 10·0	W;n.	..

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Ciñcolī—Raj.—चिचोली ..	W; 24·0	1·7; 122; 26; 75	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 26·2 Brahmapuri; 5·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue. Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Chandur; 4·0 Surbodi; 1·0	W;n. W.	.. Sl(pr); 2Cs; 5tl; mq; ch; lib.
Ciñcolī Bk.—Bhm.—चिचोली बु. ..	E; 5·0	2·2; 718; 145; 414	Hardoli; 1·0					
Ciñcolī Bk.—Raj.—चिचोली बु. ..	SE; 19·0	7·5; 782; 174; 392	Local; ..	Antargaon; ..	Virur; 7·0; Wed.	.. 14·0	W.	Sl(m); Cs; tl; m; ch; lib; dp.
Ciñcolī Kh.—Bhm.—चिचोली खु. ..	W; 15·0	0·3; 7; 1; 4	Mohali Mokasa; 2·0	Nagbhid; 3·0	Nagbhid; 3·0; Thu.	Mohali Mokasa; ..	W.	tl.
Ciñcolī Kh.—Raj.—चिचोली खु. ..	W; 6·0	4·2; 648; 135; 353	Gowri; ..	Balharshah; 6·0 Nagbhid; 8·0	Rajura; 6·0; Sat. Nagbhid; 8·0; Thu.	Rajura; 6·0 Local; ..	W;n. W;t.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl. tl.
Cindhī Mālagujārī—Bhm.—चिंधी मालगुजारी. ..	SW; 19·0	0·8; 108; 27; 60	Nagbhid; 8·0					
Cinegāṅv—Gdc.—चिनेगांव ..	N; 27·0	1·4; 229; 46; 151	Sonsari; 3·0	Wadsa; 23·0 Wadsa; 34·0 Warora; 2·0 Chandrapur; 132·0	Kadholi; .. Mon. Rangi; 4·0; Wed. Warora; 2·0; Sun. Sironcha; 3·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 8·0 Dhanora; 12·0 Warora; 2·0 Sironcha; 3·0	W;n;t. W;t. W. W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs. Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl. Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl. Sl(pr).
Ciṅgalī—Gdc.—चिंगली ..	NE; 24·0	1·8; 412; 74; 254	Mohali; 1·0					
Cinorā—War.—चिनोरा ..	N; 1·6	2·7; 620; 155; 133	Warora; 2·0					
Cintalapallī—Srn.—चिंतलपल्ली ..	S; 3·0	1·4; 336; 70; 93	Sironcha; 3·0					
Cintal Dhābā—Chd.—चिंतल धाबा ..	E; ..	1·3; 818; 164; 476	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Cintal Dhābā—Chd.—चिंतल धाबा ..	E; ..	2·5; 361; 65; 202	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Cintarevalā—Srn.—चिंतरेवला ..	SE; 16·0	2·6; 736; 170; 393	Ankisa; 1·0	.. ..	Ankisa; 1·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Mahakali Fr. Ct.; tl.
Cintugunhā—Gdc.—चिंतुगुन्हा ..	S; ..	1·8; 188; 30; 114	Lagam; 0·6	Balharshah; 48·6 Bhadravati; 5·6	Lagam; 0·6; Tue. Bhadravati; 5·6; Wed.	Lagam; 0·6 Bhadravati; 5·6	W;t. W.	Cs; ch. Sl (pr); tl.
Ciparāḷā—War.—चिपराळा ..	SE; 19·0	2·0; 256; 53; 70	Kachrala; 1·0					
Cipuradubbā Raiyyatvārī—Srn.—चिपुरदुब्बा रैय्यतवारी. ..	E; 2·0	0·3; 73; 15; 42	Sironcha; 2·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Sironcha; 2·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 2·0	W;n;t.	2 tl.
Ciracāḍī—Gdc.—चिरचाडी ..	NE; 114·0	2·3; 464; 92; 289	Purada; 2·0	Desaiganj; 26·0 Bhadravati; 2·0	Ramgad; 2·0; Thu. Bhadravati; 3·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 10·0 Bhadravati; 3·0	W;n. W.	Sl (pr); Cs. Sl (pr); tl.
Cirādevī—War.—चिरादेवी ..	SE; 15·0	2·5; 431; 89; 215	Bhadravati; 3·0					
Cirolī—Chd.—चिरोली ..	E; 24·0	0·6; 1723; 367; 948	Local; ..	Totewahi; 1·6	Local; .. Sun.	.. 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; 4 tl; lib; dp.
Citakabodrā Navegāṅv—Bhm.—चिटकबोद्रा नवेगांव. ..	SW; 25·0	1·1; 75; 20; 56	Pathari; 14·0	Alevahi; 5·0	Sindevahi; 11·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;t.	tl.
Citakī—Bhm.—चिटकी ..	SW; 33·0	0·3; 166; 31; 114	Rajoli; 2·0	.. ..	Rajoli; 2·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; ch.
Citavellī—Srn.—चिटवेल्ली ..	NE; 130·0	0·1; 24; 6; 13	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Repanapalli; 16·0	rv.	..
Citegāṅv—Chd.—चिटेगांव ..	NE; 32·0	2·8; 747; 154; 405	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	Belgata; 0·6	W.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; 3 tl; ch.
Cite Kanhār—Chd.—चिटे कन्हार ..	S; 16·0	2·0; 80; 16; 59	Potegaon; ..	Mul; 40·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Citūr Raiyyatvārī—Srn.—चितूर रैय्यतवारी.	SE; 13·0	0·9; 142; 32; 87	Ankisa; 4·0	.. 142·0	Ankisa; 4·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Civaṇḍhā—Chd.—चिवंढा ..	NE; 30·4	1·2; 944; 186; 468	Local; ..	Mul; 3·4	Mul; 3·4; Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Cokhevāḍā—Srn.—चोखेवाडा ..	N; 108·0	7·8; 199; 37; 78	Ghotsur; 8·0	Mul; 68·0	Gadhchiroli; 40·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.

Village Name	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station ; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Cop—Gdc.—चोप ..	N; 39·0	4·4; 1667; 371; 993	Koregaon; 1·0	Wadsa; 6·0	Desaiganj; 2·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 5 tl; gym; lib.
Copan—Raj.—चोपन ..	W; 34·0	2·4; 87; 21; 61	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 36·0	Chanai Bk; 2·0; Mod.	.. 34·0	W;n.	Cs.
Corā—War.—चोरा ..	E; 22·0	3·7; 1516; 323; 852	Local; ..	Bhadravati; 12·0	Bhadravati; 12·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 12·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Coragāṅv—Chd.—चोरगांव ..	N; 12·0	4·7; 363; 82; 175	Durgapur; 9·0	Chanda; 12·0	Chanda; 12·0; Wed.	Chanda; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Corāḷā—Chd.—चोराळा ..	W; 2·0	0·9; 156; 23; 94	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0; Wed.	Chanda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Coraṭī—Bhm.—चोरटी ..	W; 7·0	2·7; 537; 117; 314	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Cougān—Bhm.—चौगान ..	S; 6·0	4·2; 1911; 355; 1053	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Local; .. Wed.	Kinhi; 1·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; Ram Navami Fr. Ct; Sud. 9; 5 tl; ch; dp (vet).
Cuḍīyāl—Gdc.—चुडीयाल ..	NE; ..	2·5; 76; 12; 48	Yerkadmohad; 3·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Dhanora; 8·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 9·0	W;n.	..
Cunālā—Raj.— चुनाला ..	E; 1·2	6·2; 1287; 287; 515	Local; ..	Manikgad; ..	Rajura; 1·0; Sat.	Manikgad; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; ch.
Curacurā—Gdc.—चुरचुरा ..	N; 6·0	1·4; 416; 82; 271	Sakhara; 2·0	Mul; 31·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Curamurā—Gdc.—चुरमुरा ..	N; ..	1·8; 870; 152; 446	Deulgaon; 3·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Deulgaon; 3·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Curuḷ—Chd.—चुरुळ ..	E; 33·0	8·0; 3881; 846; 1930	Local; ..	Mul; 6·0	Local; .. Sun.	Chandrapur; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; 2 lib; Cch.
Curuḷ Tukūm—Chd.—चुरुळ तुकूम ..	E; ..	2·9; 47; 12; 41	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dābagāṅv—Bhm.—दाबगांव ..	S; 33·0	2·1; 252; 59; 147	Nimagaon; 1·0	Rajoli; 15·0	Pathari; 4·0; Fri.	Vyahad; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Dābagāṅv Maktā—Chd.—दाबगांव मक्ता.	E; 20·0	3·5; 1642; 337; 707	Local; ..	Keljhar; 3·0	Local; .. Mon.	Chak Janala; 5·0	W;w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Dābakāheṭī—War.—दाबकाहेटी ..	NE; 42·0	2·0; 335; 70; 223	Jambhulghat; 2·0	Kanpa; 18·0	Jambhulghat; 2·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ḍabārī—Gdc.—डबारी ..	NE; 88·0	3·3; 89; 14; 55	Belgaon; 14·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Maseli; 5·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Ḍabbā—Gdc.—डब्बा ..	E; 26·0	0·1; 17; 3; 8	Dhanora; 5·0	Mul; 45·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 5·0	W;rv.	..
Dādāpūr—Gdc.—दादापूर ..	NE; 60·0	2·4; 361; 64; 235	Purada; 2·6	Desaiganj; 29·0	Ramgad; 1·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 13·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Dādāpūr—War.—दादापूर ..	NE; ..	2·7; 627; 119; 396	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dahegāṅv—Chd.—दहेगांव ..	E; 32·0	0·2; 128; 25; 84	Bhejgaon; 3·0	Totewahi; ..	Bhejgaon; 3·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); ch.
Dahegāṅv—Raj.—दहेगांव ..	W; ..	0·5; 24; 7; ..	Korpana; ..	Manikgad; ..	Vansadi; .. Wed.	.. ..	n.	..
Dahegāṅv—War.—दहेगांव ..	NE; 53·0	0·7; 111; 22; 66	Kanpa; 3·0	Kanpa; 3·0	Kanpa; 3·0; Sun.	Kanpa; 3·0	W;n.	Cs; Ambai Nimbai Fr; tl.
Dahegāṅv—War.—दहेगांव ..	N; 7·0	5·5; 868; 156; 477	Dongargaon; 2·0	Chikani; 2·0	Chikani; 4·0; Fri.	Warora; 7·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Dahelī—Chd.—दहेली ..	S; 15·0	1·9; 732; 156; 367	Bahmani; 3·0	Balharshah; 4·0	Ballarpur; 4·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Ḍallī—Gdc.— डल्ली ..	NE; 116·0	2·1; 75; 15; 24	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	W;n.	..
Dāmāpūr—Gdc.—दामापूर ..	S; ..	1·4; 129; 23; 63	Lagam; 1·6	Balharshah; 49·6	Lagam; 0·6; Tue.	Stage; 0·6	W.	ch; dp.
Dāmarañcā—Srn.—दामरंचा ..	NE; 56·0	4·1; 539; 102; 278	Kamalapur; 22·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 48·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 24·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Dāmeśvar—Gdc.—दामेश्वर ..	NE; 70·0	3·9; 176; 28; 111	Malevada; 3·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Malevada; 3·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 20·0	W;rv.	..
Darabhā—Srn.—दरभा ..	NE; 121·0	0·2; 135; 25; 76	Bhamaragad; 7·0	Balharshah; 118·0	Allapalli; 62·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Dāracī—Gdc.—दारची ..	NE; 63·0	0·2; 34; 8; 24	Kurkheda; 40·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	rv;n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Darācī—Gdc.—दराची ..	E; 26·0	0·2; 103; 18; 53	Dhanora; 5·0	Mul; 52·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 5·0	n.	..
Darpanaguḍā—Gdc.—दर्पनगुडा ..	S; 30·0	0·5; 113, 21; 78	Ghot; 3·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Ghot; 3·0; Tue.	Ghot; 3·0	W;n.	ch.
Darśanīmāḷ—Gdc.—दर्शनीमाळ ..	S; 11·7	1·4; 210; 48; 94	Kunghəda; 0·3	Mul; 32·7	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 11·7	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Darsevāḍā—Srn.—दर्सेवाडा ..	N; 24·0	0·3; 131; 30; 76	.. 3·6	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 19·0	W;rv.	tl.
Darur—Chd.—दरुर ..	SE; ..	3·5; 540; 103; 315	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dātāḷā—Chd.—दाताळा ..	W; 3·6	2·6; 629; 139; 313	Chanda; 3·6	Chanda; 3·6	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Davaṇḍī—Gdc.—दवंडी ..	NE; 25·0	2·1; 282; 48; 185	Delanwadi; 5·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Delanwadi; 5·0; Sat.	.. ..	t.	Sl (pr); tl; Cch.
Decalī—Srn.—देचली ..	NE; 34·0	2·2; 570; 114; 312	Aheri; 43·0	Balharshah; 106·0	Aheri; 43·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 15·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Delanavāḍī—Bhm.—देलनवाडी ..	S; ..	1·6; 1; 1; ..	Brahmapuri; 1·6	Brahmapuri; 1·6	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W.	tl.
Delanavāḍī—Gdc.—देलनवाडी ..	N; 14·0	1·1; 678; 145; 408	Local; ..	Wadsa; 14·0	Local; .. Sat.	Armori; 14·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); ch; 2tl.
Deloḍā Bk.—Gdc.—देलोडा बु. ..	N; 12·0	1·0; 662; 133; 397	Local; ..	Wadsa; 24·0	Local; .. Wed.	Porla; 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Deloḍā Kh.—Gdc.—देलोडा खु. ..	N; 12·0	0·5; 468; 89; 242	Deloda Bk.; 0·6	Wadsa; 24·0	Deloda Bk.; 0·6; Wed.	Porla; 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Desāīgañj—Gdc.—देसाईगंज ..	N; 32·0	0·4; 3019; 623; 147	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	.. ..	W;t; pl.	10Sl (3pr, 2m, 2h, 3clg); 4Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl; m; mq; dg; lib; 3 dp.
Deśapūr—Gdc.—देशपूर ..	N; 16·0	0·6; 187; 38; 108	Deloda Bk.; 2·0	Wadsa; 28·0	Deloda Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	Porla; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Deulabhaṭṭī—Gdc.—देऊळभट्टी ..	NE; 65·0	1·0; 266; 60; 167	Kurkheda; 40·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 2·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Deulagāṅv—Gdc.—देऊळगांव ..	E; 19·0	0·3; 47; 12; 40	Gilgaon; 3·6	Mul; 44·0	Gilgaon; 3·6; Fri.	Dudhamara; 4·0	W;n.	..
Deulagāṅv—Gdc.—देऊळगांव ..	N; 61·0	3·8; 518; 108; 320	Kurkheda; 5·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 5·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Deulagāṅv—Gdc.—देऊळगांव ..	N; 24·0	3·9; 689; 145; 387	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 18·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Devi Fr. Phg.; 2 tl.
Deulavāḍā—War.—देऊळवाडा ..	S; 10·0	2·9; 802; 171; 403	Kondha; 2·0	Majari; 2·0	Bhadravati; 2·6; Wed.	Bhadravati; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Devāḍā—Bhm.—देवाडा ..	SW; 40·0	0·6; 128; 20; 73	Gadbori; 1·0	Sindevahi; 6·0	Navargaon; 6·0; Thu.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W;n; t.	2 tl.
Devāḍā—Chd.—देवाडा ..	W; 3·0	2·8; 400; 68; 233	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Devāḍā—Gdc.—देवाडा ..	SE; 27·0	0·1; 28; 5; 17	Potegaon; 3·0	Mul; 51·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 20·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 20·0	rv.	..
Devāḍā—Raj.—देवाडा ..	S; 13·0	3·1; 1008; 229; 533	Local; ..	Manikgad; 16·0	Bhedoda; 3·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Devāḍā Bk.—Chd.—देवाडा बु. ..	E; ..	2·8; 726; 148; 354	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; n.	..
Devāḍā Kh.—Chd.—देवाडा खु. ..	E; ..	2·1; 1489; 271; 880	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Devaḍā Masāhat—Srn.—देवडा मसाहत.	N; 110·0	0·1; 30; 6; 16	Yetapalli; 10·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Aheri; 44·0; Sat.	Aheri; 44·0	W.	tl; ch.
Devagaḍ—Gdc.—देवगड ..	NE; 82·0	.. 10; 2; 8	Malevada; 9·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Malevada; 9·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 24·0	n.	..
Devaī Govindapūr Raiyyatvārī—Chd.—देवई गोविंदपूर रैय्यतवारी. ..	N; 0·6	2·7; 578; 136; 108	Chanda; 0·6	Chanda; 0·6	Chanda; 1·0; Wed.	Chanda; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib; dp.
Devaī Govindapūr Tukūm—Chd.—देवई गोविंदपूर तुकूम.	N; 0·6½	0·1; 118; 25; 34	Chanda; 1·0	Chanda; 1·0	Chanda; 2·6; Wed.	Chanda; 0·6	W.	2Sl(pr, m); gym; ch; lib.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Devalamarrī—Srn —देवलमर्री ..	N; 56·0	4·1; 981; 215; 454	Local; ..	Balharshah; 72·0	Aheri; 10·0; Sun.	Aheri; 10·0	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Devapāḍī—Srn.—देवपाडी ..	NE; 150·0	0·2; 73; 13; 27	Ghotsur; 25·0	Balharshah; 150·0	Irpanar; 24·0; ..	.. ..	W;n.	ch.
Devapāyalī—Bhm.— देवपायली ..	SW; 24·0	1·2; 622; 137; 384	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	Talodhi; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 2·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Devāpūr—Gdc.—देवापूर ..	SE; 26·0	1·8; 89; 20; 50	Potegaon; 2·0	Mul; 47·0	Talodhi-Mokasa; 24·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 26·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr).
Devasarā—Gdc.—देवसरा ..	NE, 40·0	1·1, 197; 39; 131	Malevada; 2·0	Wadsa; 34·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 18·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Devesūr—Gdc.—देवसूर ..	SE; 45·0	1·3; 51; 10; 32	Yerkad; 25·0	Mul; 73·0	Murumgaon; 17·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 17·0	W.	..
Devaṭak—Bhm.—देवटक ..	W; 9·0	0·8; 194; 40; 109	Vilam; 2·0	Nagbhid; 4·0	Nagbhid; 4·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 4·0	W.	2 tl.
Dhābā—Chd.—धाबा ..	SE; ..	4·4; 1866; 447; 711	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Bhm.—धामणगांव ..	S; 6·0	0·7; 212; 54; 137	.. 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	.. 2·0; ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Dhāmanagāṅv—Chd.—धामनगांव ..	SE; ..	1·7; 455; 91; 276	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Raj.— धामणगांव ..	W; 16·0	1·2; 205; 50; 126	Nanda; 2·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Chandur; 2·0	n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhāmaṇagāṅv Malagujārī—Bhm.— धामणगांव मालगुजारी.	SW; 26·0	0·9; 62; 13; 44	Talodhi; 7·0	Balapur; 12·0	Navargaon; 8·0; Thu.	Talodhi; 7·0	W;t.	tl.
Dhāmanī—War.—धामनी ..	E; 10·0	3·4; 330; 63; 193	Sagara; 2·0	Warora; 10·0	Warora; 10·0; Sun.	Shegaon; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; tl.
Dhanakadevī—Raj.— धनकदेवी ..	SW; 34·0	7·1; 149; 31; 91	Korpana; 8·0	Manikgad; 36·2	.. 5·0; ..	Wansadi; 7·0	W;n.	tl.
Dhānāpūr Raiyyatvārī—Chd.— धानापूर रैय्यतवारी. ..	SE; ..	2·9; 858; 173; 435	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dhanegāṅv—Gdc.—धनेगांव ..	NE; 72·0	0·4; 86; 16; 55	Malevada; 2·0	Desaiganj; 36·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 19·0	W;rv.	..
Dhānolī—Raj.—धानोली ..	W; 32·0	1·8; 527; 117; 344	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 34·2	Wansadi; 4·0; Wed.	Wansadi; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Dhānolī—War.—धानोली ..	NE; ..	0·7; 111; 22; 65	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dhānolī—War.—धानोली ..	E; 9·0	2·8; 912; 209; 502	Pirli; 2·0	Bhadravati; 8·0	Bhadravati; 8·0; Wed.	Takali; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(m); Cs; Pakharabai Fr. Mg. Sud. 5; 2tl.
Dhānorā—Bhm.—धानोरा ..	SW; 32·0	0·3; 15; 4; 10	Rajoli; 8·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 10·0	W;t.	..
Dhānorā—Chd.—धानोरा ..	SW; 10·0	3·8; 980; 196; 480	Local; ..	Ghugus; 5·0	Ghugus, 5·0; Sun.	Chanda; 10·0	W;rv.	2Sl (pr, m); 2Cs; 3tl; ch.
Dhānorā—Gdc.—धानोरा ..	E; 21·0	6·5; 1259; 278; 487	Local; ..	Mul; 46·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; Mahadev Fr. mg; 2tl; mq; ch; 3lib; dp.
Dhānorā—Raj.—धानोरा ..	SE; 14·0	4·5; 585; 116; 183	Wirur; 2·0	Wirur; 2·0	Wirur; 2·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhānorī—Gdc.—धानोरी ..	N; 54·0	1·9; 239; 50; 155	Desaiganj; 22·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Dhannur—Gdc.—धन्नुर ..	S; 70·0	2·0; 241; 43; 132	Lagam; 4·0	Ballarshah; 50·0	Lagam; 4·0; Tue.	Lagam; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Dharamāram—Raj.— धरमारम ..	SW; ..	0·8; 103; 27; 47	Wakadi; 6·0	Manikgad; 24·0	Wakadi; 6·0; Fri.	Wakadi; 6·0	n.	..
Dharmaśāḷā—Chd.—धर्मशाळा ..	S; 4·0	0·2; 65; 21; 9	Chanda; ..	Chanda; ..	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Chanda; ..	W.	tl.
Ḍhāvarī—Gdc.—ढावरी ..	NE; 5·0	0·1; 28; 6; 19	Dhanora; 5·0	Mul; 51·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 5·0	n.	..
Ḍhekaṇī—Gdc.—ढेकणी ..	S; 24·0	2·8; 92; 16; 63	Muranda; 2·0	Mul; 34·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·5	W;t.	.. .

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Dhiḍasī—Raj.—धिडसी ..	N; 13·0	1·1; 565; 129; 313	Charli; 2·0	Chanda; 7·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Sakhari; 3·0	W;rv.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Dhobaguḍā—Srn.—धोबगुडा ..	N; ..	0·1; 46; 7; 27	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Dhoḍarāj—Srn.—धोडराज ..	NE; 121·0	2·6; 194; 40; 112	Bhamaragad; 7·0	Balharshah; 127·0	Allapalli; 61·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 61·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); ch.
Ḍholaḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—ढोलडोंगरी ..	NE; 49·0	0·5; 32; 6; 27	Angara; 2·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Malevada; 7·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 14·0	W;n.	ch.
Ḍholaḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—ढोलडोंगरी ..	NE; 64·0	1·5; 163; 29; 98	Kurkheda; 45·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; ..	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); Mandai Fr. Phg.
Dhoṇḍā Arjunī—Raj.— धोंडा अर्जुनी..	SW; ..	0·4; 133; 25; 74	.. ..	.. ..	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Dhopaṭāḷā—Raj.—धोपटाळा ..	W; 30·0	2·0; 178; 46; 71	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 30·0	Korpana; 4·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W.	3tl.
Dhopaṭāḷā—Raj. —धोपटाळा ..	W; 4·0	1·6; 98; 21; 51	Rajura; 4·0	Manikgad; 7·0	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	Rajura; 4·0	W;n.	tl.
Dhoragaṭṭā—Gdc.—धोरगट्टा ..	SE; 45·0	1·3; 235; 41; 140	Pendhari; 2·0	Mul; 66·0	Pendhari; 2·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Ḍhorapā—Bhm.—ढोरपा ..	NW; 8·0	1·3; 581; 147; 347	Paharani; 2·0	Nagbhid; 11·0	Paharani; 2·0; Mon.	Nagbhid; 11·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Ḍhoravāsā—War.—ढोरवासा ..	S; 12·0	3·0; 543; 125; 226	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 3·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 3·0	W.	2Sl (pr, m); tl; ch.
Dhunakī—Raj.—धुनकी ..	W; 13·0	0·5; 67; 15; 42	Bakhardi; 3·0	Manikgad; 15·0	Chandur; 5·0; Tue.	Hardona Bk.; 5·0	W.	tl.
Dhuṇḍeśivanī—Gdc.—धुंडेशिवनी ..	N; 12·0	2·8; 1086; 212; 632	Amirza; 1·0	Wadsa; 31·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ḍhuśī—Gdc.—ढुशी ..	NE; 69·0	0·1; 35; 5; 18	Kurkheda; 6·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 6·0	W.	ch.
Dibhanā—Gdc.—दिभना ..	N; 4·0	1·8; 639; 121; 358	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	Mul; 29·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Dighorī—Bhm.—दिघोरी ..	N; 6·6	3·0; 810; 161; 473	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 6·6	Local; .. Wed.	Brahmapuri; 6·6	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; gym.
Dighorī—Chd.—दिघोरी ..	E; ..	3·7; 804; 175; 414	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;cl.	..
Diṇḍavī—Srn.—दिंडवी ..	NE; 110·0	3·3; 320; 60; 175	Jaravandi; 4·0	Balharshah; 172·0	Aheri; 62·0; Sat.	Aheri; 58·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Diṇḍoḍā—War.—दिंदोडा ..	NW; 14·4	1·3; 165; 33; 96	Soit; ..	Dongargaon; 9·0	Madheli; 3·0; Mon.	Warora; 14·4	n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Diṇḍoḍā Kh.—War.—दिंदोडा खु. ..	NE; 6·0	1·5; 241; 46; 140	Waror ; 6·0	Warora; 6·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Warora; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Doḍager—Srn.—दोडगेर ..	NE; 39·0	2·5; 133; 26; 59	Dechali; 6·0	Balharshah; ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Doḍahur—Srn.—दोडहुर ..	NE; 150·0	5·9; 135; 22; 54	Ghotsur; 16·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 12·0; ..	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Doḍake—Gdc.— दोडके ..	NE; 75·0	1·3; 184; 31; 123	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Korchi; 2·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; ..	W.	..
Doḍepallī—Srn.—दोडेपल्ली ..	NE; 70·0	2·1; 137; 26; 97	Bhamaragad; 12·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Allapalli; 28·0; Sun.	Aheri; 33·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Doḍī Masāhat—Srn.—दोडी मसाहत..	N; 81·0	0·1; 113; 19; 77	Yetapalli; 5·0	Chandrapur; 95·0	Allapalli; 25·0; Sun.	Yetapalli; 5·0	W;n.	..
Doḍī (Surveyed)—Srn.—दोडी (सर्व्हेड). ..	N; 82·0	4·3; 189; 31; 105	Yetapalli; 4·0	Chandrapur; 100·0	Allapalli; 26·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; lib.
Ḍolaṇḍā—Srn.—डोलंडा ..	NE; 111·0	2·1; 280; 59; 168	Jaravandi; 5·0	Balharshah; 173·0	Aheri; 63·0; Sat.	Aheri; 59·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ḍonaḷā—Chd.—डोनाळा ..	N; 53·0	0·7; 484; 100; 272	Nilsani Pethgaon; 4·0	Mul; 25·0	Vyahad Kh; 11·0; Mon.	Mokhala; 10·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ḍoṇḍī—Gdc.— डोंडी ..	NE; 64·0	1·1; 198; 44; 135	Kurkheda; 25·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Belgaon; 4·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 25·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Bhm.—डोंगरगांव ..	SE; ..	1·7; 705; 135; 411	Vihirgaon; 2·0	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; .. Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Chd.—डोंगरगांव ..	SE; ..	1·3; 287; 60; 177	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Chd.—डोंगरगांव ..	NE; ..	2·7; 1799; 341; 918	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Gdc.— डोंगरगांव ..	N; 31·0	1·3; 55; 8; 41	Sonsari; 2·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Sonsari; 2·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W.	..
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Gdc.—डोंगरगांव ..	NE; 116·0	1·3; 104; 15; 63	Purada; 4·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Ramgad; 5·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 12·0	rv;n.	..
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Gdc.—डोंगरगांव ..	N; 35·0	1·6; 676; 128; 397	Kokadi; 4·0	Desaiganj; 10·0	Desaiganj; 10·0; Sun.	Kondhala; 7·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Gdc.—डोंगरगांव ..	N; 18·0	2·8; 959; 181; 592	Wasala; 1·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 2·0; Fri.	Stage; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; gym; ch.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Raj.— डोंगरगांव ..	.. ..	0·9; 74; 16; 36	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..

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Doṅgaragāṅv—Raj.—डोंगरगांव ..	SE; 18·0	4 0; 279; 65; 154	Wirur; 3·0	Wirur; 3·0	Wirur; 3·0; Wed.	Wirur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv—War.—डोंगरगांव ..	NE; 35·0	0·5; 46; 7; 32	Jamgaonkomti; 1·0	Kanpa; 18·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W.	tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv—War.—डोंगरगांव ..	NE; 47·0	1·3; 114; 24, 70	Doma; 2·0	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W.	tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv—War.—डोंगरगांव ..	E; 8·0	3·2; 669; 139; 375	Local; ..	Warora; 8·0	Warora; 8·0; Sun.	Nandori Bk.; 4·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Damaji Buva Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv—War.—डोंगरगांव ..	N; ..	1·3; 913; 209; 347	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Doṅgaragāṅv Bk.—Bhm.—डोंगरगांव बु.	W; 13·0	1·2; 885; 194; 413	Mohali 2 0 Mokasa;	Nagbhid; 3·0	Nagbhid; 3·0; Thu.	Naokhala; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; ch; lib.
Doṅgaragāṅv Bk.—Gdc.—डोंगरगांव बु.	S; 7·0	1·4; 455; 89; 261	Yeoli; 2·0	Mul; 32·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 7·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv Kh.—Bhm.—डोंगरगांव खु.	W; 14·0	0·8; 1; 1; 1	Nagbhid; ..	Nagbhid; ..	Nagbhid; .. Thu.	Nagbhid; ..	W.	tl.
Doṅgaragāṅv (Sāloṭakar) — Bhm.—डोंगरगांव (सालोटकर).	SW; 28·0	2·7; 746; 159; 378	Palasgaon Jat; 2·0	Alevahi; 3·0	Palasgaon Jat; 2·0; Wed.	Palasgaon Jat; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 3Cs; tl; gym; lib.
Doṅgar Haḷadī No. 2—Chd.—डोंगर हळदी नं. २.	E; ..	0·6; 549; 108; 264	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Doṅgarahaḷadī Tukūm — Chd.—डोंगरहळदी तुकूम.	E; ..	0·4; 402; 80; 239	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Doṅgarahūr—Gdc.—डोंगरहूर ..	NE; 32·0	0·1; 11; 1; 9	Yerkadmohed; 4·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Bhakrandi; 8·0; Tue.	Dhanora; 10·0	W;n.	..
Doṅgaramenḍhā—Gdc.—डोंगरमेंढा..	N; 40·0	1·9; 164; 32; 101	Wisora; 2·0	Wadsa; 6·0	Desaiganj; 6·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Doṅgarlā—War.—डोंगर्ला ..	NE; 40·0	0·7; 190; 28; 110	Jamgaon Komti; 4·0	Kanpa; 20·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Doṅgar Sāvaṅgī — Gdc. — डोंगर सावंगी.	N; 23·0	2·2; 759; 159; 446	Deulgaon; 2·0	Desaiganj; 17·0	Deulgaon; 2·0; Mon.	Deulgaon; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Doṅgar Tāmasī — Gdc. — डोंगर तामसी.	N; 20·0	0·8; 129; 27; 80	Wairagad; 3·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Wairagad; 3·0; Thu.	Armori; 11·0	W;t.	Cs; 3tl; ch.
Domā—War.—डोमा ..	NE; 46·0	5·7; 1311; 286; 786	Local; ..	Kanpa; 14·0	Shankarpur; 5·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 2·0	W;t.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; Mukta Bai Fr. Ct; tl.
Doralī—Gdc.—डोरली ..	N; 17·0	0·8; 317; 50; 156	Waladha; 2·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Deloda Bk.; 3·0; Wed.	Deulgaon; 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dotakulī—Gdc.—दोटकुली ..	SW; ..	3.2; 813; 141; 434	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dubbāguḍam—Srn.—दुब्बागुडम ..	N; 32·0	0·4; 16; 3; 13	Kamalapur; 15·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Bamani; 15·0; Sun.	Umanur; 6·0	W;n.	..
Dubbāguḍam—Srn.—दुब्बागुडम ..	NE; 56·0	3·5; 17; 3; 13	Kamalapur; 25·0	Balharshah; ..	Allapalli; 45·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 25·0	rv.	..
Dubbāguḍam—Srn.—दुब्बागुडम ..	NE; 116·0	0·1; 46; 7; 37	Bhamaragad; 2·0	Balharshah; 113·0	Allapalli; 55·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 55·0	rv; n.	..
Dubhārapeṭh—Chd.—दुभारपेठ ..	SE; ..	1·1; 175; 33; 108	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Dudhamārā—Gdc.—दुधमारा ..	E; 15·5	3·8; 476; 101; 315	Chatgaon; 4·0	Mul; 40·0	Dhanora; 6·0; Thu.	Stage; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Dugāḷā—Chd.—दुगाळा ..	E; 34·0	0·8; 209; 32; 122	Bhejgaon; 2·0	Mul; 9·0	Mul; 9·0; Wed.	Mul; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dugāḷā Raiyyatvārī—Chd.—दुगाळा रैयतवारी.	E; 35·0	2·4; 283; 61; 155	Bhejgaon; 3·0	Mul; 10·0	Mul; 10·0; Wed.	.. 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dumme—Srn.—दुम्मे ..	N; ..	1·2; 187; 27; 98	Yetapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 83·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 18·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.

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Durgāḍī—Raj.—दुर्गाडी ..	W; 42·0	2·3; 252; 61; 136	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	.. 42·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Durgāpūr—Chd.—दुर्गापूर ..	N; 3·0	4·2; 949; 195; 378	Local; ..	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·0	W;w.	2Sl (pr,m); 2Cs; m; Cch.
Durgāpūr—Gdc.—दुर्गापूर ..	SE; 50·0	0·8; 210; 39; 99	Pendhari; 4·0	Mul; 73·0	Pendhari; 4·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Ekarā Bk.—Srn.—एकरा बु. ..	N; 65·0	0·4; 156; 23; 92	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Ekarā Kh.—Srn.—एकरा खु. ..	N; 67·0	0·2; 95; 18; 56	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Allapalli; 25·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Ekārjunā—War.—एकार्जुना ..	S; 1·0	1·6; 880; 183; 371	Warora; 1·0	Warora; 1·0	Warora; 1·0; Sun.	Warora; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ekoḍī—Raj.—एकोडी ..	NW; 17·0	2·1; 244; 51; 147	Bhoyegaon; 1·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	Kavathala; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2tl; ch.
Ekonā—War.—एकोना ..	W; 6·0	2·5; 701; 138; 389	Panzurni; 2·0	Warora; 6·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Warora; 6·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2Cs; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2tl; ch; lib.
Eṭāvāhī—Srn.—एटावाही ..	N; 108·0	0·9; 169; 29; 67	Ghotsur; 17·0	Mul; 64·0	Gadhchiroli; 33·9; Sun.	Halevara; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Gaḍaborī—Bhm.—गडबोरी ..	SW; 39·0	0·8; 1127; 310; 588	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 6·0	Sindevahi; 6·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 12tl; ch; lib.
Gaḍaciroḷī—Gdc.—गडचिरोली ..	HQ; ..	4·1; 6180; 1291; 1962	Local; ..	Mul; 25·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;t.	6Sl(2pr, m, 3h); 11Cs; 4tl; mq; dg; gym; lib; 3dp.
Gaḍāḍāpallī—Srn.—गडाडापल्ली ..	N; 110·0	5·8; 208; 39; 66	Ghotsur; 11·0	Mul; 67·0	Gadhchiroli; 38·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 8·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Gadagāṅv—War.—गदगांव ..	NE; 36·0	1·9; 619; 136; 288	Chimur; 3·0	Warora; 36·0	Chimur; 3·0; Fri.	Chimur; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Gaḍaherī—Srn.—गडअहेरी ..	N; 65·0	0·7; 286; 52; 124	Aheri; 1·0	Balharshah; 62·0	Aheri; 1·0; Sat.	Aheri; 1·0	W;n.	tl.
Gaḍaherī Urf Bāmaṇī—Srn.—गडअहेरी उर्फ बामणी. N; 65·0	1·2; 125; 20; 63	Aheri; 4·0	Balharshah; 64·0	Aheri; 4·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	..
Gaḍapiparī—War.—गडपिपरी ..	NE; 37·0	0·6; 108; 23; 60	Chimur; 2·0	Kanpa; 16·0	Chimur; 2·0; Fri.	Chimur; 2·0	W;n.	tl.
Gaḍapiparī—War.—गडपिपरी ..	NE; 53·0	1·6; 530; 115; 327	Bhisi; 4·0	Kanpa; 10·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Gāḍegāṅv—Raj.—गाडेगांव ..	W; 16·0	2·4; 379; 78; 248	Wirur Gadegaon; 2·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Chandur; 8·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Gaḍherī—Srn.—गढेरी ..	N; 134·0	4·0; 108; 18; 61	Yetapalli; 30·0	Balharshah; 130·0	Aheri; 54·0; Sat.	Aheri; 54·0	W;n.	2tl; ch.
Gahānegaṭṭā—Gdc.—गहानेगट्टा ..	NE; 84·0	1·5; 213; 37; 135	Kurkheda; 36·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Bori; 1·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 36·0	t.	..
Gahuboḍī—Gdc.—गहुबोडी ..	S; ..	0·7; 15; 4; 11	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Gajameṇḍhī—Gdc.—गजमेंढी ..	E; 37·0	0·2; 142; 25; 62	Yerkad; 12·0	Mul; 75·0	Murumgaon; 8·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 8·0	W.	..
Gajanaguḍā—Gdc.—गजनगुडा ..	SE; 19·0	0·1; 33; 5; 23	Gurwala; 12·0	Mul; 39·0	Gadhchiroli; 19·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 19·0	W;n.	..
Gajegāṅv—Gdc.—गजेगांव ..	NE; 65·0	0·8; 66; 12; 42	Kurkheda; 40·0	Wadsa; 55·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Gaṇapūr Raiyyatvārī—Gdc.—गणपूर रैयतवारी. SW; 40·0	5·4; 1369; 273; 784	Local; ..	Mul; ..	Local;	Ashti; 18·0	W;rv.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; ch.
Gaṇerī—Raj.—गणेरी ..	S; 20·0	2·3; 45; 10; 26	Devada; 6·0	Manikgad; 17·0	Bhedoda; 8·0; Fri.	Devada; 8·0	W.	..
Gaṇeśapūr—Bhm.—गणेशपूर ..	S; 14·0	1·0; 170; 33; 104	Mendki; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 7·0	Mendki; 2·0; Tue.	Mendki; 2·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Gaṇeś Piparī—Chd.—गणेश पिपरी ..	SE; ..	0·6; 429; 92; 270	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Gāṅgalavāḍī—Bhm.—गांगलवाडी ..	SE; 13·0	2·2; 889; 177; 469	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 13·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;rv; n.	2Sl(pr, m); 2Cs; 3tl; ch; dp.
Gāṅgalavāḍī Raiyyatvārī—Chd.—गांगलवाडी रैयतवारी NE; ..	0·6; 581; 115; 340	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Gāṅgolī—Gdc.—गांगोली ..	N; 65·0	1·1; 231; 41; 138	Kurkheda; 7·6	Wadsa; 23·6	Kurkheda; 7·6; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·6	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; ch.
Gañjirāmannāpeṭā–Srn.–गंजिरामन्ना-पेटा.	SE; 15·0	0·3; 142; 31; 90	Ankisa; 1·0	Manchariyal; 75·0	Ankisa; 0·4; Tue.	Sironcha; 15·0	W;t.	Sl(pr).
Garaḍāpār—War.—गरडापार ..	NE; 42·0	1·5; 250; 47; 163	Jamgaon Komti; 2·0	Kanpa; 21·0	Chimur; 5·0; Fri.	Chimur; 5·0	w.	Sl(pr); tl.
Garagaḍā—Gdc.—गरगडा ..	NE; 55·0	0·6; 152; 29; 87	Desaiganj; 23·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W;rv; n.	Sl(pr).
Garakāpeṭā—Srn.—गरकापेटा ..	N; 9·0	0·5; 224; 49; 88	Tekda (Talla); 6·0	Manchariyal; 36·0	Venkatapur; 2·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Garañjī—Gdc.—गरंजी ..	SE; 40·0	0·5; 93; 15; 59	Regadi; 14·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Ghot; 18·0; Tue.	Regadi; 14·0	W;n.	ch.
Gārāpaṭṭī—Gdc.—गारापट्टी ..	NE; 76·0	1·4; 120; 25; 83	Yerkad; 25·0	Mul; 73·0	Kotgul; 11·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 17·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Garatāvāhī—Srn.—गरतावाही ..	NE; 9·0	4·7; 77; 18; 43	Jaravandi; 9·0	Balharshah; 177·0	Aheri; 67·0; Sat.	Aheri; 63·0	W;n;t.	tl.
Gardevāḍā—Srn.—गर्देवाडा ..	NE; 155·0	4·8; 205; 35; 86	Ghotsur; 24·0	Balharshah, 150·0	Irpanar, 20·0; ..	Yetapalli; 35·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); ch.
Gaṭanelī—Gdc.—गटनेली ..	E, 31·0	0·3; 28; 6; 17	Yerkad; 3·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Dhanora; 10·0; Thu.	Dhanora, 9·0	n.	..
Gaṭṭā—Gdc.—गट्टा ..	SE; 29·0	3·8; 257; 49; 152	Pendhari; 12·0	Mul; 59·0	Pendhari; 12·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs.
Gaṭṭā—Srn.—गट्टा ..	NE; 110·0	3·2; 231; 43; 77	Yetapalli; 30·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Allapalli; 48·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 48·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; ch; dp.
Gaṭṭāguḍā– Srn.—गट्टागुडा ..	NE; 108·0	2·6; 73; 14; 15	Yetapalli; 28·0	Balharshah; 94·0	Allapalli; 46·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 46·0	W;n.	..
Gaṭṭepallī—Srn.– गट्टेपल्ली ..	N; 127·0	5·8; 34; 8; 24	Yetapalli; 123·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Aheri; 47·0	W;t.	tl; ch.
Gaṭṭepallī—Srn.– गट्टेपल्ली ..	N; ..	0·3; 120; 26; 54	Perimili; 10·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	Kandoli; 4·0	W;rv; n.	ch.
Gaṭṭepāyalī—Gdc.—गट्टेपायली ..	E; 16·0	2·2; 164; 23; 98	Mendhatola; 1·0	Mul; 39·0	Mendhatola; 1·0; Wed.	Chatgaon; 5·0	w.	Sl(pr); ch.
Gaul Bk.—War.—गऊळ बु. ..	N; 17·0	2·3; 151; 31; 81	Nagri; 2·0	Nagri; 2·0	Nagri; 2·0; Tue.	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr); tl.
Gaul Kh.—War.—गऊळ खु. ..	N; 12·0	1·3; 145; 32; 75	Nagri; 3·0	Nagri; 2·6	Nagri; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Gaurāḷā—War.—गौराळा ..	S; 11·0	1·2; 1119; 251; 453	Bhadravati; 1·0	Bhadravati; 1·0	Bhadravati; 1·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 1·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl; ch.
Gaurī—Raj.—गौरी ..	W; ..	6·7; 1191; 227; 609	Local; ..	Manikgad; 5·0	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; lib; dp.
Gavāḷaheṭī—Gdc.—गवाळहेटी ..	SE; 27·0	0·4; 122; 16; 75	Potegaon; 2·0	Mul; 52·0	Gadhchiroli; 27·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 27·0	W;rv.	..
Gāyaḍoṅgarī—Bhm.—गायडोंगरी ..	S; 30·0	1·7; 269; 65; 160	Nimgaon; 2·0	Rajoli; 14·0	Pathari; 4·0; Fri.	Vyahad, 7·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch.
Gāyaḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—गायडोंगरी ..	SE; 20·0	N.A. 88; 19; 64	Karwafa; 2·0	Mul; 39·0	Karwafa; 2·0; Tue.	Karwafa; 2·0	W;n.	ch.
Gāyaḍoṅgarī Tukūm—Bhm.— गाय-डोंगरी तुकूम.	S; 8·0	0·7; 120; 19; 85	Mendaki; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Mendaki; 2·0; Tue.	Mendaki; 4·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Gāyamukh—Bhm.—गायमुख ..	SW; 20·0	0·3; 90; 22; 4	Balapur Bk.; 1·0	Talodhi; ..	Balapur Bk.; 1·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 1·0	W.	Mahashivratri Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 2tl.
Gedā—Srn.—गेदा ..	N; 72·0	8·9; 333; 63; 171	Yetapalli; 12·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Gevarā Bk.—Bhm.—गेवरा बु. ..	SE; 27·0	2·1; 821; 180; 485	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 24·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 7·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; gym; ch; lib.
Gevarā Kh.—Bhm.– गेवरा खु. ..	S; 24·0	1·5; 648; 130; 368	Geora Bk.; 0·6	Sindevahi; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; 5·0; Sun.	Vyahad; 10·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl; ch.
Gevardhā—Gdc.–गेवर्धा ..	N; 57·0	11·9; 757; 159; 441	Local; ..	Wadsa; 12·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Ghaḍolī—Chd.—घडोली ..	SE; ..	1·5; 564; 115; 327	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ghanoṭī Tukūm—Chd.—घनोटी तुकूम	E; ..	0·8; 369; 71; 210	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Gharagāṅv—Gdc.—घारगांव ..	N; ..	3·5; 845; 172; 457	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Gharapanā—Raj.—घारपना ..	SW; 40·0	2·0; 41; 6; 24	Korpana; 15·0	.. 45·0	Chandur; 20·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	ch.
Ghāṭakuḷ—Chd.— घाटकुळ ..	E; ..	4·4; 940; 172; 515	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ghāṭī—Gdc.– घाटी ..	N; 64·0	1·1; 429; 85; 256	Kurkheda; 6·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Ghoḍapeṭh Raiyyatvārī—War.—घोडपेठ रैयतवारी	SE; 19·0	4·7; 1000; 210; 385	Local; ..	Tadali; 2·0	Bhadravati; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; 2tl; ch.
Ghoḍejharī—Gdc.—घोडेझरी ..	E; 32·0	1·1; 106; 20; 65	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Ghoḍevāhī—Chd.—घोडेवाही ..	E; ..	2·4; 619; 126; 379	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ghoḍevihīr—Gdc.—घोडेविहीर ..	E; 10·0	2·2; 57; 14; 38	Gadhchiroli; 10·0	Mul; 34·0	Karwafa; 6·0; Tue.	Badlitukum; 6·0	W;n.	pyt; ch.
Ghonāḍ—War.—घोनाड ..	S; 19·0	1·7; 375; 71; 199	Sakharvahi; 2·0	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 6·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 7·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Ghosarī—Chd.—घोसरी ..	E; ..	5·6; 922; 200; 457	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Ghosarī—War.– घोसरी ..	NE; 24·0	1·7; 122; 29; 67	Viloda; 1·6	Warora; 24·0	Chandankheda; 3·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 10·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); tl.
Ghosarī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.– घोसरी रैयतवारी.	E; ..	1·7; 111; 24; 67	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Ghoṭ—Bhm.—घोट ..	SW; 34·0	0·6; 207; 46; 122	Rajoli; 8·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 10·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; tl.
Ghoṭ—Gdc.—घोट ..	S; 30·0	5·5; 1757; 396; 962	Local; ..	Ballarshah; 55·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Ghoṭasūr—Srn.– घोटसूर ..	NE; 108·0	3·6; 452; 96; 227	Local; ..	Chandrapur; 124·0	Gadhchiroli; 50·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; ..	W.	2Sl(pr, m); ch; lib; dp.
Ghoṭ Nimbāḷā—War.—घोट निंबाळा	SE; 16·0	2·6; 709; 135; 345	Ghodpeth Raiyyatvari; 2·0	Bhadravati; ..	Bhadravati; .. Wed.	Lonar; 1·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); 3tl.
Ghoṭṭā– Raj.– घोट्टा ..	S; 22·0	2·7; 58; 11; 30	Devada; 6·0	Manikgad; 22·0	Rajura; 18·0; Sat.	Lakkadkot; 4·0	W;n.	..
Ghugavā—Gdc.—घुगवा ..	NE; 74·0	1·2; 158; 34; 97	Kurkheda; 32·0	Wadsa; 48·0	Markekasa; 3·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 37·0	W;n.	..
Ghugus—Chd.– घुगुस ..	W; 18·0	5·0; 1767; 390; 396	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Tadali; 9·0	W.	5Sl(3pr, m, h); 3Cs; 2tl; lib; 3dp; Cch.
Ghugus Colliery No. 1—Chd.—घुगुस कॉलरी नं. १.	W; ..	N.A. 1862; 491; 5	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Ghugus Colliery No. 2—Chd.—घुगुस कॉलरी नं. २.	W; ..	N.A. 1660; 340; 6	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ghuṭakāḷā Raiyyatavārī— War.—घुटकाळा रैयतवारी.	SE; 10·0	1·1; 10; 3; 6	Bhadravati; ..	Bhadravati; ..	Bhadravati; .. Wed.	Bhadravati; ..	W;t.	..
Gilabilī—Chd.—गिलबिली ..	E; 14·0	3·0; 215; 49; 109	Chichpalli; 6·0	Chichpalli; 6·0	Chichpalli; 6·0; Mon.	Chichpalli; 6·0	W;n;t.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Gilagāṅv—Gdc.—गिलगांव ..	E; 12·0	1·6; 613; 126; 373	Local; ..	Wadsa; 43·0	Local; .. Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl.
Gilagāṅv—Gdc.—गिलगांव ..	S; 14·0	5·1; 704; 148; 385	Local; ..	Mul; 30·0	Talodhi Mokasa; .. Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 15·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; lib.
Gilanaguḍā—Srn.—गिलनगुडा ..	NE; 112·0	2·9; 139; 24; 44	Yetapalli; 32·0	Balharshah; 92·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 50·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Giragāṅv—Bhm.—गिरगांव ..	SW; 30·0	6·4; 2313; 485; 1334	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 10·0	Navargaon; 2·0; Thu.	Chikhalgaon; 3·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 3tl.
Girasāvaḷī—War.—गिरसावळी ..	NW; 13·0	2·0; 225; 50; 124	Madheli Bk.; 2·0	Dongargaon; 4·0	Madheli Bk; 2·0; Mon.	Madheli; 1·6	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl; lib; dp.
Girolā—Gdc.—गिरोला ..	E; 13·2	1·6; 82; 14; 51	Chatgaon; 2·2	Mul; 38·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	w;t.	Sl(pr); Cs.
Girolā—War.- गिरोला ..	N; ..	1·4; 328; 62; 196	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	..
Glās Phord Peṭā—Srn.—ग्लास फोर्ड पेटा	N; 13·0	0·5; 287; 64; 156	Tekda (Talla); 3·0	Manchariyal; 35·0	Vyankatapur; 2·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	n.	Sl(pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Popl; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Goḍalavāhī—Gdc.—गोडलवाही ..	E; 31·0	5·7; 483; 88; 273	Pendhari; 15·0	Mul; 75·0	Pendhari; 15·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Godarī—Gdc.—गोदरी ..	NE; 52·0	12·2; 111; 16; 60	Kurkheda; 42·0	Wadsa; 92·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr).
Goḍellī Masāhat—Srn. –गोडेल्ली मसाहत ..	NE; 88·0	0·2; 15; 2; 6	Yetəpalli; 18·0	Balharshah; 84·0	Allapalli; 36·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 36·0	rv;n.	..
Gogāṅv— Bhm.— गोगांव ..	S; 13·0	4·5; 987; 197; 487	Gangalvadi; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 13·0	Gangalvadi 1·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 2·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl; gym.
Gogāṅv—Gdc.—गोगांव ..	N; 3·0	3·4; 950; 179; 456	Local; ..	Mul; 28·0	Gadchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Gadchiroli; 3·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; Nagoba Fr. Phg; 2tl.
Gojolī Maktā—Chd.— गोजोली मक्ता ..	SE; ..	2·4; 667; 131; 388	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Golābhuj—Chd.—गोलामुज ..	NE; ..	0·5; 112; 25; 60	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Goḷākārjī Masāhat—Srn.— गोळाकार्जी मसाहत ..	N; 42·0	0·1; 38; 8; 22	Rajaram; 3·0	.. ..	Kamalapur; 8·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	W.	..
Gollāguḍā—Srn.—गोल्लागुडा ..	NE; 126·0	3·6; 223; 42; 156	Bhamaragad; 6·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Allapalli; 61·0; Sun.	.. ..	rv;n.	Sl(pr).
Gollāguḍam Mālagujārī—Srn.— गोल्लागुडम मालगुजारी ..	SE; 70·0	1·2; 118; 23; 22	Asaralli; 1·6	Balharshah; 138·0	Asaralli; 1·6; Fri.	Asaralli; 1·6	n;t.	tl.
Gomanī—Gdc.—गोमनी ..	SE; 70·0	0·7; 487; 116; 171	Yelgur; 4·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Beri; 12·0; Wed.	Bori; 12·0	W;n;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch; dp.
Goṇḍasāvarī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.— गोंडसावरी रैयतवारी ..	E; 17·0	2·1; 401; 81; 222	Keljhar; 3·0	Keljhar; 3·0	Chichpalli; 4·0; Mon.	Mahadwadi; 1·0	w.	Sl(pr); tl.
Goṇḍeḍā—War.—गोंदेडा ..	NE; 43·0	5·0; 475; 91; 258	Kevada; 1·0	Sindevahi; 15·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; Gumpha Fr. Pus. Pournima; 2tl; m.
Goṇḍī Vihīragāṅv—Chd.—गोंडी विहीरगांव ..	NE; 27·0	0·8; 8; 1; 2	Mul; ..	Mul; ..	Mul; 1·0; Wed.	Mul; ..	W.	..
Goṇḍ Mohāḷī—War.—गोंड मोहाळी ..	E; 47·0	2·0; 96; 20; 63	Palasgaon; 1·0	Warora; 47·0	Palasgaon; 1·0; Fri.	Neri; 8·0	W;t.	2tl.
Goṇḍ Piparī—Chd.—गोंड पिपरी ..	SE; ..	2·2; 2037; 433; 926	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Goṅgavāḍā—Srn.—गोंगवाडा ..	NE; 112·0	0·8; 164; 36; 109	Bhamaragad; 11·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Allapalli; 53·0; Sun.	Aheri; 57·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr);ch.
Gopanār—Srn.—गोपनार ..	N; ..	N.A. 11; 2; 8	Bhamaragad; 19·5	Balharshah; 125·5	Allapalli; .. Sun.	.. 63·5	W;n.	ch.
Gopanār—Srn.—गोपनार ..	NE; 119·5	0·3; 133; 27; 81	Bhamaragad; 19·5	Balharshah; 125·5	Allapalli; 61·5; Sun.	Aheri; 63·5	W;rv; n.	Sl(pr).
Goraguṭṭā—Srn.—गोरगुट्टा ..	NE; 116·0	0·01; 30; 4; 11	Yetapalli; 37·0	Balharshah; 156·0	Allapalli; 56·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 56·0	n.	dh.
Gorajā Raiyyatavārī—War.— गोरजा रैयतवारी	SE; 18·0	0·6; 450; 107; 243	Ghodpeth; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Ghodpeth; 2·0	w.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Goranūr—Srn.—गोरनुर ..	NE; 121·0	0·1; 34; 7; 33	Bhamaragad; 7·0	Balharshah; 118·0	Allapalli; 62·0; Sun.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).
Goravaṭ—War.—गोरवट ..	NE; 43·0	1·9; 293; 60; 181	Neri; 5·0	Warora; 39·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Goṭā—Gdc.—गोटा ..	SE; 30·0	2·9; 159; 26; 101	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 60·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Goṭāṭolā—Gdc.—गोटाटोला ..	NE; 42·4	0·1; 16; 4; 8	Yerkad; 13·4	Mul; 68·4	Murumgaon; 6·4; Tue.	Murumgaon; 6·4	n.	Cs (gr).
Goṭāṭolā—Gdc.—गोटाटोला ..	NE; 65·0	1·2; 65; 9; 40	Kurkheda; 40·0	Desaiganj; 65·0	Kotgul; 2·0; Fri.	Kurkheda; 40·0	n.	..
Goṭhaṇagāṅv—Gdc.—गोठणगांव ..	N; 50·0	3·6; 636; 130; 373	Desaiganj; 18·0	Wadsa; 18·0	Kurkheda; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Goṭhaṇagāṅv—War.—गोठणगांव ..	NE; 54·0	0·6; 116; 24; 77	Bhisi; 3·0	Kanpa; 10·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7).	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Govārapeṭh—Bhm.—गोवारपेठ ..	SW; 12·0	1·3; 155; 43; 97	Mindala; 4·0	Nagbhid; 8·0	Nagbhid; 8·0; Thu.	.. ..	W,t.	pyt; Cs; tl.
Gowardhan—Chd.—गोवर्धन ..	E; 46·0	1·9; 632; 139; 337	Local; ..	Mul; 17·0	Mandgaon; 1·6; Fri.	Mul; 17·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch; dp.
Govindagāṅv—Srn.—गोविंदगांव ..	N; 30·0	3·8; 203; 52; 90	Kamalapur; 9·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Bamani; 12·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2Cs; ch.
Govindapūr—Bhm.—गोविंदपूर ..	W; 27·0	3·1; 904; 209; 534	Local; ..	Balapur; 12·0	Local;	Talodhi; 5·0	W.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl; ch; dp.
Govindapūr—Raj.—गोविंदपूर ..	W; 42·0	1·8; 172; 39; 90	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	.. 42·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Goyegāṅv—Raj.—गोयेगांव ..	W; 6·0	1·9; 410; 86; 251	Rajura; 6·0	Manikgad; 7·0	Rajura; 6·0; Sat.	Rajura; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Guḍarām—Srn.—गुडराम ..	NE; 112·0	3·6; 84; 21; 50	Ghotsur; 2·0	Chandrapur; 126·0	Gadhchiroli; 51·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 51·0	W;n.	ch.
Guḍaselā—Raj.—गुडसेला ..	SW; 45·0	4·3; 215; 38; 137	Korpana; 20·0	Rajura; 46·0	Korpana; 20·0; Fri.	Chandur; 22·0	W;n	ch.
Guḍḍīguḍam Masāhat—Srn.—गुड्डीगुडम मसाहत ..	N; 45·0	0·3; 392; 88; 170	Rajaram; 6·0	.. ..	Kamalapur; 11·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Gujagavhāṇ—War.—गुजगव्हाण ..	NE; ..	1·2; 255; 49; 160	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Gujanavāḍī—Gdc.—गुजनवाडी ..	E; 20·0	0·3; 126; 18; 86	Gilgaon; 3·0	Mul; 45·0	Gilgaon; 3·0; Fri.	Dudhamara; 5·0	W.	..
Guḷagāṅv—War.—गुळगांव ..	E; 22·0	1·1; 905; 196; 525	Chora; 2·0	Bhadravati; 12·0	Sawarla Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon; 2·0; Sat.	Bhadravati; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Gumaḍī—Gdc.—गुमडी ..	SE; 33·0	1·2; 9; 2; 7	Pendhari; 11·0	Mul; 63·0	Pendhari; 11·0; Thu.	.. ..	rv; n.	..
Gumaḍī—Srn.—गुमडी ..	NW; 114·0	0·1; 25; 3; 10	Jaravandi; 10·0	Mul; 66·0	Gadhchiroli; 36·0; Sun.	Kasanoor; 14·0	n.	..
Gumalakoṇḍā (Mukkadīguṭṭā)—Srn. गुमलकोंडा (मुक्कडीगुट्टा)	SE; 24·0	0·9; 103; 25; 68	Asaralli; 3·0	Balharshah; 144·0	Asaralli; 3·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Gumalakoṇḍā Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—गुमलकोंडा रैयतवारी	SE; 24·0	0·7; 471; 107; 284	Asaralli; 5·0	Balharshah; 145·0	Asaralli; 5·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 5·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Guṇḍajūr Masāhat—Srn.—गुंडजूर मसाहत ..	NE; 113·0	0·1; 49; 9; 14	Yetapalli; 33·0	Balharshah; 99·0	Allapalli; 51·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 51·0	W;n.	..
Guṇḍam—Srn.—गुंडम ..	NE; 110·0	4·1; 212; 46; 74	Ghotsur; 2·0	Chandrapur; 126·0	Gadhchiroli; 50·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 50·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Guṇḍāpallī—Gdc.—गुंडापल्ली ..	S; ..	0·9; 254; 66; 130	Konsari; ..	Balharshah; ..	Ashti; .. Fri.	Ashti; ..	W.	..
Guṇḍāpurī—Srn.—गुंडापुरी ..	N; 106·0	0·1; 28; 8; 19	Kandoli (Surveyed); 10·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Allapalli; 28·0; Sun.	.. 38·0	W,rv; n.	..
Guṇḍenahoḍ—Srn.—गुंडेनहोड ..	NE; 115·0	0·1; 41; 8; 11	Bhamaragad; 15·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Allapalli; 57·0; Sun.	Aheri; 59·0	rv;n.	ch.
Guṇḍerā—Srn.—गुंडेरा ..	N; 31·0	1·0; 64; 15; 33	Kamalapur; 7·0	Balharshah; 94·0	Kamalapur; 7·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	..
Guṇḍuravāhī—Srn.—गुंडुरवाही ..	NE; 120·0	0·1; 99; 17; 62	Bhamaragad; 6·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Allapalli; 61·0; Sun.	.. ..	rv.	..
Guñjāḷā—War.—गुंजाळा ..	NE; 16·0	3·7; 325; 74; 212	Sakhara Rajapur; 2·0	Warora; 16·0	Sakhara Rajapur; 2·0; Sun.	Chargaon Bk.; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Guñjāḷā Raiyyatavārī—War.—गुंजाळा रैयतवारी ..	SE; 19·0	3·6; 435; 89; 266	Ghodpeth; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0; ..	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Guñjevāhī Mahāl No. 1—Bhm.—गुंजेवाही महाल नं. १	S; 32·0	1·7; 1772; 404; 915	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 12·0	Pathari; 5·0; Fri.	Pathari; 5·0	W;t.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 9tl; dh.
Gurajā Bk.—Srn.—गुरजा बु. ..	N; 72·0	0·2; 78; 15; 51	Aheri; 18·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 14·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 8·0	W.	..
Gurajā Kh.—Srn.—गुरजा खु. ..	N; 22·0	4·5; 41; 9; 32	Perimili; 8·0	Balharshah; 82·0	Allapalli; 18·0 Sun.	Perimili; 8·0	W;n.	ch.
Guranolī—Gdc.—गुरनोली ..	N; 59·0	1·1; 618; 138; 365	Gewardha; 2·0	Wadsa; 12·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Gurapallī Masāhat—Srn.—गुरपल्ली मसाहत	N; ..	0·4; 266; 43; 174	Yetapalli; 3·0	Balharshah; 77·0	Allapalli; 15·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Guravaḷā—Gdc.—गुरवळा	S; 7·0	0·6; 725; 154; 43	Local; ..	Mul; 30·0	Local; .. Mon.	Gadhchiroli; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Gurekāsā—Gdc.—गुरेकासा	E; 43·0	0·3; 51; 10; 30	Yerkad; 12·0	Mul; 70·0	Murumgaon; 7·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 7·0	W;n.	..
Guṭekāsā—Gdc.—गुटेकसा	NE; 70·0	0·7; 145; 33; 88	Kurkheda; 25·0	Desaiganj; 41·0	Korchi; 1·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 25·0	W.	..
Hācaboḍī—Srn.—हाचबोडी	NE; ..	0·1; 29; 5; 11	Ghotsur; 20·0	Balharshah; 150·0	Irpanar; 20·0; ..	.. ..	n.	ch.
Hāḍāpeṭh—Gdc.—हाडापेठ	E; 45·0	0·1; 40; 7; 27	Pendhari; 3·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 3·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 3·0	W;n.	..
Haḍastī—Chd.—हडस्ती	S; 7·0	1·5; 377; 75; 198	Visapur; 3·0	Chanda; 7·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Chanda; 7·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Hāladā—Bhm.—हालदा	SE; 24·0	5·7; 2102; 420; 1216	Local; ..	Balapur; 18·0	Local; .. Tue.	Kitali; 2·0	W.	2Sl (m;h); Cs; 2tl; lib.
Hāladavāhī—Gdc.—हाळदवाही	S; 25·0	1·8; 327; 66; 218	Amgaon; 6·0	Mul; ..	Ghot; 12·0; Tue.	Ghot; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Haḷadī—Chd.—हळदी	NE; 17·0	0·3; 164; 37; 100	Chichpalli; 4·0	Chanda; 10·0	Chichpalli; 4·0; Mon.	Chichpalli; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Haḷadī—Gdc.—हळदी	SW; 36·0	1·1; 262; 48; 163	Ganpur; 4··0	Mul; 16·0	Chamorshi; 14·0; Sat.	Ashti; 16·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Haḷadī Gāṅvagannā—Chd.—हळदी गांवगन्ना	E; 27·0	1·2; 767; 142; 425	Chichala; 1·0	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	Mul; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Datta Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2tl.
Hālakanhāḷ—Gdc.—हालकन्हाळ	SE; ..	0·1; 68; 12; 45	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 8·0	W;n.	..
Halaver—Srn.—हलवेर	NE; 100·0	0·1; 60; 8; 36	Allapalli; 52·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 52·0; Sun.	Aheri; 54·0	W;n.	..
Hālevārā—Srn.—हालेवारा	N; 120·0	2·6; 185; 34; 87	Yetapalli; 16·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Aheri; 40·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; dp (vet).
Hanapāyalī—Gdc.—हनपायली	SE; 22·0	0·2; 60; 10; 40	Karwafa; 14·0	Mul; 63·0	Potegaon; 6·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	W;n.	ch.
Hanapāyalī—Srn.—हनपायली	NE; 103·0	3·7; 48; 10; 28	Jaravandi; 3·0	Balharshah; 165·0	Aheri; 55·0; Sat.	Aheri; 53·0	n.	..
Haṇṭājūr—Gdc.—हंटाजूर	E; 36·0	0·1; 13; 3; 8	Dhanora; 11·0	Mul; 61·0	Dhanora; 11·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 11·0	rv;n	..
Haradolī—Bhm.—हरदोली	E; 6·0	1·1; 471; 87; 264	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Haradonā Bk.—Raj.—हरदोना बु.	W; 9·0	1·8; 131; 29; 89	Chandur; 5·0	Manikgad; 11·0	Chandur; 5·0; Tue.	Rajura; 11·0	W,n.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Haradonā Kh.—Raj.—हरदोना खु.	W; 12·0	0·5; 445; 93; 277	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 14·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	Rajura; 12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Harāmbā—Chd.—हरांबा	E; 25·0	2·6; 1302; 272; 577	Chamorshi; 4·0	Mul; 25·0	Chamorshi; 4·0; Thu.	Chamorshi; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Haraṇī—War.—हरणी	NE; 2·0	1·4; 249; 54; 145	Kewada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 14·0	Neri; 4·0; Wed.	Neri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Harayāladaṇḍ—Gdc.—हरयालदंड	NE; ..	0·5; 54; 8; 34	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Hātaloṇī—Raj.—हातलोणी	W; 33·0	3·4; 248; 58; 151	Korpana; 3·0	Manikgad; 35·0	Korpana; 3·0; Fri.	Korpana; 3·0	W;n.	..
Hattī Leṇḍhā—Bhm.—हत्तीलेंढा	W; 3·0	0·2; 7; 3; 6	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 3·0	W.	..
Heḍarī—Srn.—हेडरी	N; 94·0	3·2; 194; 33; 69	Yetapalli; 14·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 32·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 32·0	t.	Sl (pr).
Hemalakasā—Srn.—हेमलकसा	NE; 34·0	3·3; 191; 30; 85	Allapalli; 34·0	Balharshah; 106·0	Allapalli; -34·0; Sun.	Aheri; 38·0	rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Heṭalakasā—Gdc.—हेटलकसा	NE; ..	1·2; 128; 25; 88	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Heṭalakasā—Srn.—हेटलकसा	NE; 123·0	0·2; 103; 16; 50	Yetapalli; 16·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Aheri; 45·0	W;n.	tl; ch.
Heṭī—Gdc.—हेटी	E; 22·0	1·4; 382; 70; 201	Dhanora; 1·0	Mul; 47·0	Dhanora; 1·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr;; ch.
Hikker Masāhat—Srn.—हिक्केर मसाहत	NE; 160·0	0·1; 52; 8; 18	Ghotsur; 24·0	Balharshah; 170·0	Irpanar; 20·0; ..	Yetapalli; 50·0	W;rv.	ch.
Hindabhaṭṭī—Srn.—हिंदभट्टी	N; ..	N.A. 28; 5; 17	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Hindāhūr—Srn.—हिंदाहूर	NE; 160·0	0·1; 62; 11; 18	Ghotsur; 20·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 14·0; ..	Yetapalli; 50·0	W;n.	ch.
Hindevāḍā—Srn.—हिंदेवाडा	NE; 109·0	0·3; 127; 22; 66	Bhamaragad; 9·0	Balharshah; 115·0	Allapalli; 52·0; Sun.	Aheri; 57·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Hindusthān Lālapeṭh Collery No. 1—Chd.—हिंदुस्थान लालपेठ कॉलरी नं.१	.. ..	0·5; 2055; 570; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;pl.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Hindusthān Lālapeṭh Collery No. 2—Chd.—हिंदुस्थान लालपेठ कॉलरी नं.२	.. ..	N.A. 607; 105; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;pl.	..
Hiṅganāḷā—Chd.—हिंगनाळा ..	S; 2·0	1·0; 228; 40; 134	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·0; Wed.	Chanda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hipaner—Gdc.—हिपनेर ..	E; 32·0	0·1; 39; 6; 27	Pendhari; 9·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 9·0; Thu.	.. ..	rv;n.	
Hiraṅge—Gdc.—हिरंगे ..	E; 42·0	2·7; 107; 20; 64	Yerkad; 13·0	Desaiganj; 55·0	Murumgaon; 6·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 6·0	W;t.	Cs; tl.
Hirāpūr—Chd.—हिरापूर ..	NE; 40·0	3·5; 1044; 198; 502	Bothali; 2·0	.. 10·0	Saoli; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;t;cl.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Hirāpūr—Gdc.—हिरापूर ..	S; 6·0	0·9; 294; 75; 191	Gurwala; 1·4	Mul; 34·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Hirāpūr—Raj.—हिरापूर ..	SW; 12·0	0·5; 71; 15; 50	Chandur; 6·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Hardona Bk.; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hirāpūr—Raj.—हिरापूर ..	W; 18·0	1·1; 79; 17; 43	Chandur; 3·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 3·0; Tue.	Chandur; 3·0	W.	..
Hirāpūr—Raj.—हिरापूर ..	W; 18·0	2·5; 442; 101; 238	Chandur; 8·0	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Chandur; 8·0	n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hirāpūr—War.—हिरापूर ..	N; 18·0	1·3; 140; 25; 75	Kosarsar; 1·4	Warora; 18·0	Kosarsar; 1·4; Sat.	Khambada; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.; ch.
Hirāpūr—War.—हिरापूर ..	NE; 48·0	1·3; 946; 193; 555	Shankarpur; 2·0	Kanpa; 7·0	Shankarpur; 2·0; Mon.	Local;	W;t.	2Sl (pr; m); tl.
Hitakasā—Gdc.— हितकसा ..	NE; 86·0	1·2; 100; 19; 62	Kurkheda; 34·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Betkathi; 5·0; Tue.	.. ..	t;n.	..
Hitalavārā—Srn.—हितलवारा ..	NE; 114·0	0·1; 50; 11; 27	Bhamaragad; 14·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 56·0; Sun.	Aheri; 60·0	rv;n.	ch.
Hitāpāḍī—Gdc.—हितापाडी ..	NE; 90·0	0·8; 87; 17; 58	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; ..	Markekasa; 5·0; Sun.	.. ..	t;n.	..
Hitāpāḍī—Srn.—हितापाडी ..	NE; 98·0	0·1; 51; 12; 18	Allapalli; 51·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 52·0 Sun.	Aheri; 56·0	rv;n.	..
Hivārā—Chd.—हिवारा ..	SE. ..	2·2; 664; 135; 390	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Hivarā—War.—हिवरा ..	NW; 14·0	0·9; 217; 50; 132	Nagri; 1·0	Nagri; 2·0	Nagri; 1·0; Tue.	Madheli Bk.; 8·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hivarā—War.—हिवरा ..	NE; 51·0	1·8; 337; 65; 196	Shankarpur; 2·0	Kanpa; 13·0	Shankarpur; 5·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hoḍarī—Srn.—होडरी ..	NE; 117·0	0·3; 206; 35; 125	Bhamaragad; 17·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Allapalli; 59·0; Sun.	Aheri; 61·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Horekāsā—Gdc.—होरेकासा ..	E; 16·0	0·1; 81; 13; 6	Mendhatola; 0·4	Mul; 39·0	Mendhatola; 0·4; Wed.	Chatgaon; 5·0	W;n.	ch.
Huḍakaḍamā—Gdc.—हुडकडमा ..	NE; 80·0	0·5; 81; 10; 48	Kurkheda; 32·0	Wadsa; 51·0	Bori; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 35·0	W;n.	..
Humā—Bhm.—हुमा ..	SW; 21·0	0·7; 187; 44; 126	Govindapur; 3·0	Nagbhid; 9·0	Talodhi; 5·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	W.	tl.
Hurīyaladaṇḍ—Gdc.—हुरीयालदंड ..	NE; 75·0	0·9; 43; 7; 28	Malevada; 4·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 27·0	W;n.	..
Indāḷā—Gdc.—इंदाळा ..	W; 5·0	1·2; 713; 146; 339	Kaneri; 1·0	Mul; 24·0	Gadhchiroli; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 5·0	W; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Indāram (Surveyed)—Srn.—इंदारम (सर्व्हेड) ..	N; 67·0	2·4; 1213; 280; 449	Local;	Balharshah; 67·0	Aheri; 5·0; Sat.	Aheri; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mc; ch.
Iñjāpūr—Raj.—इंजापूर ..	W; 17·0	3·2; 502; 116; 296	Chandur; 3·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Chandur; 3·0; Tue.	Chandur; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Iñjhavārī—Gdc.—इंझवारी ..	N; 14·0	2·1; 876; 172; 433	Deulgaon; 2·0	Desaiganj; 18·0	Deulgaon; 2·0; Mon.	Deulgaon; 2·0	W.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl
Iraī—Raj.—इरई ..	NW; 19·0	1·9; 219; 48; 129	Bhoyegaon; 3·0	Manikgad; 21·0	Chandur; 14·0; Tue.	Kavthala; 4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2tl; ch.
Irapanapāyalī—Srn.—इरपनपायली ..	N; 105·0	3·6; 78; 15; 48	Jaravandi; 5·0	Balharshah; 167·0	Aheri; 57·0; Sat.	Aheri; 56·0	n.	..
Irapānār—Srn.—इरपानार ..	NE; 110·0	5·5; 163; 39; 92	Bhamaragad; 10·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 55·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Iṛavhā—Bhm.—ईरव्हा ..	NW; 2·0	1·3; 249; 48; 147	Paharani; 2·0	Nagbhid; 11·0	Paharani; 2·0; Mon.	Nagbhid; 11·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Iravhā—War.—इरव्हा ..	NE; 52·0	1·8; 114; 21; 71	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0; Sun.	Khairi; 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Irukaḍumme—Srn.—इरुकडुम्मे ..	NE; 94·0	0·3; 69; 15; 55	Bhamaragad; 14·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Allapalli; 32·0; Sun.	Aheri; 36·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Irupadhodarī—Gdc.—इरुपधोदरी ..	NE; 35·0	2·0; 122; 21; 82	Malevada; 6·0	Wadsa; 44·0	Malevada; 6·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 16·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs
Irupaṭolā—Gdc.—इरुपटोला ..	NE; 37·0	0·8; 219; 52; 139	Angara; 6·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 6·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs
Isāpūr—Raj.—इसापूर ..	SW; 17·0	1·7; 426; 100; 266	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	Chandur; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Iṭalaceru—Srn.—इटलचेरु ..	N; 61·0	1·7; 191; 25; 112	Allapalli; 6.0	Balharshah; ..	Allapalli; 6·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Iṭalanār—Srn.—इटलनार ..	NE; 99·0	0·1; 27; 5; 14	Yetapalli; 19·0	Balharshah; 85·0	Allapalli; 37·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 37·0	W;n.	..
Iṭolī—Bhm.—ईटोली ..	SW; 40·0	0·6; 251; 57; 160	Petgaon; 1·6	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 4·0	W; n;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jaitāpūr—Raj.—जैतापूर ..	NW; 16·0	1·7; 235; 50; 150	Nandgaon; 3·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	Nandgaon; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Jājāvaṇḍī (Surveyed)—Srn.—जाजावंडी (सर्व्हेड)	NE; 112·0	4·0; 111; 18; 36	Yetapalli; 32·0	Balharshah; 98·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 50·0	n.	..
Jalakā—War.—जळका ..	.. ..	2·3; 440; 102; 239	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Jalegāṅv—Gdc.—जलेगांव ..	SE; 38·0	3·2; 131; 22; 94	Potegaon; 13·0	Mul; 63·0	Gadhchiroli; 38·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 38·0	W.	..
Jaler—Gdc.—जलेर ..	SE; 30·0	3·6; 61; 13; 38	Potegaon; 7·0	Mul; 55·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 28·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 28·0	W.	..
Jāmagāṅv—Gdc.—जामगांव ..	SE; 29·0	3·9; 211; 37; 138	Potegaon; 4·0	Mul; 58·0	Gadhchiroli; 29·0;Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 29·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Jāmagāṅv Bk.—War.—जामगांव बु... E; 4·0	2·2; 431; 73; 239	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0; Sun.	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Jāmagāṅv Kh.—War.—जामगांव खु. NE; 35·0	2·3; 628; 134; 326	Nandori; 5·0	Warora; 4·0; Sun.	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; 2dg.
Jāmagāṅv Komaṭī—War.—जामगांव कोमटी .. NE; 36·0	1·1; 334; 70; 194	Local; ..	Kanpa; 17·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch; lib.
Jāmagirī—Gdc.—जामगिरी .. S; ..	2·7; 655; 139; 333	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Jāmakeroḍā Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—जामकेरोडा रैय्यतवारी NE; 45·0	2·5; 199; 42; 134	Jibgaon; 3·0	Mul; 18·0	Vyahad kh; 3·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0	W;cl.	..
Jāmakhulā—War.—जामखुला .. N; 15·0	2·2; 394; 85; 199	Nagri; 3·0	Nagri; 2·0	Nagri; 2·0; Tue.	Khambada; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Jāmanārā—Gdc.—जामनारा .. NE; 82·0	1·3; 172; 28; 116	Kurkheda; 30·0	Wadsa; 46·0	Bori; 1·6; Sun.	Kurkheda; 30·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Jāmanī—Raj.—जामनी .. W; 16·0	2·1; 98; 27; 64	Chandur; 2·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Chandur; 2·0	W;n.	tl.
Jāmanī—War.—जामनी .. NE; 44·0	1·3; 146; 41; 95	Masal Bk.; 4·0	Warora; 44·0	Masal Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Jāmanī Bk.—War.—जामनी बु. .. N; 8·0	2·2; 674; 138; 306	Tembhurda; 2·0	Dongargaon; 2·0	Tembhurda; 2·0; Thu.	Tembhurda; 2·0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; lib.
Jāmasāḷā—Bhm.—जामसाळा .. SW; 39·0	2·2; 895; 191; 447	Mohali; 2·0	Sindevahi; 6·0	Sindevahi; 6·0 Mon.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Jāmaṭolā—Gdc.—जामटोला .. NE; 117·0	1·7; 131; 21; 78	Purada; 3·0	Desaiganj; 29·0	Ramgad; 1·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 13·0	rv;t.	..
Jāmbarāḷā—Chd.—जांबराळा .. E; 16·0	0·3; 222; 38; 137	Chichpalli; 2·0	Chichpalli; 4·0	Chichpalli; 2·0; Mon.	Chichpalli; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Jāmbhaḷī—Gdc.—जांभळी .. N; 22·0	1·6; 76; 15; 46	Wairagad; ..	Wadsa; 15·0	Wairagad; .. Tue.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;t.	..
Jāmbhaḷī—Gdc.—जांभळी .. NE; 62·0	2·1; 233; 43; 153	Kurkheda; 22·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Korchi; 4·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 24·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Jāmbhaḷī—Gdc.—जांभळी .. NE; 33·0	0·5; 371; 68; 232	Rangi; 6·0	Desaiganj; 34·0	Rangi; 6·0; Mon.	.. 19·0	n;t.	tl.
Jāmbhaḷī—Gdc.—जांभळी .. E; 10·0	7·7; 431; 95; 248	Gadhchiroli; 10·0	Mul; 34·0	Karwafa; 6·0; Tue.	Badlitukum; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch.
Jāmbhuḷaghāṭ—War.—जांभुळघाट .. NE; 40·0	1·9; 721; 176; 395	Local; ..	Kanpa; 14·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl; dp.
Jāmbhuḷavihīrā—War.—जांभुळविहीरा .. NE; 36·0	2·0; 258; 64; 160	Jamgaon Komti; 2·0	Kanpa; 18·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat;	Bhisi; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Jambiyā—Srn—जम्बिया .. NE; 107·0	3·6; 183; 36; 56	Yetapalli; 27·0	Balharshah; 93·0	Allapalli; 45·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 45·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jām Bk.—Chd.—जाम बु. .. NE; ..	1·7; 458; 93; 296	Jibgaon; 1·6	Mul; 15·0	Saoli; 8·0; Thu.	Saoli; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Jāmbulagaṭṭā—Srn.—जांबुलगट्टा .. NE; 131·0	1·9; 30; 5; 19	Jaravandi; 5·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Aheri; 65·0; Sat.	Aheri; 67·0	n.	tl.
Jāmburakheḍā—Gdc.—जांबुरखेडा .. N; 50·0	2·3; 330; 59; 198	Kurkheda; 2·0	Wadsa; 18·0	Kurkheda; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Jām Kh.—Srn.—जाम खु. .. E; ..	1·6; 404; 85; 261	.. ..	Balharshah; 121·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Jām Tukūm—Chd.—जाम तुकूम .. E; ..	1·0; 639; 132; 357	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jāmuladharā—Raj.—जामुलधरा ..	SW; 44·0	0·9; 85; 20; 60	Korpana; 7·0	Manikgad; 45·0	Chanai Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	.. 44·0	n.	..
Janakāpūr—Bhm.—जनकापूर ..	SW; 20·0	0·7; 583; 130; 349	Nagbhid; 9·0	Talodhi; 6·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Local; 0·5	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Janakāpūr—Raj.—जनकापूर ..	SW; 25·0	0·7; 19; 6; 15	Chandur; ..	Manikgad; ..	Chandur; .. Tue.	Chandur; ..	n.	..
Janakāpūr Rīṭh—Bhm.—जनकापूर रीठ. ..	S; 32·0	0·3; 257; 50; 156	Palebarsa; 3·0	Alewahi; 22·0	Mudza; 5·0; Mon.	Sindewahi; 24·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Janakāpūr Tukūm—Bhm.—जनकापूर तुकूम. ..	S; 34·0	1·0; 170; 35; 104	Palebarsa; 3·0	Alewahi; 14·0	Mudza; 5·0; Mon.	Sindewahi; 22·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Janāḷā—Gdc.—जनाळा ..	S; 30·0	0·2; 61; 17; 42	Ghot; 10·0	Mul; ..	Ghot; 10·0; Tue.	Ghot; ..	t.	..
Jānamapallī Wasteland—Srn.—जानमपल्ली वेस्टलँड. ..	S; 3·0	1·9; 1122; 262; 205	Local; ..	Chandrapur; 132·0	Sironcha; 3·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Jāṅgadā Bk.—Gdc.—जांगदा बु. ..	NE; 26·0	2·0; 239; 47; 169	Mohali; 3·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Rangi; 6·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 9·0	W;n;t	Sl (pr).
Jaṅgam Kurul—Gdc.—जंगम कुरुळ ..	S; 18·0	0·5; 87; 18; 60	Chamorshi; 3·0	Mul; 20·0	Chamorshi; 3·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; Ch.
Jaṅkār Gondī—Gdc.—जंकार गोंदी ..	NE; 60·0	3·4; 90; 19; 51	Kurkheda; 21·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Belgaon; 1·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W;n.	ch.
Japatarāī—Gdc.—जपतराई ..	NE; 27·0	1·5; 348; 50; 216	Yerkad; 2·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Dhanora; 9·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Jāpharābād Wasteland—Srn.—जाफराबाद वेस्टलँड. ..	N; ..	0·5; 583; 132; 322	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Jappī—Gdc.—जप्पी ..	SE; 42·0	5·5; 213; 37; 131	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 67·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	Pendhari; ..	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Jārāvaṇḍī—Srn.—जारावंडी ..	NE; 106·0	1·0; 451; 113; 211	Local; ..	Balharshah; 168·0	Aheri; 58·0; Sat.	Aheri; 58·0	W;t.	2Sl(pr,m); Cs; tl; ch; dp.
Jāṭalāpūr—Bhm.—जाटलापूर ..	SW; ..	9·7; 111; 22; 52	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Javaḷābodī—War.—जवळाबोडी ..	NE; 52·0	1·9; 452; 98; 295	Shankarpur; 3·0	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jāvaḷābodī Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—जावळाबोडी मेंढा. ..	S; 10·0	2·7; 508; 102; 292	Mendaki; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 10·0	Mendaki; 2·0; Tue.	Brahmapuri; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2tl; ch.
Jayarāmapūr—Gdc.—जयरामपूर ..	SW; 36·0	2·2; 1007; 217; 597	Konsari; 4·0	Mul; 20·0	Ashti; 5·0; Fri.	Ashti; 5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl.
Jayasiṅg Ṭolā—Gdc.—जयसिंग टोला. ..	NE; 40·0	0·5; 110; 21; 68	Malevada; 2·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 20·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jenānivaḷī—War.—जेनानिवळी ..	S; 9·0	1·3; 830; 171; 465	Kondha; 4·0	Majari; 6·0	Bhadravati; 6·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; lib.
Jeprā—Gdc.—जेप्रा ..	N; 6·0	0·6; 672; 144; 386	Bodhali Mendha; 4·0	Mul; 31·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W, rv; t.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl.
Jevalavāhī—Gdc.—जेवलवाही ..	NE; 25·0	2·7; 198; 32; 110	Dhanora; 4·0	Mul; 50·0	Dhanora; 4·0; Thu.	Dhanora; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Jevalī Bk.—Srn.—जेवली बु. ..	NE; 103·0	6·1; 248; 46; 88	Ghotsur; 4·0	Chandrapur; 120·0	Gadhchiroli; 46·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 45·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jevalī Kh.—Srn.—जेवली खु. ..	NE; 160·0	3·1; 128; 22; 71	Ghotsur; 6·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 2·0; ..	Yetapalli; 45·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jevalī Masāhat—Srn.—जेवली मसाहत. ..	N; 71·0	0·4; 179; 30; 103	Yetapalli; 4·0	Balharshah; 77·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 18·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Jevarā—Raj.—जेवरा ..	W; 34·0	2·3; 318; 71; 97	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 37·0	Korpana; 4·0; Fri.	Kanhalgaon; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl.
Jhāḍaborī—Bhm.—झाडबोरी ..	SW; 30·0	0·9; 189; 51; 31	Girgaon; 2·0	Sindevahi; 12·0	Navargaon; 4·0; Thu.	Chikhalgaon; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jhagaḍavāhī—Gdc.—झगडवाही ..	NE; ..	1·4; 110; 21; 76	Kurkheda; 34·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Betkathi; 2·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 34·0	W;n.	..
Jhālīyā Lahān.—Gdc.—झालीया लहान. ..	E; 40·0	N.A.; 11; 2; 6	Yerkad; 20·0	Mul; 72·0	Murumgaon; 12·0 Tue.	Murumgaon; 12·0	n.	..
Jhālīyā Moṭhā—Gdc.—झालीया मोठा. ..	E; 49·0	3·6; 67; 11; 36	Yerkad; 40·0	Mul; 72·0	Murumgaon; 14·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 12·0	W;rv; n.	pyt.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Jhārāpapaḍā—Gdc.—झारापपडा ..	SE; 48·0	14·8; 195; 43; 108	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 73·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 8·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr).
Jhareguḍā—Srn.—झारेगुडा ..	NE; ..	0·01; 12; 3; 9	Bhamaragad; 4·6	Balharshah; 115·0	Allapalli; 59·0 Sun.	.. ..	rv.	..
Jhārevāḍā—Srn.—झारेवाडा ..	NE; 104·0	2·6; 189; 30; 50	Yetapalli; 24·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Allapalli; 42·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 42·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Jhārevāḍā Masāhat—Srn.—झारेवाडा मसाहत. ..	N; 65·0	0·3; 138; 27; 79	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	.. ..	n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jharī—Chd.—झरी ..	NE; 20·0	0·2; 46; 10; 21	Chichpalli; 13·0	Chanda; 25·0	Chichpalli; 13·0; Mon.	Chanda; 20·0	W;rv.	tl.
Jharī—Gdc.—झरी ..	SE; 24·0	4·3; 179; 35; 100	Karwafa; 7·0	Mul; 48·0	Karwafa; 7·0; Tue.	Karwafa; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jharī—War.—झरी ..	NE; 53·0	0·6; 100; 15; 61	Kanpa; 3·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Shankarpur; 4·0; Mon.	Khairi; 2·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jharī—War.—झरी ..	NE; ..	0·5; 136; 26; 82	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Jheṇḍā—Srn.—झेंडा ..	N; 18·0	0·1; 19; 3; 10	.. 10·0	.. 4·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	tl.
Jheṇḍepūr—Gdc.—झेंडेपूर ..	NE; 96·0	1·4; 96; 23; 62	Belgaon; 6·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Markekasa; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 25·0	W.	..
Jhilaboḍī—Bhm.—झिलबोडी ..	E; 1·0	0·6; 356; 67; 195	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Fr.; Ct; Sud. 15. 2 tl.
Jhulabarḍī—Raj.—झुलबर्डी ..	W; 24·0	2·6; 91; 20; 56	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 26·2	Chandur; 4·0; Thu.	Chandur; 4·0	n.	..
Jhurrī (Surveyed)—Srn.—झुर्री (सर्व्हेड). ..	NE; 130·0	0·9; 62; 9; 32	Yetapalli; 26·0	Balharshah; 126·0	Aheri; 51·0; Sat.	Aheri; 51·0	W.	tl; ch.
Jibagāṅv—Chd.—जिबगांव ..	NE; 41·0	2·2; 956; 183; 506	Local; ..	Mul; 14·0	Saoli; 7·0; Thu.	Saoli; 7·0	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs; tl.
Jijagāṅv—Srn.—जिजगांव ..	NE; 116·0	4·4; 160; 32; 119	Bhamaragad; 25·0	Balharshah; 29·0	Allapalli; 33·0; Sun.	Aheri; 42·0	W;rv.	..
Jijāvaṇḍī—Srn.—जिजावंडी ..	NE; 160·0	8·9; 170; 23; 99	Ghotsur; 8·0	Balharshah; 155·0	Irpanar; 4·0; ..	Yetapalli; 32·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Jimalagaṭṭā—Srn.—जिमलगट्टा ..	N; 40·0	0·9; 119; 28; 54	Kamalapur; 10·0	Balharshah; 102·0	Bamani; 15·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Jinagānūr Mālagujārī—Srn.—जिनगनूर मालगुजारी. ..	E; 23·0	1·1; 172; 32; 68	Asaralli; 15·0	Balharshah; 142·0	Asarəlli; 15·0; Fri.	Sironcha; 23·0	W.	Sl (pr); dp (vet).
Jivanagaṭṭā—Srn.—जिवनगट्टा ..	N; 85·0	4·9; 573; 106; 314	Yetapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Aheri; 25·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Jivatī—Raj.—जिवती ..	SW; 40·0	1·7; 152; 34; 82	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 42·2	Vansadi; 12·0; Wed.	Korpana; 12·0	W;n.	..
Joḍatarāī—Gdc.—जोडतराई ..	NE; 73·0	0·9; 11; 2; 8	Kurkheda; 25·0	Desaiganj; 41·0	Korchi; 1·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; ..	W.	..
Joganā—Gdc.—जोगना ..	S; 17·0	2·4; 69; 11; 40	Chamorshi; 10·0	Mul; 28·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 4·0; Wed.	Ghot; 11·0	W;t.	..
Joganaguḍā—Srn.—जोगनगुडा ..	NE; 40·0	0·6; 91; 22; 65	Aheri; 40·0	Balharshah; 114·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Jimalagatta; 14·0	n.	..
Joganaguḍā Masāhat—Srn.—जोगनगुडा मसाहत. ..	N; ..	0·1; 71; 18; 38	Kamalapur; 15·0	.. ..	Bamani; 10·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	w.	..
Jogāpūr—Raj.—जोगापूर ..	SE; 13·0	7·1; 24; 9; ..	Rajura; 10·0	Virur; 3·0	Rajura; 10·0; Sat.	Rajura; 10·0	W;t.	tl.
Jogīsākharā—Gdc.—जोगीसाखरा ..	N; 33·0	1·6; 641; 138; 371	Armori; 5·0	Desaiganj; 12·0	Armori; 5·0; Fri.	Armori; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Joṇavāhī—Srn.—जोणवाही ..	NE; 52·0	0·1; 69; 12; 40	Kamalapur; 20·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Kamalapur; 20·0	W.	..
Jośīṭolā—Gdc.—जोशीटोला ..	N; 56·0	2·0; 65; 10; 44	Kurkheda; 8·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Kurkheda; 8·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 8·0	W;n.	..
Jugənāḷā—Bhm.—जुगनाळा ..	S; 8·0	3·1; 1191; 222; 742	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Chougan; 2·0 Wed.	Kinhi; 1·6	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl; gym lib; dp.
Junagāṅv—Chd.—जुनगांव ..	E; ..	3·8; 623; 123; 362	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Junonā Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—जुनोना रैय्यतवारी. ..	S; 7·0	1·7; 677; 170; 178	Babupeth; 4·5	Balharshah; 7·0	Balharshah; 7·0; Sun.	Balharshah; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Juvvī—Srn.—जुव्वी ..	NE; 123·0	0·1; 70; 14; 36	Bhamaragad; 9·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 64·0; Sun.	.. ..	rv;n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kacakhal—Gdc.—कचखल ..	E; 31·0	2·7; 50; 8; 33	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 61·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu;	.. ..	W.	..
Kacaler—Srn.—कचलेर ..	N; ..	0·2; 53; 11; 31	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Kacaler—Srn.—कचलेर ..	N; 128·0	3·8; 217; 40; 129	Yetapalli; 24·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Aheri; 31·0; Sat.	Aheri; 31·0	W;rv;n	tl; ch.
Kacarāḷā—War.—कचराळा ..	SE; 19·0	2·7; 769; 163; 440	Local; ..	Tadali; 3·0	Tadali; 3·0; Thu.	Ghodpeth; 4·0	W;n;t.	Sl (m); Cs; 2tl.
Kacepār—Bhm.—कचेपार ..	SW; 31·0	1·8; 145; 29; 88	Kanhalgaon; 4·0	Talodhi; 15·0	Navargaon; 5·0; Thu.	.. 7·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kacepār—Bhm.—कचेपार ..	SW; 30·0	1·6; 413; 91; 242	Alevahi; 5·0	Alevahi; 5·0	Sindevahi; 7·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḍasī—Gdc.—कडसी ..	SE; 37·0	0·4; 106; 19; 59	Potegaon; 13·0	Mul; 62·0	Gadhchiroli; 37·0 Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 37·0	rv;n.	..
Kaḍholī—Chd.—कढोली ..	E; 55·0	2·4; 413; 104; 241	Nilsani Pethgaon; 5·0	Mul; 27·0	Vyahad Kh.; 13·0; Mon.	Mokhala; 12·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Kaḍholī—Gdc.—कढोली ..	SW; 40·0	1·8; 364; 73; 220	Anakhoda; 1·0	Balharshah; 32·0	Ashti; 2·0; Fri.	Ashti; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivratri; Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl.
Kaḍholī—Gdc.—कढोली ..	N; 24·0	3·5; 1562; 304; 833	Armori; 12·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Local; .. Mon.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;rv.t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Kaḍholī—War.—कढोली ..	S; 9·0	0·7; 169; 35; 93	Kondha; 1·6	Majari; 3·0	Bhadravati; 4·0; Wed.	Kiloni; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḍholī Bk.—Raj.—कढोली बु. ..	N; 9·0	3·0; 994; 197; 535	Charli; 2·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Rajura; 9·0; Sat.	Rajura; 9·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; tl; dg; dp.
Kaḍholī Kh.—Raj.—कढोली खु. ..	W; 23·0	3·1; 703; 146; 347	Antargaon Bk.; 2·0	Chandrapur; 20·0	Vansadi; 5·0; Wed.	Vadgaon; 5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Kāg—War.—काग ..	NE; 36·0	1·3; 369; 71; 237	Chimur; 4·0	Warora; 36·0	Chimur; 3·0; Fri.	Chimur; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kahālī—Bhm.—कहाली ..	NW; 1·0	0·9; 787; 154; 349	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3tl; gym; lib.
Kaimūḷ—Gdc.—कैमूळ ..	NE; 70·0	2·1; 221; 40; 147	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Maseli; .. Fri.	Kurkheda; ..	W;n;t.	Sl (pr).
Kājaḷasar—War.—काजळसर ..	NE; 39·0	2·5; 1041; 208; 577	Kewada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 11·0	Motegaon; 2·0; Sun.	Neri; 6·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Kākaban—Raj.—काकबन ..	SW; 24·0	0·8; 65; 14; 36	Chandur; 9·0	Manikgad; 24·0	Chandur; 9·0; Tue.	Chandur; 9·0	n.	ch.
Kākaḍaghāṭ—Raj.—काकडघाट ..	S; 13·0	1·1; 62; 14; 43	Devada; 4·0	Manikgad; 17·0	Bhedoda; 3·0; Fri.	Sondo; 4·0	W.	..
Kākaḍayelī—Gdc.—काकडयेली ..	E; 16·0	0·2; 216; 38; 138	Dhanora; 5·0	Mul; 41·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Stage; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Kaḷamagāṅv—Bhm.—कळमगांव ..	S; 14·0	0·8; 520; 107; 300	Mendki; 3·0	Balapur; 8·0	Gangalvadi; 6·0; Sat.	Mendki; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kaḷamagāṅv—Bhm.—कळमगांव ..	SW; ..	1·0; 1183; 277; 644	Mohali; 2·0	Sindevahi; ..	Sindevahi; .. Mon.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kaḷamagāṅv—Gdc.—कळमगांव ..	SW; 33·0	1·5; 193; 36; 122	Bori; ..	Mul; 15·0	Bhendala; 4·0; Mon.	Mul; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl.
Kaḷamagāṅv—War.—कळमगांव ..	NE; 54·0	0·9; 137; 27; 86	Chimur; 8·0	Kanpa; 19·0	Bhisi; .. Sat.	Chimur; 6·6	W.	tl.
Kaḷamagāṅv—War.—कळमगांव ..	NE; 36·0	0·9; 250; 63; 154	Sawargaon; 2·0	Warora; 36·0	Neri; 2·0; Wed.	Neri; 2·0	W;rv;n	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷamagāṅv Tukūm—Bhm.—कळमगांव तुकूम. ..	SW; 48·0	1·2; 687; 126; 416	Mohali; 2·0	Sindevahi; ..	Sindevahi, .. Mon.	.. 7·0	W;rv;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kaḷamagavhāṇ—War.—कळमगव्हाण. ..	W; 2·0	1·2; 221; 40; 124	Warora; 2·0	Warora; 2·0	Warora; 2·0; Sun.	Warora; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷamanā—Chd.—कळमना ..	SE; 16·0	2·4; 888; 150; 535	Kothari; 5·0	Ballarpur; 6·0	Kothari; 5·0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Vibhuti; Fr. Mrg; 2 tl; ch.
Kaḷamaṇā—Raj.—कळमणा ..	W; 8·0	2·7; 442; 101; 260	Rajura; 8·0	Manikgad; 10·0	Rajura; 8·0; Sat.	Rajura; 8·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷamaṭolā—Gdc.—कळमटोला ..	N; 11·0	2·5; 88; 18; 52	Amirza; 2·0	Wadsa; 43·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 11·0	W.	.l.
Kāḷe—Gdc.—काळे ..	NE; 75·0	1·6; 75; 15; 58	Kurkheda; 26·0	Desaiganj; 42·0	Korchi; 2·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 26·0	W;n.	..
Kālītā—Bhm.—कालीता ..	NW; 5·0	0·9; 741; 156; 423	Nanhori; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kalleḍ Masāhat—Srn.—कल्लेड मसाहत. ..	NE; 25·0	0·1; 49; 10; 35	Aheri; 48·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Aheri; 48·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 23·0	W.	..

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Kamake Urf Ghoṭasūr—Srn.—कमके उर्फ घोटसूर. ..	N; ..	9·4; 219; 35; 95	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kamalāpūr—Srn—कमलापूर ..	NE; 38·0	2·6; 460; 89; 239	Local; ..	Balharshah; 89·0	Local; .. Sun.	Repanpalli; 2·0	W;w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2Cs; tl; ch; lib; dp.
Kambālapeṭā Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—कंबालपेटा रैय्यतवारी. ..	N; 17·0	0·2; 30; 6; 20	Tekda (Talla); 2·0	Balharshah 113·0	Vyankatapur; 4·0; Sun.	Stage; 1·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Kamelī—Gdc.—कमेली ..	SE; 64·0	1·8; 68; 13; 41	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Kotgul; .. Fri.	Kurkheda; ..	rv;n.	..
Kammāsūr—Srn.—कम्मासूर ..	NE; 30·0	2·4; 124; 28; 77	Aheri; 34·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Aheri; 34·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 12·0	W;n.	..
Kānagaḍī—Gdc.—कानगडी ..	E; 46·0	2·4; 119; 22; 82	Yerkadmohad; 17·0	Mul; 72·0	Murumgaon; 10·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 7·0	W;n.	..
Kānapā—Bhm.—कानपा ..	NW; 21·0	4·3; 822; 171; 483	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); ch.
Kāndalī—Gdc.—कांदळी ..	E; 25·0	1·4; 76; 16; 48	Dhanora; 4·0	Mul; 50·0	Dhanora; 4·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 4·0	W.	..
Kaṇḍālī—Srn.—कंडाली ...	NE; 105·0	1·7; 121; 26; 70	Jaravandi; 1·0	Balharshah; 167·0	Aheri; 57·0; Sat.	Aheri; 53·0	W;t.	tl.
Kaṇḍolī Masāhat—Srn.—कंडोली मसाहत. ..	N; ..	0·1; 28; 6; 19	Kandoli (Surveyed); 4·0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 24·0; Sun.	Kandoli (Surveyed); 4·0	W.	ch.
Kaṇḍolī (Surveyed)—Srn.—कंडोली (सर्व्हेड). ..	N; 32·0	9·7; 526; 90; 250	Local; ..	Balharshah; 92·0	Allapalli; 28·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr,m); ch.
Kaneragāṅv—Raj.—कनेरगांव ..	W; 36·0	1·7; 756; 196; 452	Local; ..	Manikgad; 36·0	Korpana; 4·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2 tl.
Kanerī—Gdc.—कनेरी ..	N; 31·0	0·2; 45; 7; 28	Armori; 5·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 5·0; Fri.	Armori; 5·0	W	rv; str. tl.
Kanerī—Gdc.—कनेरी ..	W; 7·0	2·5; 984; 176; 611	Local; ..	Mul; 18·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·4	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Bhm.—कन्हाळगांव ..	S; 25·0	1·3; 267; 53; 166	Palebarsa; 2·0	Alewahi; 10·0	Pathari; 8·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Bhm.—कन्हाळगांव ..	N; 8·0	0·9; 365; 72; 217	Nanhori; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Dighori; 2·6; Wed.	Brahmapuri; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Bhm.—कन्हाळगांव ..	SW; 28·0	1·1; 794; 156; 462	Local; ..	Talodhi; 9·0	Navargaon; 4·0; Thu.	Savargaon; 3·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; gym; lib.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Gdc.—कन्हाळगांव ..	SE; 26·0	3·6; 53; 7; 24	Karwafa; 9·0	Mul; 53·0	Karwafa; 9·0; Thu.	Karwafa; 9·0	W;t;n	ch.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Gdc.—कन्हाळगांव ..	S; ..	3·5; 76; 17; 46	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Gdc.—कन्हाळगांव ..	S; 33·0	0·2; 101; 20; 60	Konsari; 4·0	Mul; 30·0	Adyal; .. Sat.	Ashti; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Kanhāḷagāṅv—War.—कन्हाळगांव ..	NE; 39·0	1·1; 492; 98; 273	Jamgaon Komti; ..	19·0	Chimur; 6·0; Fri.	Chimur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kanhāḷaṭolā—Gdc.—कन्हाळटोला ..	E; 20·0	0·6; 58; 8; 33	Dhanora; 1·0	Mul; 45·0	Dhanora; 1·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Kanhāragāṅv—Gdc.—कन्हारगांव ..	NE; 22·0	1·9; 302; 60; 180	Mohali; 2·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Rangi; 3·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs;.
Kanhāragāṅv—Srn.—कन्हारगांव ..	N; 110·0	0·1; 30; 6; 22	Ghotsur; ..	Chandrapur; 125·0	Gadhchiroli; .. Sun.	.. ..	W;n.	ch.
Kanhelī—Gdc.—कन्हेळी ..	E; 50·0	6·7; 100; 21; 53	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 69·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 10·0	W;n.	Cs.
Kanholī—Gdc.—कन्होळी ..	SW; 30·0	1·7; 620; 114; 358	Bhendala; 3·0	Mul; 14·0	Bhendala; 3·0; Mon.	Mul; 14·0	W;	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Kannepallī—Srn.—कन्नेपल्ली ..	N; 62·0	0·9; 184; 38; 89	Aheri; 4·0	Balharshah; 62·0	Aheri; 4·0; Sat.	Aheri; 2·0	W.	..
Kānsā Sirapūr—War.—कान्सा सिरपूर. ..	E; 10·0	2·4; 426; 94; 263	Mangli; 2·0	Warora; 9·0	Bhadravati; 8·0; Wed.	Takli; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kāpanagāṅv—Raj.—कापनगांव ..	S; ..	0·9; 94; 15; 42	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kāparlā Bk.—War.—कापर्ला बु. ..	NE; 46·0	0·9; 19; 3; 14	Bhisi; 3·0	.. ..	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 3·0	W.	tl.
Kāparlā Kh.—War.—कापर्ला खु. ..	NE; 46·0	0·4; 607; 124; 354	Bhisi; 3·0	Kampa; 16·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 3·0	W.	2Sl (pr,m); 2Cs; tl; gym.

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Kāpasī—Chd.—कापसी ..	E; 50·0	1·8; 994; 230; 500	Petgaon; 1·0	Mul; 22·0	Vyahad Kh.; 7·0; Mon.	Mokhala; 5·0	W.	Sl (m); pyt; Cs; tl; gym.
Karabāḍā—War.—करबाडा ..	NE; 41·0	1·4; 179; 32; 101	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Tempa; 29·0	Masal Bk.; 2·0; Mon.	Chimur; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Karāḍī—Gdc.—कराडी ..	N; 23·0	1·8; 403; 91; 202	Wairagad; ..	Desaiganj; 15·0	Wairagad; .. Thu.	.. 9·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Kāragāṅv Bk.—Raj.—कारगांव बु. ..	W; ..	1·0; 121; 30; 83	.. ..	.. ..	Vansadi; 4·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	W;n.	Cs.
Kāragāṅv Kh.—Raj.—कारगांव खु. ..	W; ..	1·5; 92; 19; 59	Korpana; ..	Manikgad; 27·0	Vansadi; 4·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Kāragāṭā—Bhm.—कारगाटा ..	SW; 35·0	0·6; 58; 11; 35	Chak Gadmausi; 1·6	Sindevahi; 2·0	Sindevahi; 2·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 2·0	W.	..
Kāragāṭā—War.—कारगाटा ..	NE; 36·0	0·9; 130; 25; 28	Neri; 2·0	Warora; 36·0	Neri; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Karajellī—Srn.—करजेल्ली ..	E; 29·0	0·9; 206; 41; 109	Sironcha; 29·0	Balharshah; 158·0	Sironcha; 29·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 29·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl
Kārakā Bk.—Srn.—कारका बु. ..	NE; 106·0	5·0; 198; 38; 93	Ghotsur; 2·0	Chandrapur; 126·0	Gadhchiroli; 52·0;Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 52·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Karakajhorā—Gdc.—करकझोरा ..	SE; 23·0	0·4; 8; 1; 3	Gurwala; 16·0	Mul; 42·0	Gadhchiroli; 23·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 23·0	W.	..
Kārakā Kh.—Srn.—कारका खु. ..	N; 100·0	0·1; 45; 8; 19	Ghotsur; 10·0	Chandrapur; 116·0	Gadhchiroli; 40·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 40·0	W;n.	ch.
Kārakāpallī—Gdc.—कारकापल्ली ..	S; 14·0	0·5; 129; 26; 77	Gurwala; 7·0	Mul; 38·0	Gurwala; 7·0; Mon.	Gadhchircli; 14·0	W;t.	..
Kāramapallī—Srn.—कारमपल्ली ..	N; 95·0	1·8; 29·0 6; 21	Allapalli; 49·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Allapalli; 49·0; Sun.	Aheri; 53·0	n.	..
Kāramapallī—Srn.—कारमपल्ली ..	NE; 125·0	2·9; 162; 22; 59	Bhamaragad; 12·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Aheri; 35·0	W;n.	..
Karanacā—Srn.—करनचा ..	N; 40·0	0·3; 91; 19; 57	Kamalapur; 12·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Bamani; 13·0; Sun.	Umanur; 3·0	W.	..
Karanelī (Serveyed)—Srn.—करनेली (सर्व्हेड).	N; 37·0	0·2; 52; 12; 42	.. 13·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 17·0	rv.	tl.
Karañjī—Chd.—करंजी ..	SE; ..	4·4; 1606; 328; 878	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Karañjī—War.—करंजी ..	SW; 4·0	1·5; 712; 176; 380	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0; Sun.	Warora; 4·0	W;rv; n.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; gym.
Kārasapallī Clearance—Srn.—कारसपल्ली क्लियरन्स. ..	E; 2·6	0·4; 42; 9; 12	Sironcha; 2·6	Manchariyal; 40·0	Sironcha; 2·6; Mon.	Local; ..	W;n.	..
Kārasapallī Mālagujārī—Srn.—कारसपल्ली मालगुजारी. ..	N; 2·6	1·0; 645; 150; 297	Sironcha; 2·6	Manchariyal; 40·0	Sironcha; 2·6; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	2Sl (pr).
Kāravā—Raj.—कारवा ..	W; 12·0	2·6; 95; 24; 51	Chandur; 3·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Chandur; 3·0; Tue.	Hardona Bk.; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kāravāī—Raj.—कारवाई ..	W; 23·0	0·7; 42; 7; 27	Antargaon Bk.; 5·0	Ghugus; 12·0	Chandur; 11·0; Wed.	Antargaon Bk.; 4·0	n.	..
Kāravāphā—Gdc.—कारवाफा ..	E; 14·0	3·5; 593; 119; 257	Local; ..	Mul; 41·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Kāravhā—Bhm.—कारव्हा ..	SW; 47·0	1·1; 149; 38; 98	Shioni; 12·0	Sindevahi; 24·0	Shioni; 12·0; Tue.	Sindevahi; 24·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kāregāṅv—War.—कारेगांव ..	NE; 16·0	1·4; 334; 71; 174	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	Warora; 16·0	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Karemavhāṅ—Gdc.—करेमव्हाण ..	SE; ..	1·7; 66; 11; 43	.. 23·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Murum- gaon; 8·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 8·0	rv;n.	..
Karemaṭakā—Gdc.—करेमटका ..	NE; 27·0	1·1; 22; 5; 16	Dhanora; 6·0	Mul; 52·0	Dhanora; 6·0; Thu.	.. ..	..	tl.
Karem Masāhat—Srn.—करेम मसाहत.	N; 68·0	0·3; 115; 19; 69	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 77·0	Allapalli; 12·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 20·0	W.	tl; ch.
Karolī—Bhm.—करोली ..	S; 35·0	1·6; 336; 67; 212	Mudza; 2·0	Sindevahi; 30·0	Mudza; 2·0; Mon.	Vynahad; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Karrem—Srn.—करेम ..	N; 103·0	0·2; 70; 13; 27	Ghotsur; 3·0	Chandrapur; 110·0	Gadhchiroli; 50·0;Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 50·0	W.	ch.
Kāsamapallī—Srn.—कासमपल्ली ..	N; 70·0	0·2; 101; 16; 71	Aheri; 16·0	Balharshah; 78·0	Allapalli; 12·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kasanasūr—Sur.—कसनसूर ..	NE; 19·0	2·6; 121; 23; 76	Bhamaragad; 19·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Allapalli; 36·0; Sun.	Aheri; 40·0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Kasanasūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—कसनसूर (सर्व्हेड).	N; 108·0	4·6; 381; 64; 167	Ghotsur; 6·0	Mul; 75·0	Gadhchi- roli; 40·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl; ch; lib.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kāsaraboḍī—Gdc.—कासरबोडी ..	NE; 71·0	1·6; 117; 29; 58	Malevada; 2·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W;rv; n;t.	..
Kāsaragāṅv—Bhm.—कासरगांव ..	SE; 24·0	0·9; 439; 92; 261	Vihirgaon; 0·3	Sindevahi; 26·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kāsaragāṭā—Chd.—कासरगाटा ..	E; ..	0·7; 496; 95; 295	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;nt.	..
Kāsārī—Gdc.—कासारी ..	NE; 70·0	1·7; 130; 24; 84	Malevada; 1 0	Wadsa; 36·0	Malevada; 1·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Kasārī Tukūm—Gdc.—कसारी तुकूम	N; 42·0	1·0; 408; 88; 241	Desaiganj; 10·0	Wadsa; 10·0	Desaiganj; 10·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kasarlā—Bhm.—कसर्ला ..	W; 17·0	3·0; 207; 47; 129	Mohali Mokasa; 3·0	Nagbhid; 6·0	Nagbhid; 6·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kāsavī—Gdc.—कासवी ..	N; 25·0	1·1; 419; 77; 222	Armori; 4·0	Desaiganj; 10·0	Armori; 5·0; Fri.	Armori; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; lib.
Kāsuravāhī—Srn.—कासुरवाही ..	N; 118·0	0·4; 188; 33; 64	Jaravandi; 6·0	Mul; 69·0	Gadhchiroli; 44·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 8·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Kātalāboḍī—Raj.—कातलाबोडी ..	W; 28·0	0·9; 377; 83; 231	Korpana; 1·0	Manikgad; 30·0	Korpana; 1·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kāṭalī—Gdc.— काटली ..	N; 7·0	2·1; 641; 115; 356	Sakhara; 1·6	Desaiganj; 29·0	Porla; 3·0; Tue.	Stage; 0·3	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch; lib
Kaṭaṅgaṭolā—Gdc.—कटंगटोला ..	NE; 113·0	0·5; 33; 3; 20	Kurkheda; 9·0	Desaiganj; 25·0	Kurkheda; 9·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 9·0	W;t.	..
Kāṭaval—War.—काटवल ..	E; 21·0	0·3; 208; 43; 106	Viloda; ..	Warora; ..	Chandankheda; .. Thu.	Chandankheda; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Kāṭaval Bhagat—War.—काटवल भगत	NE; 18·0	1·1; 280; 53; 164	Viloda; 2·0	Warora; 18·0	Chandankheda; 2·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W.	tl.
Kāṭavalī—Chd.—काटवली ..	SE; 23·0	2·3; 185; 49; 117	Kothari; 1·0	Balharshah; 11·0	Kothari; 1·0; Mon.	Kothari; 1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Ram. Fr.Ct.; tl; 2 ch.
Kātaval Tukūm—War.—काटवल तुकूम.	E; 21·0	1·2; 688; 136; 375	Viloda; 1·0	Warora; 21·0	Chandankheda; 3·0; Thu.	Chandankheda; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Kāṭejharī—Gdc.—काटेझरी ..	NE; 45·0	6·9; 126; 23; 67	Yerkad; 15·4	Mul; 70·0	Murumgaon; 8·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 8·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Kāṭejharī—Gdc.—काटेझरी ..	E; 11·0	0·9; 179; 31; 94	Chatgaon; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Gilgaon; 8·0; Fri.	Chatgaon; 1·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Kāṭepallī (Surveyed)—Srn.—काटेपल्ली (सर्व्हेड).	N; 55·0	2·9; 94; 16; 67	Devalmarri; 1·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Aheri; 8·0; Sat.	Mosam; 5·0	n.	Cs (gr).
Kathalāsūr—Srn.—कथलासूर ..	NE; 110·0	0·01; 20; 6; 14	Bhamaragad; 10·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 58·0	n.	ch.
Kavāḍagondī—Raj.—कवाडगोंदी ..	S; 21·0	0·8; 137; 32; 66	Devada; 7·0	Manikgad; 21·0	Bhedoda; 8·0; Fri.	Devada; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kavaḍajaī—Chd.—कवडजई ..	SE; 22·0	6·0; 917; 174; 513	Manora; 1·0	Balharshah; 11·0	Kothari; 4·0; Mon.	Kothari; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Kavaḍapeṭh—Chd.—कवडपेठ ..	W; 28·0	0·3; 137; 29; 96	Chichala; 2·0	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	Mul; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kavaḍapeṭh Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—कवडपेठ रैयतवारी.	W; 27·0	2·0; 21; 4; ..	Chichala; 2·0	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W.	..
Kavaḍasī—War.—कवडसी ..	NE; 44·0	0·7; 332; 74; 183	Doma; 1·6	Kanpa; 10·0	Jambhulghat; 4·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kavaḍasī Nāīk—War.—कवडसी नाईक	NE; 54·0	2·4; 1005; 182; 535	Shankarpur; 2·0	Kanpa; 4·0	Shankarpur; 2·0; Mon.	Khairi; 1·0	W.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl; gym.
Kavaḍasī Roḍī—War.—कवडसी रोडी	NE; 1·0	0·4; 117; 26; 55	Chimur; 1·0	Warora; 33·0	Chimur; 1·0; Fri.	Chimur; 1·0	W;t.	tl.
Kāvaḍī—War.—कावडी ..	S; 11·0	2·3; 716; 158; 314	2·0	Majari; 3·0	Bhadravati; 6·0; Wed.	Patala; 3·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kāvaḍīkasā—Gdc.—कावडीकसा ..	NE; 32·0	0·2; 63; 9; 42	Murumgaon; 7·0	Wadsa; 35·0	Murumgaon; 9·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 5·0	n.	..

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Kavaṇḍe—Srn.—कवंडे ..	NE; 118·0	0·2; 76; 18; 49	Bhamaragad; 18·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 60·0; Sun.	Aheri; 62·0	n.	ch.
Kavaṭhāḷā—Raj.—कवठाळा ..	NW; 15·0	2·5; 572; 127; 347	Nandgaon; 1·0	Manikgad; 17·0	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Kavaṭhāḷā—War.—कवठाळा ..	NE; 36·0	1·1; 431; 83; 254	Chimur; 3·0	Warora; 36·0	Chimur; 3·0; Fri.	Chimur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kavaṭhāram—Srn.—कवठारम ..	N; 26·0	0·1; 24; 6; 18	Perimili; 18·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 22·0; Sun.	Golakarji Masahat; 14·0	W;n.	ch.
Kavaṭhī—Chd.—कवठी ..	E; 36·0	2·4; 1112; 225; 715	Rajgadh; 4·6	Mul; 9·0	Saoli; 4·0; Thu.	Saoli; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kavīṭ Boḍī—Chd.—कवीट बोडी ..	E; ..	0·5; 1; 1; 1	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Kavīṭhapeṭh—Raj.—कवीठपेठ ..	SE; 16·0	4·5; 410; 96; 258	Chincholi; 2·0	Virur; 3·0	Virur; 3·0; Wed.	.. 10·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Keḍamarrā—Srn.—केडमर्रा ..	E; 110·0	6·3; 122; 23; 79	Bhamaragad; 10·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 47·0; Sun.	.. ..	rv; n.	..
Kehakāparī—Srn.—केहकापरी ..	NE; 83·0	1·7; 50; 8; 30	Bhamaragad; 15·0	Balharshah; 153·0	Allapalli; 31·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 31·0	W;n.	..
Kehakāvāhī—Gdc.—केहकावाही ..	E; 45·0	3·5; 50; 8; 28	Yerkadmohad; 16·0	Desaiganj; 52·0	Murum-gaon; 9·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 9·0	n.	Cs; tl.
Keḷajhar—Ghd.—केळझर ..	E; 19·0	1·8; 1871; 410; 1008	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Chak Janala; 4·0	W;t.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl; dh; lib.
Keḷajharī—Raj.—केळझरी ..	SE; 14·0	1·9; 145; 33; 87	Virur; 2·0	Virur; 2·0	Virur; 2·0; Wed.	.. 10·0	n.	..
Keḷī—War.—केळी ..	NW; ..	2·2; 212; 43; 126	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Keḷīgaṭṭā—Gdc.—केळीगट्टा ..	SE; 30·0	0·1; 70; 13; 51	Potegaon; 6·0	Mul; 52·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 28·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 30·0	W.	Sl (pr)
Kem—War.—केम ..	N; ..	1·4; 303; 59; 167	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kem Tukūm—Chd.—केम तुकूम ..	S; 14·0	0·5; 183; 44; 94	Bahamani; 2·0	Balharshah; 4·0	Ballarpur; 4·0; Sun.	Ballarpur; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2tl; ch
Keroḍā—Chd.—केरोडा ..	NE; 44·0	2·3; 1048; 188; 626	Mokhala; 3·0	Mul; 17·0	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kesalābodī—War.—केसलाबोडी ..	NE; ..	1·0; 245; 45; 133	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Keśanīr—Gdc.—केशनीर ..	SE; 42·0	0·1; 32; 6; 17	Pendhari; 12·0	Mul; 40·0	Pendhari; 12·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 12·0	W;n.	..
Kesurlī—War.—केसुर्ली ..	S; 10·0	1·4; 49; 13; 17	Kondha; 2·0	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 4·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 3·0	W;n.	tl.
Kevāḍā—War.—केवाडा ..	E; 44·0	2·2; 1067; 227; 657	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 14·0	Local; .. Mon.	Neri; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Khaḍagī—Gdc.—खडगी ..	E; 48·0	0·4; 180; 24; 103	Pendhari; 3·0	Mul; 72·0	Pendhari; 3·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 3·0	W;rv.	..
Khaḍakī—Bhm.—खडकी ..	W; 19·0	0·7; 153; 37; 93	Govindpur; 4·0	Nagbhid; 7·0	Nagbhid; 7·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 7·0	W;w.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl
Khaḍakī—Bhm.—खडकी ..	W; 7·0	1·4; 370; 74; 176	Kirmit Mendha; 1·0	Nagbhid; 7·0	Kirmit Mendha; 1·0; Sun.	Kirmit Mendha; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Khaḍakī—Gdc.—खडकी ..	NE; 32·0	1·4; 285; 43; 180	Bhakrandi; 2·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Bhakrandi; 2·0; Tue.	.. 20·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl
Khaḍakī—Gdc.—खडकी ..	NE; 43·0	1·5; 327; 59; 196	Angara; 1·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Bhakrandi; 4·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); dg; ch.
Khaḍakī—Raj.—खडकी ..	E; ..	2·3; 100; 22; 66	Chandur; 12·0	Manikgad; 26·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	Chandur; 12·0	W;n.	..
Khaḍakī—Raj.—खडकी ..	W; ..	1·7; 236; 51; 167	Chandur; 17·0	Manikgad; 27·0	Chandur; 17·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Khaḍakī Rāyapūr—Raj.—खडकी रायपूर.	S; 40·0	2·6; 62; 14; 33	Chandur; ..	Manikgad; ..	Chandur; .. Tue.	Chandur; ..	n.	2tl; ch.
Khaḍasaṅgī—War.—खडसंगी ..	NE; 26·0	1·4; 779; 164; 346	Local; ..	Warora; 26·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	2Sl (pr, m) Cs; 2tl; lib; 2 dp.
Khairagāṅv—Raj.—खैरगांव ..	NW; 15·0	1·6; 154; 37; 86	Wirur (Gadegaon); 2 0	Manikgad; 17·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Chandur; 8·0	W;n.	tl;

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Khairagāṅv—Raj.—खैरगांव ..	W; 33·0	1·0; 164; 39; 101	Korpana; 2·0	Manikgad; 35·0	Korpana; 2·0; Fri.	Korpana; 2·0	W;	tl.
Khairagāṅv—War.—खैरगांव ..	N; 3·0	0·7; 234; 54; 130	Warora; 2·0	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Warora; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Khairī—Gdc.—खैरी ..	N; 61·0	3·7; 225; 50; 145	Kurkheda; 4·0	Wadsa; 16·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khairī—War.—खैरी ..	NE; 51·0	1·01; 532; 119; 281	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W,n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khairīcak Pārakhī—Bhm.—खैरीचक पारखी.	W; 8·0	1·4; 44; 10; 20	Mindala; 1·6	Nagbhid; 1·0	Mindala; 1·6; Sun.	Nagbhid; 2·0	W.	tl; gym.
Khālavasapeṭh—Chd.—खालवसपेठ ..	W; 25·0	0·3; 376; 76; 235	Chiroli; 1·0	Totewahi; 3·0	Chiroli; 1·0; Sun.	Chak Janala; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Khāmanagaḍ—Gdc.—खामनगड ..	SE; 45·0	0·3; 121; 17; 56	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 67·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	W;n.	Cs.
Khāman Ceru—Srn.—खामन चेरु ..	N; 61·0	1·8; 435; 91; 234	Allapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 63·0	Allapalli; 6·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Khāmatālā—Gdc.—खामताला ..	NE; 42·0	2·6; 211; 39; 153	Malevada; 6·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Malevada; 6·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 25·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); ch.
Khamaṭolā—Gdc.—खमटोला ..	E; 45·0	2·7; 133; 24; 88	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 61·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Khambāḍā—Gdc.—खंबाडा ..	NE; 39·0	1·3; 472; 87; 290	Angara; 4·0	Wadsa; 34·0	Malevada; 6·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 18·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khambāḍā—Raj.—खंबाडा ..	SE; 11·0	1·7; 107; 25; 35	Virur; 1·6	Virur; 1·6	Virur; 1·6; Wed.	.. 6·0	W;n.	..
Khāmbāḍā—War.—खांबाडा ..	N; 15·0	2·7; 623; 141; 373	Kosarsar; 2·0	Nagri; 6·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Khāmbāḍā—War.—खांबाडा ..	NE; 42·0	3·7; 1287; 271; 737	Kevada; 3·0	Kanpa; 25·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch.
Khāmonā—Raj.—खामोना ..	W; 6·2	1·6; 310; 65; 192	Rajura; 6·2	Manikgad; ..	Rajura; 6·2; Sat.	Rajura; 6·2	n.	Sl (pr).
Khānagāṅv—War.—खानगांव ..	NE; ..	2·8; 525; 117; 327	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Khaṇḍāḷā—Bhm.—खंडाळा ..	SW; 35·0	0·6; 81; 16; 52	Ratnapur; 5·0	Talodhi; 16·0	Nawargaon; 6·0; Thu.	Nawargaon; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khaṇḍāḷā—Bhm.—खंडाळा ..	NW; 1·0	0·5; 865; 165; 420	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3 tl.
Khaṇḍāḷā—Srn.—खंडाळा ..	N; 56·0	1·7; 168; 38; 62	Rajaram; 1·0	.. ..	Kamalapur; 11·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Khaṇḍāḷā—War.—खंडाळा ..	NE; ..	0·3; 191; 45; 72	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Khāñjī—War.—खांजी ..	N; ..	2·6; Included in Urban Area I	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Khāparī—War.—खापरी ..	NE; 38·0	0·6; 35·0; 6; 23	Talodhi; 1·0	Warora; 38·0	Chimur; 5·0; Fri.	Chimur; 5·0	W.	tl.
Khāparī—War.—खापरी ..	SE; 14·0	0·3; 169; 39; 97	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·3	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khāparī—War.—खापरी ..	NE; 47·0	1·1; 239; 54; 147	Doma; 1·0	Kanpa; ..	Jambhulghat; 4·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 2·0	W;rv; n.	tl.
Khāparī—War.—खापरी ..	N; ..	1·1; 247; 47; 117	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Khāparī Dharmā—War.—खापरी धर्मा.	NE; 37·0	1·5; 356; 76; 221	Pimpalneri; 2·0	Tempa; 18·0	Jambhulghat; 6·0; Tue.	Chimur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khāparī Jāmbhuḷe—War.—खापरी जांभुळे.	NE; 24·0	1·5; 312; 74; 174	Bothali; 2·0	Warora; 24·0	Amadi; 2·0; Sat.	Bothali; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl
Kharabī—Bhm.—खरबी ..	W; 26·0	1·8; 86; 24; 55	Govindapur; 1·0	Balapur; 13·0	Govindapur; 1·0; ..	Talodhi; 6·0	W.	tl.
Kharabī Maktā—Bhm.—खरबी मक्ता.	W; 2·0	3·6; 34; 9; 16	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·6	Brahmapuri; 2·6; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 2·0	W.	tl.
Kharāḍaguḍā—Gdc.—खराडगुडा ..	SE; 28·0	1·2; 19; 3; 12	Potegaon; 4·0	Mul; 53·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 25·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 28·0	rv.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kharādī—Gdc.—खराडी ..	NE; 32·0	0·7; 38; 7; 25	Delanwadi; 5·0	Wadsa; 35·0	Delanwadi; 5·0; Sat.	.. ..	w;t.	tl.
Kharakāḍā—Bhm.—खरकाडा ..	SE; 7·0	2·5; 1229; 223; 742	Kurud; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0; Fri.	Kinhi; 2·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Kharakāḍā—Gdc.—खरकाडा ..	N; 65·0	1·4; 285; 65; 185	Kurkheda; 7·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kharakāḍā—War.—खरकाडा ..	NE; 37·0	1·2; 101; 21; 64	Chimur; 2·0	19·0	Chimur; 2·0; Fri.	Chimur; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kharakāḍī—Gdc.—खरकाडी ..	E; 23·0	0·4; 114; 19; 71	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 47·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Kharālapeṭh—Chd.—खराळपेठ ..	SE; ..	2·2; 1072; 203; 604	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Kharavaḍ—War.—खरवड ..	NW; ..	4·1; 920; 169; 505	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Khasoḍā—Gdc.—खसोडा ..	NE; 64·0	1·1; 75; 14; 49	Kurkheda; 42·0	Wadsa; 61·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 30·0	W;n.	..
Khātagāṅv—Bhm.—खातगांव ..	S; 24·0	0·3; 28; 8; 14	Pathari; 18·0	Alevahi; 10·0	Mudza; 8·0; Mon.	Mendki; 10·0	W;t.	tl.
Khātagāṅv—Bhm.—खातगांव ..	SW; 36·0	1·5; 661; 116; 369	Palasgaon Jat; 2·0	Sindevahi; 5·0	Sindevahi; 4·0; Mon.	Palasgaon Jat; 2·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Khāterā—Bhm.—खातेरा ..	SW; 44·0	0·5; 90; 25; 54	Petgaon; 2·0	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 4·0	W;n.	tl; ch.
Khātoḍā—War.—खातोडा ..	E; 43·0	1·0; 226; 44; 145	Kevada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 16·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	W;n.	Cs; tl.
Khedegāṅv—Gdc.—खेडेगांव ..	NE; 36·6	0·3; 105; 18; 63	Yerkad; 7·0	Mul; 61·6	Murumgaon; 1·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	..
Khedegāṅv—Gdc.—खेडेगांव ..	N; 58·0	2·5; 278; 55; 184	Gewardha; 3·0	Wadsa; 12·0	Kurkheda; 5·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khedegāṅv—Gdc.—खेडेगांव ..	NE; 56·0	2·9; 494; 100; 319	Kurkheda; 8·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Kurkheda; 8·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Khedī—Chd.—खेडी ..	NE; 34·4	1·9; 1124; 254; 542	Saoli; 1·6	Mul; 6·4	Saoli; 1·6; Thu.	Saoli; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khedī—Gdc.—खेडी ..	N; 22·0	1·0; 128; 21; 68	Rangi; 1·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Rangi; 1·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 11·0	W.	..
Khedīmovāḍ—Gdc.—खेडीमोवाड ..	NE; 30·0	1·5; 99; 16; 59	Yerkad; 3·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Dhanora; 9·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 9·0	t;n.	..
Kheḍ Maktā—Bhm.—खेड मक्ता ..	NW; 2·0	3·6; 1653; 294; 834	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Khemajaī—War.—खेमजई ..	NE; 12·0	5·2; 968; 207; 449	Bhatala; 1·0	Warora; 12·0	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk. 3·0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 2 tl.
Khiraḍī—Raj.—खिरडी ..	S; 16·0	3·5; 69; 17; 43	Devada; 4·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Bhedoda; 6·0; Fri.	Lakkadkot; 3·0	W.	..
Khirḍī—Raj.—खिर्डी ..	W; 18·0	1·6; 337, 83; 169	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	Chandur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khiruṭolā—Gdc.—खिरुटोला ..	NE; 86·0	1·1; 79; 18; 60	Kurkheda; 35·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Markekasa; 1·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 36·0	n.	..
Khobrāmeṇḍhā—Gdc.—खोब्रामेंढा ..	NE; 74·0	4·1; 295; 44; 175	Malevada; 7·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Malevada; 7·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 28·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Ram Navmi & Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct; Sud. 15; tl; m.
Khokarī—War.—खोकरी ..	E; 15·0	2·4; 370; 65; 143	Sagara; 3·0	Warora; 15·0	Sagara; 3·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	w;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khuṇārā—Gdc.—खुणारा ..	NE; 61·0	1·0; 68; 15; 47	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; 39·0	Belgaon ; 2·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 22·0	W.	ch.
Khurasāpār—War.—खुरसापार ..	NE; ..	0·1; 35; 7; 19	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Khursā—Gdc.—खुर्सा ..	E; 11·0	1·8; 680; 137; 411	Gilgaon; 1·0	Wadsa; 45·0	Gilgaon; 1·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 11·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khurśipār—Gdc.—खुर्शिपार ..	NE; 87·0	0·8; 182; 33; 101	Kurkheda; 36·0	Wadsa; 51·0	Markekasa; 3·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 35·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Khuṭagāṅv—Gdc.—खुटगांव ..	E; 13·0	5·0; 174; 36; 94	Mendhatola; 1·0	Mul; 37·0	Mendhatola; 1·0; Wed.	Chatgaon; 3·0	W;t.	pyt; Cs; tl; ch.
Khuṭāḷā—Chd.—खुटाळा ..	N; 3·0	1·4; 56; 12; 34	Chanda; 3·0	Padoli; 2·0	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Morwa; 1·4	W;n.	Cs (gr); tl.
Khuṭāḷā—War.—खुटाळा ..	E; ..	1·6; 176; 30; 103	Warora; ..	Warora; ..	Warora; .. Sun.	Warora; ..	W;n.	..
Khuṭāḷā Mokāsā—War.—खुटाळा मोकासा.	NE; 42·0	3·0; 904; 186; 560	Sirpur; 2·0	Kanpa; 24·0	Neri; 4·0; Wed.	Neri; 4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Khuṭavaṇḍā Dikṣit—War.—खुटवडा दिक्षित.	E; 22·0	0·8; 115; 28; 72	Viloda; 3·0	Warora; 22·0	Mudholi; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station ; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Khuṭavaṇḍā Tukūm—War.—खुटवंडा तुकूम ..	E; ..	0·7; 79; 24; 36	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	tl.	Dattatraya Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Kilonī—War.—किलोनी ..	S; 8·0	0·8; 106; 24; 60	Kondha; 2·0	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 4·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 4·0	W;t.	tl.
Kinhāḷā—Gdc.—किन्हाळा ..	N; 34·0	1·1; 918; 175; 537	Kokadi; 4·0	Desaiganj; 9·0	Desaiganj; 9·0; Sun.	Visora; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Kinhāḷā—War.—किन्हाळा ..	E; 17·0	0·8; 173; 34; 94	Ashta; 2·0	Warora; 17·0	Ashta; 2·0; Sun.	Shegaon Bk.; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kinhī—Bhm.—किन्ही ..	SW; 21·0	1·6; 602; 134; 203	Rajoli; 5·0	Sindevahi; 2·0	Sindevahi; 2·0; Mon.	Local; 0·1	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Kinhī—Bhm.—किन्ही ..	S; 5·0	1·1; 799; 159; 480	Chougan; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Chougan; 1·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Kinhī—Chd.—किन्ही ..	SE; 20·0	4·0; 546; 108; 278	Manora; 2·0	Balharshah; 6·0	Kothari; 3·0; Mon.	Kothari; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; 2 m; ch.
Kiramirī—Chd.—किरमिरी ..	SE; ..	0·9; 319; 64; 183	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kiramiṭī—Bhm.—किरमिटी ..	W; 8·0	1·0; 775; 142; 447	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Nagbhid; 7·0; Thu.	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Kiramiṭī Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—किरमिटी मेंढा ..	W; 6·0	0·6; 675; 148; 339	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr. m); Cs; tl.
Kisanolī—Gdc.—किसनोली ..	SE; 45·0	0·5; 122; 25; 78	Yerkad; 20·0	Mul; 83·0	Murum-gaon; 15·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 17·0	W.	..
Kiṣṭāpūr Masāhat—Srn.—किष्टापूर मसाहत ..	NE; 36·0	0·01; 69; 13; 34	Aheri; 34·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Sironcha; 29·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 29·0	W;t.	tl.
Kiṣṭāpūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—किष्टापूर (सर्व्हेड) ..	NE; ..	1·0; 166; 36; 61	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Kiṣṭayyāpallī—Srn.—किष्टय्यापल्ली ..	E; 29·0	0·8; 117; 34; 61	Asaralli; 21·0	Balharshah: 158·0	Aheri; .. Sat.	Jimalgatta; 6·0	n.	..
Kiṭāḍī—Bhm.—किटाडी ..	SW; 26·0	1·3; 294; 69; 192	Pathari; 14·0	Alewahi; 4·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kiṭāḍī—War.—किटाडी ..	NE; 38·0	2·1; 292; 60; 156	Chimur; 5·0	Warora; 38·0	Chimur; 5·0; Fri.	Chimur; 5·0	t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kiṭāḍī Boramāḷā—Bhm.—किटाडी बोरमाळा ..	W; 20·0	1·4; 501; 106; 289	Govindapur; 3·0	Nagbhid; 9·0	Talodhi; 4·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kiṭāḍī Maktā—War.—किटाडी मक्ता ..	NE; 46·0	1·3; 244; 45; 144	Shankarpur; 3·0	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kiṭāḍī Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—किटाडी मेंढा ..	SW; 13·0	0·6; 374; 82; 215	Mindala; 1·0	Nagbhid; 7·0	Mindala; 1·0; Sun.	Nagbhid; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kiṭāḍī Rīṭh—Bhm.—किटाडी रीठ ..	SW; 13·4	1·5; 1; 1; ..	Mindala; 2·0	Mindala; 2·0	Mindala; 2·0; Sun.	Nagbhid; 7·0	W.	2 tl.
Kiṭāḷī—Gdc.—किटाळी ..	N; 22·0	1·1; 501; 80; 288	Deulgaon; 2·0	Wadsa; 19·0	Deulgaon; 2·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kiyar—Srn.—कियर ..	NE; 96·0	4·3; 246; 46; 170	Allapalli; 50·0	Balharshah; 122·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Aheri; 54·0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Kocī—Raj.—कोची ..	SW; 7·0	1·3; 98; 21; 60	Warur; 4·0	Manikgad ..	Bhedoda; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;n.	tl.
Kocī—War.—कोची ..	S; 17·0	2·2; 372; 79; 222	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 4·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kocīnārā—Gdc.—कोचीनारा ..	NE; ..	1·4; 457; 101; 263	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Korchi; .. Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Koḍasāpallī Masāhat—Srn.—कोडसापल्ली मसाहत ..	N; 44·0	0·1; 58; 10; 31	Kamalapur; 14·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Allapalli; 31·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 16·0	W;n.	..
Koḍasāpallī (Surveyed)—Srn.—कोडसापल्ली (सर्व्हेड) ..	N; 40·0	5·5; 170; 31; 120	Perimili; 12·0	Ballarshah; 108·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Koḍasī Bk.—Raj.—कोडसी बु. ..	W; 34·0	3·7; 1085; 253; 551	Local; ..	Manikgad; 34·0	Korpana; 7·0; Fri.	Pipari; 5·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr.m); Cs; 2 tl; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Koṇḍegāṅv—War.—कोंडेगांव ..	E; 27·0	1·4; 412; 88; 201	Mudholi; 2·0	Chandrapur; 22·0	Mudholi; 2·0; Wed.	Moharli; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Ram-Navmi Fr; 3 tl.
Koṇḍegāṅv Tukūm—War.—कोंडेगांव तुकुम.	E; 27·0	0·6; 146; 35; 86	Mudholi; 2·0	Chandrapur; 21·0	Mudholi; 2·0; Wed.	Moharli; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Koṇḍekhal Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—कोंडेखळ रैय्यतवारी.	NE; 47·0	2·8; 379; 73; 229	Jibgaon; 4·0	Mul; 18·0	Vyahad Kh.; 4·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Koṇḍhā—War.—कोंढा ..	S; 9·0	3·9; 1316; 279; 586	Local; ..	Majari; 2·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 2·0	W;n.	2 sl (pr,m); 3 Cs; tl.
Koṇḍhāḷā—Gdc.—कोंढाळा ..	N; 27·0	6·5; 1741; 349; 989	Kural; 2·0	Desaiganj; 5·0	Desaiganj; 5·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; Holi Fr. Phg. Vad, 1; 2 tl; lib.
Koṇḍhāḷā—War.—कोंढाळा ..	NE; ..	2·1; 315; 60; 172	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Koṇḍhāṇā—Chd.—कोंढाणा ..	NE; ..	1·1; 58; 10; 40	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Koṇḍhekhal—Gdc.—कोंढेखल ..	SE; 39 0	0·05; 19; 2; 11	Pendhari; 6 0	Mul; 68·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	rv;n.	..
Koṇḍhī—Chd.—कोंढी ..	N; 4·0	1·1; 302; 61; 173	Durgapur; 1·0	Chanda; 4·0	Chanda; 4·0; Wed.	Chanda; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Koṇḍhī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—कोंढी रैय्यतवारी.	N; 4·0	0·8; 68; 16; 40	Durgapur; 1·0	Chanda; 4·0	Chanda; 4·0; Wed.	Chanda; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Koñjeḍ—Srn.—कोंजेड ..	NE; 28·0	3·6; 93; 18; 57	Aheri; 44·0	Balharshah; 126·0	Aheri; 44·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 18·0	W;n.	..
Konsarī—Gdc.—कोन्सरी ..	SW; 37·0	2·4; 1236; 258; 665	Local; ..	Balharshah; 40·0	Ashti; 6·0; Fri.	Ashti; 6·0	W;t.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); Cs; 2tl; dp.
Kopar Allī—Gdc.—कोपर अल्ली ..	S; 70·0	1·0; 320; 71; 237	Lagam; 12·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Mulchara; 2·0; Thu.	Ashti; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Koracī—Gdc.—कोरची ..	NE; 70·0	1·4; 714; 140; 413	Kurkheda; 24·0	Desaiganj; 40·0	Local; .. Thu.	Kurkheda; 24·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Korāḍī—Raj.—कोराडी ..	NW; 14·0	1·0; 142; 28; 87	Nandgaon; 1·0	Manikgad; 16·0	Chandur; 9·0; Tue.	Nandgaon; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Korakuṭī—Gdc.—कोरकुटी ..	SE; 35·0	0·1; 16; 4; 9	Potegaon; 10·0	Mul; 60·0	Gadhchiroli; 35·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 35·0	rv.	
Korambī—Bhm.—कोरंबी ..	W; 22·0	1·1; 156; 27; 96	Mohali Mokasa; 5.0	Nagbhid; 11·0	Nagbhid; 10·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 11·0	t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Korambī—Chd.—कोरंबी ..	SE; ..	0·9; 170; 33; 90	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W	..
Korambī—Chd.—कोरंबी ..	E; ..	1·8; 347; 63; 192	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Koraṇār—Srn.—कोरणार ..	N; ..	0·1; 36; 7; 23	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Korapanā—Raj.—कोरपना ..	W; 28·0	2·0; 713; 165; 338	Local; ..	Manikgad; 30·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Koregāṅv—Gdc.—कोरेगांव ..	N; ..	0·8; 427; 106; 257	Delanwadi; 6·0	Wadsa; 20·0	Delanwadi; 6·0; Sat.	.. 20·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); ch; Cch.
Koregāṅv—Gdc.—कोरेंगांव ..	N; 40·0	2·3; 2247; 441; 1320	Local; ..	Wadsa; 8·0	Desaiganj; 8·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2 tl.
Korellī Bk.—Srn.—कोरेल्ली बु. ..	N; 78·0	8·6; 333; 59; 221	Aheri; 22·0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Korelīguḍā—Srn.—कोरेल्लीगुडा ..	N; 75·0	4·7; 96; 16; 59	Aheri; 20·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 16·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	..
Korepallī—Srn.—कोरेपल्ली ..	N; 24·0	5·1; 131; 24; 98	Perimili; 16·0	Balharshah; 84·0	Allapalli; 20·0; Sun.	Golakarji Masahat; 12·0	W.	Ch.
Kordhā—Bhm.—कोर्धा ..	W; 8·0	1·4; 1040; 204; 407	Navegaon Pendav; 1·0	Nagbhid; 3·0	Navegaon Pandav; 1·0; Tue.	Mendha; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs; tl; ch.
Korlā Mālagujārī—Srn.—कोर्ला मालगुजारी.	E; 32·0	2·1; 516; 110; 309	Asaralli; 23·0	Balharshah; 161·0	Asaralli; 23·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 31·0	W;rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Korṭī Maktā—Chd.—कोर्टी मक्ता ..	SE; 17·0	2·2; 262; 55; 143	Kothari; 5·0	Balharshah; 6·0	Kothari; 5·0; Mon.	Kothari; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2 tl; ch.
Korṭī Tukūm—Chd.—कोर्टी तुकुम ..	SE; 18·0	0·4; 77; 14; 48	Kothari; 5·0	Balharshah; 8·0	Kothari; 5·0; Mon.	Kothari; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.

Village Name	Direction ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station ; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Kodasī Kh.—Raj.—कोडसी खु. ..	W; 32·0	1·1; 500; 148; 278	Kodasi Bk.; 4·0	Manikgad; 32·0	Korpana; 7·0; Fri.	Pipari; 4·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kodekasā—Srn.—कोडेकसा ..	N; 62·0	1·7; 16; 3; 7	Perimili; 16·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 36·0; Sun.	.. 16·0	W;n.	..
Kodepār—Bhm.—कोडेपार ..	SW; 12·0	1·7; 102; 23; 43	Mindala; 0·8	Nagbhid; 5·0	Mindala; .. Sun.	Nagbhid; 5·0	W.	tl.
Kodepūr—Raj.—कोदेपूर . ..	SW; 45·0	2·6; 124; 28; 81	Korpana; ..	Rajura; 49·0	Korpana .. Fri.	Chandur; 20·0	W.	ch.
Kodīgāṅv—Gdc.—कोडीगांव ..	SE; 70·0	0·01; 72; 14; 36	Yelgur; ..	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 16·0; Sat.	Bori; 12·0	W.	tl.
Kohakā—Gdc.—कोहका ..	NE; 82·0	N.A. 1; 1; 1	Malevada; 9·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Malevada; 9·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 23·0	n.	..
Kohakā—Gdc.—कोहका ..	NE; 63·0	0·8; 41; 8; 23	Kurkheda; 43·0	Wadsa; 60·0	Kotgul; 2·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; ..	rv;n.	tl.
Kohakā—Gdc.—कोहका ..	NE; 82·0	0·8; 184; 42; 114	Kurkheda; 30·0	Desaiganj; 46·0	Bori; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 34·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kohakā—Srn.—कोहका ..	N; 120·0	1·5; 77; 11; 39	Jaravandi; 8·0	Mul; 65·0	Gadhchiroli; 40·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 12·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kohakābodī—Gdc.—कोहकाबोडी ..	NE; 66·0	0·3; 34; 6; 24	Kurkheda; 40·0	Desaiganj; 65·0	Kotgul; 2·0; Fri.	Kurkheda; 43·0	n.	..
Kohaparā—Raj.—कोहपरा ..	NE; 10·0	2·2; 539; 98; 312	Vihirgaon; 3·0	Vihirgaon; 3·0	Rajura; 10·0; Sat.	Chunala; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; Cch.
Kohaparā—War.—कोहपरा ..	W; 13·0	1·5; 205; 43; 118;	Soit; 1·0	Warora; 13·0	Madheli; 3·0; Mon.	Warora; 14·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Koinaḍule—Srn.—कोइनडुले ..	NE; 109	0·3; 158; 24; 85	Ghotsur; 10·0	Mul; 68·0	Gadhchiroli; 39·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Kojabī Bhm.—कोजबी ..	SW; ..	1·6; 530; 92; 313	Talodhi; 3·0	Balapur; 8·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Kojabī—Gdc.—कोजबी ..	N; 17·0	0·6; 417; 73; 254	Wairagad; 2·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Wairagad; 2·0; Thu.	Deulgaon; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kakaḍakāsā—Gdc.—कोकडकासा ..	SE; 37·0	0·2; 44; 8; 32	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 63·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	Pendhari; ..	rv;n.	Cs.
Kokaḍī—Gdc.—कोकडी ..	N; 37·0	3·01 1408; 271; 760	Local; ..	Wadsa; 4·0	Desaiganj; 4·0; Sun.	Visora; 4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl.
Kokevāḍā—War.—कोकेवाडा ..	NE; 44·0	1·5; 416; 91; 212	Kevada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 11·0	Motegaon; 2·0; Sun.	Chimur; 6·0	W;t.	tl.
Kokevāḍā—War.—कोकेवाडा ..	E; 21·0	1·2; 454; 81; 195	Chandankheda; 1·0	Warora; 21·0	Chandankheda; 1·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 7·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Kokevāḍā—War.—कोकेवाडा ..	NE; ..	2·1; 552; 129; 326	Ashta; 3·0	Warora; 17·0	Chargaon; 3·0; Tue.	Shegaon Bk.; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; dg; gym.
Kolagāṅv—Raj.—कोलगांव ..	N; ..	2·7; 765; 151; 391	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Kolapallī—Gdc.—कोलपल्ली ..	S; 80·0	0·4; 217; 46; 155	Lagam; 4·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Lagam; 4·0; Thu.	Lagam; 6·0	W;t;n.	Cs; tl.
Kolāpallī Masāhat—Srn.—कोलापल्ली मसाहत.	N; 52·0	0·3; 215; 49; 141	Devalmarri; 4·0	Balharshah; 72·0	Aheri; 11·0; Sat.	Mosam; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr).
Kolāraboḍī—Gdc.—कोलारबोडी ..	NE; 39·0.	0·3; 91; 19 62	Angara; 5·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Malevada; 5·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 17·0	n.	Cs.
Kolārī—Bhm.—कोलारी ..	NW; 8·0	1·8; 687; 140; 405	Savarla; 3·0	Nagbhid; 12·0	Paharani; 6·0; Mon.	Nagbhid; 12·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Kolārī—War.—कोलारी ..	NE; 43·0	0·4; 29; 6; 20	Jamgaon Komti; ..	Kanpa; 22·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Chimur; 7·0	W,n;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kolārī—War.—कोलारी ..	NE; 54·0	3·8; 987; 249; 597	Sathgaon; 3·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Shankarpar; 6·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kolār Tukūm—War.—कोलार तुकुम	NE; 40·0	0·5; 829; 157; 395	Masal Bk.; 1·0	Warora; 40·0	Masal Bk.; 1·0; Mon.	Chimur; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kolupaḍīkasā—Gdc.—कोलुपदीकसा	NE; 86·0	1·5; 117; 27; 103	Kurkheda; 34·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Markekasa; 7·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 37·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr).
Koṇḍāvāhī—Gdc.—कोंडावाही ..	SE; 33·0	0·3; 147; 28; 98	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 63·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	rv;n.	..
Koṇḍāvāhī—Srn.—कोंडावाही ..	N; 107·0	0·3; 157; 23; 80	Ghotsur; 17·0	Mul; 65·0	Gadhchiroli; 34·0; Sun.	Halewara; 7·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Kondāvāhī Masāhat—Srn.—कोंदावाही मसाहत.	N; 68·0	0·2; 68; 12; 46	.. 16·0	.. 96·0	.. .. ..	.. 28·0	W.	ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Husoeholds; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kosamaghāṭ—Gdc.—कोसमघाट ..	SE; 22·0	0·2; 72; 13; 44	Gurwala; 14·0	Mul; 47·0	Gadhchiroli; 38·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 22·0	W.	..
Kosambī—Chd.—कोसंबी ..	NE; 29·0	1·9; 321; 56; 161	Maroda; 1·6	Mul; 2·0	Mul; 2·0; Wed.	Mul; 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Kosambī Gavaḷī—Bhm.—कोसंबी गवळी.	W; 12·0	0·9; 465; 87; 251	Pardi; 2·0	Nagbhid; 8·0	Nagbhid; 8·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl;
Kosambī Khaḍasamārā—Bhm.—कोसंबी खडसमारा.	S; 18·0	3·0; 446; 99; 276	Avalgaon; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 12·0	Gangalvadi; 7·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kosamī—Gdc.—कोसमी ..	NE; 60·0	1·2; 64; 11; 39	Kurkheda; 22·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Belgaon; 1·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 22·0	W.	ch.
Kosamī—Gdc.—कोसमी ..	NE; 65·0	1·6; 176; 33; 118	Kurkheda; 36·0	Wadsa; 63·0	Kotgul; 4·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 28·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Kosamī—Gdc.—कोसमी ..	NE; 45·0	2·6; 225; 43; 135	Yerkadmohad; 20·0	Desaiganj; 50·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 12·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; Rangpanchmi Fr. March; tl.
Kosaphuṇḍī—Srn.—कोसफुंडी ..	NE; 132·0	0·2; 39; 10; 23	Bhamaragad; 20·0	Balharshah; 128·0	Allapalli; 28·0; Sun.	Aheri; 38·0	n.	..
Kosārā—Chd.—कोसारा ..	N; 3·0	1·5; 261; 57; 116	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; 2 dg.
Kosarasār—War.—कोसरसार ..	N; 17·0	1·9; 841; 153; 412	Local; ..	Warora; 17·0	Local; .. Sat.	Khambada; 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Guroba Fr; tl; m; ch; lib; dp.
Kosārī—Gdc.—कोसारी ..	NE; 28·0	1·2; 173; 36; 108	Delanwadi; 3·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Delanwadi; 3·0; Sat.	Armori; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cch.
Kośī—Gdc.—कोशी ..	N; 30·0	1·3; 114; 19; 73	Sonsari; 3·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Sonsari; 3·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;t.	..
Kosṭālā—Raj.—कोस्टाला ..	S; 26·0	4·1; 18; 7; 11	Devada; 9·0	Manikgad; 26·0	Bhedoda; 9·0; Wed.	Lakkadkot; 6·0	W;n.	..
Koṭabāḷā—War.—कोटबाळा ..	N; ..	1·1; 319; 70; 184	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Koṭagal—Gdc.—कोटगल ..	W; 3·0	3·5; 1257; 230; 718	Kaneri; 4·0	Mul; 25·0	Gadhchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; Ch.
Koṭagāṅv—Bhm.—कोटगांव ..	W; 12·0	2·4; 747; 149; 433	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 4·0	Nagbhid; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl; lib; dp.
Koṭagāṅv—War.—कोटगांव ..	NE; 42·0	1·5; 408; 85; 280	Jambhulghat; 2·0	Kanpa; 17·0	Jambhulghat; 2·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 2·0	W; .	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Koṭagul—Gdc.—कोटगुल ..	NE; 61·0	1·9; 253; 50; 135	Kurkheda; 45·0	Wadsa; 60·0	Local; .. Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; Mandai Fr. Ct; 3 tl; 5 m.
Koṭaladoh—Gdc.—कोटलडोह ..	NE; 60·0	2·0; 51; 9; 34	Dąsaiganj; 28·0	Wadsa; 28·0	Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	t;rv.	..
Kotalavāḍā—Gdc.—कोतलवाडा ..	NE; 58·0	7·1; 347; 76; 133	Malevada; 4·0	Desaiganj; 40·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 20·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Koṭā Mālagujārī—Srn.—कोटा मालगुजारी.	N; 16·0	0·9; 448; 100; 142	Sironcha; 6·0	Manchariyal; 58·0	Sironcha; 6·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	n.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud; Pournima; tl.
Koṭamī—Srn.—कोटमी ..	N; 128·0	2·8; 155; 31; 86	Ghotsur; 16·0	Mul; 63·0	Gadh-chiroli; 30·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Koṭāpallī—Srn.—कोटापल्ली ..	N; 23·0	3·2; 598; 146; 293	.. ..	Manchariyal; ..	.. .. ..	.. 18·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Madanmamata Fr. Ct.
Koṭā Patch—Srn.—कोटा पॅच ..	N; 6·0	0·4; 26; 5; 16	Sironcha; 6·0	Manchariyal; 38·0	Sironcha; 6·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	n.	..
Koṭarā—Gdc.—कोटरा ..	NE; 90·0	1·5; 349; 61; 203	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; ..	Markekasa; .. Sun.	Kurkheda; ..	t.	Mandai Fr. Ct.
Koṭhārī—Chd.—कोठारी ..	SE; 22·0	4·8; 2844; 627; 1222	Local; ..	Balharshah; 10·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); Vitoba Fr. Asd. 11. 3tl; mq; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Koṭhārī—Gdc.—कोठारी ..	S; 34·0	1·1; 85; 14; 55	Ghot; 10·0	Mul; 35·0	Ghot; 10·0; Tue.	Ghot; 10·0	W.	..
Koṭhārī—Gdc.—कोठारी ..	S; 85·0	1·1; 254; 47; 160	Lagam; 8·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Lagam; 12·0; Tue.	Lagam; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Koṭharī—Srn.—कोठरी ..	N; 112	3·5; 80; 12; 42	Ghotsur; 6·0	Mul; 70·0	Gadhchiroli; 41·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 4·0	W;n.	..
Koṭhī Masāhat—Srn.—कोठी मसाहत	N; 123·0	0·3; 163; 26; 90	Yetapalli; 19·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Aheri; 43·0; Sat.	Aheri; 43·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Koṭhī (Surveyed)—Srn.—कोठी (सर्व्हेड).	NE; 90·0	3·7; 364; 68; 218	Allapalli; 46·0	Balharshah; 118·0	Allapalli; 46·0; Sun.	Aheri; 50·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Koṭhoḍa Bk.—Raj.—कोठोडा बु. ..	W; 40·0	2·3; 284; 50; 198	Korpana; 10·0	Rajura; 42·0	Korpana; 10·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Koṭhoḍā Kh.—Raj.—कोठोडा खु. ..	W; 39·0	1·0; 51; 13; 27	Korpana; 10·0	Manikgad; 42·0	Korpana; 10·0; Fri.	.. 41·0	rv.	Cs.
Kothuḷanā—Bhm.—कोथुळना ..	W; ..	1·0; 662; 135; 348	Kotgaon; 1·0	Nagbhid; 3·0	Nagbhid; 3·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kothuḷanā Maktā—Bhm.—कोथुळना मक्ता.	N; 1·0	0·6; 364; 67; 190	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri. 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Kottākoṇḍā Bk.—Srn.—कोत्ताकोंडा बु.	N; ..	4·7; 152; 22; 74	Ghotsur; 2·0	Chandrapur; 122·0	Gadhchiroli. 50·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 50·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kottākoṇḍā Kh. Masāhat—Srn.—.. कोत्ताकोंडा खु. मसाहत	NE; 106·0	0·2; 63; 11; 27	Ghotsur; 4·0	Chandrapur; 122·0	Gadhchiroli; 52·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 52·0	W.	ch.
Kottur Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—कोत्तुर रैयतवारी.	SE; 24·0	0·6; 185; 38; 47	Asaralli; 5·0	Balharshah; 145·0	Asaralli; 5·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 5·0	rv.	..
Koyanaguḍā—Srn.—कोयनगुडा ..	NE; 76·0	0·1; 63; 10; 35	Allapalli; 32·0	Balnarshah; 104·0	Allapalli; 32·0; Sun.	Aheri; 36·0	rv.	..
Koyar—Srn.—कोयर ..	NE; 114·0	0·1; 66; 14; 44	Bhamaragad; 14·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 56·0; Sun.	Aheri; 60·0	n.	ch.
Kriṣṇāpūr—Srn.—क्रिष्णापूर ..	N; 60·0	1·2; 211; 43; 82	Aheri; 2·0	Balharshah; 63·0	Aheri; 2·0; Sat.	Aheri; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Kriṣṇāpūr Velagūr—Srn.—क्रिष्णापूर वेलगूर.	N; 75·6	2·5; 184; 33; 101	Velgur; 2·6	Balharshah; 70·6	Allapalli; 10·6; Sun.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Krupāḷā—Gdc.—कृपाळा ..	S; 5·0	0·2; 56; 8; 35	Gurwala; 1·0	Mul; 33·0	Gadhchiroli; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 5·0	W;rv.	..
Kruṣṇār—Srn.—कृष्णार ..	N; 82·0	0·3; 133; 23; 76	Yetapalli; 1·6	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 1·6	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kucanā—War.—कुचना ..	S; 6·0	1·3; 329; 70; 166	Patala; 2·0	Manjari; 3·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kucare Masāhat—Srn.—कुचरे मसाहत.	NE; 115·0	0·01; 13; 4; 10	Bhamaragad; 15·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Allapalli; 55·0; Sun.	Aheri; 61·0	W;n.	ch.
Kuḍakelī—Srn.—कुडकेली ..	NE; 70·0	7·6; 241; 38; 156	Bhamaragad; 20·0	Balharshah; 90·0	Allapalli; 27·0; Sun.	.. 37·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Kuḍarāḷā Raiyyatavārī—War.—कुडराळा रैयतवारी.	SE; 18·0	3·1; 175; 35; 104	Ghodpeth; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Ghodpeth; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kuḍarī—Srn.—कुडरी ..	N; ..	5·5; 82, 14; 35	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Kuḍe Nāndagāṅv—Chd.—कुडे नांदगांव.	SE; ..	0·6; 185; 34; 139	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Kuḍesāvalī—Bhm.—कुडेसावली ..	SE; 26·0	1·3; 670; 131; 344	Mudza; 2·0	Alevahi; 16·0	Mudza; 2·0; Mon.	Porla; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kuḍesāvalī—Chd.—कुडेसावली ..	SE; ..	2·0; 383; 88; 230	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Kukaḍaheṭī—Bhm.—कुकडहेटी ..	SW; 42·0	3·1; 404; 89; 245	Mohali; 2·0	Sindevahi; 9·0	Sindevahi; 9·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 9·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs. Shankar Pat. Fr. Pus; 2 tl;
Kukaḍasāt—Raj.—कुकडसात ..	W; 10·0	1·6; 179; 43; 102	Chandur; 5·0	Manjkgad; 12·0	Chandur; 5·0; Tue.	Hardona Bk.; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kukaḍavāhī—Gdc.—कुकडवाही ..	E; 11·0	1·6; 71; 12; 50	Chatgaon; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Gadhchiroli; 11·0; Sun.	Chatgaon; 1·0	W;t.	tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kukaḍel—Gdc.—कुकडेल ..	NF; 65·0	2·1; 215; 40; 122	Kurkheda; 26·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Belgaon; 5·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 26·0	W.	ch.
Kukāmeṭā—Srn.—कुकामेटा ..	NE; 111·0	2·7; 174; 25; 111	Bhamaragad; 11·0	Balharshah; 117·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 59·0	n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kukelī—Srn.—कुकेली ..	.. ..	0·3; 116; 16; 47	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Kukuḍ Civaṇḍhā—Chd.—कुकुड चिवंढा.	NE; 31·4	0·7; 4; 1; 4	.. 1·0	Mul; 4·4	Mul; 4·4; Wed;	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Kukulabodī—Raj.—कुकुलबोडी ..	W; 34·0	1·0; 60; 12; 38	Korpana; 3·0	Manikgad; 36·0	Korpana; 3·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Kulabhaṭṭī—Gdc.—कुळभट्टी ..	E; 40·0	1·1; 405; 78; 270	Yarkad; 25·0	Mul; 78·0	Murum-gaon; 7·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 11·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Kulakulī—Gdc.—कुलकुली ..	NE; 74·0	3·0; 450; 85; 284	Sonsari; 8·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Sonsari; 8·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kulathā—Chd.—कुलथा ..	.. ..	2·4; 194; 40; 110	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	Devi Fr. Mrg.
Kulathā—Gdc.—कुलथा ..	.. ..	1·5; 78; 17; 48	Lagam; ..	Balharshah; ..	Lagam; .. Tue.	Lagam; ..	rv.	..
Kulegāṅv—Gdc.—कुलेगांव ..	.. ..	4·3; 177; 37; 127	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Kumakoṭ—Gdc.—कुमकोट ..	NE; 75·0	1·3; 56; 8; 41	Kurkheda; 27·0	Desaiganj; 43·0	Korchi; 3·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	Mandai Fr. Phg.
Kumaraguḍā—Srn.—कुमरगुडा ..	NE; 135·0	1·8; 36; 6; 17	Bhamaragad; 17·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Aheri; 35·0	n.	..
Kumbhī Mokāsā—Gdc.—कुंभी मोकासा.	SE; 10·0	0·7; 87; 19; 47	Gurwala; 2·0	Mul; 35·0	Gadhchi-roli; 10·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W;rv; t.	..
Kumbhīṭolā—Gdc.—कुंभीटोला ..	N; 61·0	0·7; 434; 71; 247	Kurkheda; 1·0	Wadsa; 17·0	Kurkheda; 1·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kunāḍā—War.—कुनाडा ..	S; 13·0	2·1; 690; 161; 264	Kondha; 4·0	Bhadravati; 5·0	Bhadravati; 5·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 5·0	rv.	2 Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Kunaghāḍā—Gdc.—कुनघाडा ..	SW; ..	1·3; 535; 131; 239	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kunaghāḍā Raiyyatavāri—Gdc.—कुनघाडा रैय्यतवारी.	S; 14·0	8·3; 3520; 702; 1964	Local; ..	Mul; 26·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 2·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); Cs; 3tl; lib; dp.
Kuñjemarakā—Srn.—कुंजेमरका ..	NE; 114·0	0·1; 39; 6; 11	Yetapalli; 34·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Allapalli; 52·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 52·0	n.	..
Kupāner—Gdc.—कुपानेर ..	SE; 32·0	.. 22; 5; 12	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	rv.	..
Kurakheḍā—Gdc.—कुरखेडा ..	E; 12·0	0·7; 157; 33; 105	Chatgaon; 3·0	Mul; 37·0	Gilgaon; 2·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kurakheḍā—Gdc.—कुरखेडा ..	N; 40·0	1·9; 1197; 278; 400	Local; ..	Wadsa; 16·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W;rv.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); Cs; tl; mq; dh; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Kural—Gdc.—कुरल ..	N; 32·0	3·4; 3173; 626; 1835	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 3·0	Desaiganj; 3·0; Sun.	.. 0·3	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); pyt; 5 Cs; 3 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Kuralī—Raj.—कुरली ..	N; 15·0	1·6; 128; 26; 73	Bhoyegaon; 3·0	Chandrapur; 8·0	Chandrapur; 8·0; Wed.	Nandgaon; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Kuraṇḍī—Gdc.—कुरंडी ..	NE; 20·0	4·2; 185; 35; 112	Wairagad; 5·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Wairagad; 5·0; Thu.	Armori; 13·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; dg; ch.
Kurañjhā—Gdc.—कुरंझा ..	N; 14·0	0·3; 181; 33; 108	Deloda Bk.; 2·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Deloda Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	Porla; 6·0	W;t.	tl.
Kurhāḍī—Gdc.—कुऱ्हाडी ..	N; 5·0	0·4; 198; 36; 107	Sakara; 2·0	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchi-roli; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kurjhā—Bhm.—कुर्झा ..	N; 1·0	2·5; 1812; 352; 852	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 2·0	W;t.	3 Sl (pr,m,clg);Cs; 3 tl; dg; gym; lib.
Kurlā—War.—कुर्ला ..	.. ..	1·7; 1; 1; 1	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kuroḍā—War.—कुरोडा ..	S; 10·0	1·0; 137; 30; 77	Kondha; 1·0	Bhadravati 4·0	Bhadravati; 3·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kuruḍ—Gdc.—कुरुड ..	S; 18·0	4·5; 1007; 215; 612	Chamorshi 3·0	Mul; 24·0	Chamorshi; 3·0; Thu.	Ghot; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Kurumavāḍā—Srn.—कुरूमवाडा ..	NE; 115·0	2·1; 161; 30; 104	Jaravandi; 9·0	Balharshah; 177·0	Aheri; 67·0; Sat.	Aheri; 62·0	W;n.	tl.

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Kurumavellī—Srn.—कुरुमवेल्ली ..	N; 64·0	7·5; 408; 67; 246	Perimili; 14·0	Balharshah; 108·0	Allapalli; 32·0; Sun.	.. 14·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kurusṇār—Srn.—कुरुष्णार ..	.. ..	3·9; 179; 39; 109	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Kusaḷ—Raj.—कुसळ ..	W; 32·0	1·6; 214; 43; 116	Korpana; 3·0	Manikgad; 34·0	Korpana; 3·0; Fri.	Korpana; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Urus. in April-May.
Kusumbī—Raj.—कुसुंबी ..	SW; 24·0	5·3; 21; 4; 13	Chandur; 9·0	Manikgad; 24·0	Chandur; 9·0; Tue.	Chandur; 9·0	W;n.	ch.
Kuthegāṅv—Gdc.—कुथेगांव ..	SE; 19·0	2·5; 253; 44; 151	Karwafa; 3·0	Mul; 40·0	Karwafa; 3·0; Tue.	Karwafa; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Kuvākoḍī—Srn.—कुवाकोडी ..	NE; 125·0	4·3; 99; 22; 53	Bhamaragad; 25·0	Balharshah; 131·0	Allapalli; 67·0; Sun.	Aheri; 69·0	n.	ch.
Lāḍaborī—Bhm.—लाडबोरी ..	SW; 36·0	2·8; 968; 194; 554	Gadbori; 4·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 3·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Lāḍaj—Bhm.—लाडज ..	NE; 8·0	3·7; 1684; 356; 1081	Pimpalgaon; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Arher Navargaon; 3·0; Mon.	Hardoli; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch; 2 lib.
Lāḍajharā—Gdc.—लाडझरा ..	SE; 25·0	0·01; 12; 2; 5	Karwafa; 9·0	Mul; 51·0	Karwafa; 9·0; Tue.	Karwafa; 9·0	w.	..
Lagām—Gdc.—लगाम ..	S; 110·0	0·5; 490; 98; 223	Local; ..	Balharshah; 48·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Lagāmaheṭṭī Patch—Gdc.—लगामहेट्टी पॅच ..	S; ..	1·1; 205; 36; 102	Lagam; ..	Balharshah; 49·6	Lagam; .. Tue.	Local; ..	w.	ch.
Lāharī (Surveyed)—Srn.—लाहरी (सर्व्हेड). ..	NE; 113·0	2·9; 345; 78; 96	Bhamaragad; 13·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Allapalli; 55·0; Sun.	Aheri; 59·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Lakhamāpūr—Raj.—लखमापूर ..	W; 12·0	2·7; 1064; 260; 628	Chandur; 2·0	Manikgad; 14·0	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Chandur; 1·6	W.	Sl (m); Cs; tl.
Lakhamāpūr Raiyyatavārī Bhm.—लखमापूर रैय्यतवारी. ..	SW; 25·0	2·5; 2; 1; 2	Talodhi; 1·0	Balapur; 2·0	Talodhi; 1·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 1·0	..	..
Lakhamāpūr Raiyyatavārī—Gdc.—लखमापूर रैय्यतवारी.	N; 2·0	0·7; 39; 18; ..	Chanda; 2·0	Chanda; 2·1	Chanda; 2·0; Wed.	Chanda; 2·0	W;rv.	Ramnavmi Fr.; tl; m; dh.
Lakhamāpūr Urf. Borī—Gdc.—लखमापूर उर्फ बोरी	S; ..	4·3; 345; 242; 784	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Lākhanaguḍā (Surveyed)—Srn.—लाखनगुडा (सर्व्हेड).	NE; 45·0	0·5; 67; 14; 36	Peta; 10·0	Balharshah; ..	Sironcha; 45·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	w;n.	..
Lākhāpūr—Bhm.—लाखापूर ..	W; 8·4	1·9; 294; 57; 184	Mousi; 2·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 3·0	Mousi; 2·0; Sat.	Kirmiti Mendha; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Lakkaḍakoṭ—Raj.—लक्कडकोट ..	S; 18·0	2·7; 331; 81; 139	Devada; 6·0	Manikgad; 15·0	Bhedoda; 9·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Lakṣmaṇapūr—Gdc.—लक्ष्मणपूर ..	SW; 32·0	2·0; 429; 95; 247	Ganpur; 2·0	Mul; 20·0	Adyal; 3·0; Sat.	Ashti; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Lakṣmīdevīpeṭa Raiyyatavārī—Srn. लक्ष्मीदेवीपेटा रैय्यतवारी.	SE; 17·0	1·1; 294; 63; 174	Ankisa; 0·4	Manchariyal; 77·0	Ankisa; 0·4; Tue.	Sironcha; 16·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Lakṣmīpūr Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—लक्ष्मीपूर रैय्यतवारी.	SE; 5·0	0·6; 92; 22; 50	Sironcha; 5·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Sironcha; 5·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Lāñjheḍā—Gdc.—लांझेडा ..	S; 1·0	2·5; 659; 139; 356	Gadhchiroli; 1·0	Mul; 29·0	Gadhchiroli; 1·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (frm); tl; lib.
Lāñjhī—Srn.—लांझी ..	N; 65·0	2·9; 39; 7; 26	Yetapalli; 12·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	..
Lankācen (Surveyed)—Srn.—लंकाचेन (सर्व्हेड). ..	N; 24·0	1·1; 112; 24; 58	.. 5·0	Manchariyal; 82·0	.. .. ..	.. 18·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Laṣkarī—Srn.—लष्करी ..	NE; 115·0	2·3; 141; 22; 67	Bhamaragad; 15·0	Balharshah; 121·0	Allapalli; 57·0; Sun.	.. 59·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.

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Laṭhī—Chd.—लाठी ..	S; ..	4·5; 370; 183; 509	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Lāvārī—Chd.—लावारी ..	S; 14·0	1·7; 125; 23; 66	Bahamani; 2·0	Balharshah; 4·0	Ballarpur; 4·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Lāvārī—Gdc.—लावारी ..	NE; 117·0	0·5; 179; 33; 108	Kurkheda; 13·0	Desaiganj; 29·0	Kurkheda; 13·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 13·0	t.	..
Lāvārī—War.—लावारी ..	NE; 51·0	3·8; 208; 49; 126	Shankarpur; 4·0	Kanpa; 9·0	Shankarpur; 4·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Lāvārī—War.—लावारी ..	NE; 45·0	3·3; 251; 55; 164	Naotala; 5·0	Kanpa; 16·0	Jambhulghat; 6·0; Sat.	Jambhulghat; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Lekhā—Gdc.—लेखा ..	E; 19·0	2·2; 282; 56; 178	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 44·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Lekuraboḍī—Gdc.—लेकुरबोडी ..	NE; 70·0	2·8; 137; 28; 86	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Maseli; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Lenaguḍā—Gdc.—लेनगुडा ..	S; 16·0	0·01; 24; 4; 18	Muranda; 1·0	Mul; 40·0	Talodhi Mokasa; .. Wed.	.. 11·0	W.	..
Leṇḍhārī—Gdc.—लेंढारी ..	NE; 112·0	3·9; 207; 42; 140	Kurkheda; 8·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Kurkheda; 8·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 8·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Liṅgamapallī—Srn.—लिंगमपल्ली ..	NE; 32·0	0·9; 33; 7; 22	Kamalapur; 5·0	Balharshah; 94·0	Kamalapur; 5·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 5·0	n.	ch.
Lohārā—Chd.—लोहारा ..	E; 5·0	0·5; 273; 66; 89	Chanda; 5·0	Chanda; 5·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Chanda; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; gym.
Lohārā—Gdc.—लोहारा ..	S; 80·0	1·8; 10; 4; 8	Lagam; 8·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Ashti; 12·0; Fri.	Chaidampalli; 6·0	W;t.	..
Lohārā—Gdc.—लोहारा ..	N; 17·0	0·4; 125; 28; 72	Wairagad; 2·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Wairagad; 2·0; Thu.	Deulgaon; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Lohārā Bk.—War.—लोहारा बु. ..	NE; 49·0	2·2; 941; 198; 571	Jambhulghat; 5·0	Kanpa; 20·0	Jambhulghat; 5·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 5·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Lohār Doṅgarī—Bhm.—लोहार डोंगरी. ..	SW; 26·0	1·6; 45; 9; 28	Pathari; 14·0	Alevahi; 3·0	Balapur Bk.; 6·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 6·0	W;t.	tl.
Lonagāḍagā—War.—लोनगाडगा ..	W; 8·0	1·7; 53; 12; 30	Panzurni; 2·0	Dongargaon; 3·6	Madheli; 3·0; Mon.	Warora; ..	W;n.	tl.
Loṇakhaiī Navegāṅv—Bhm.—लोणखैरी नवेगांव. ..	S; ..	0·6; 764; 167; 434	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Loṇakhairī Tukūm—लोणखैरी तुकूम	SW; 35·0	0·8; 377; 93; 253	Rajoli; 2·0	Rajoli; 2·0	Rajoli; 2·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Loṇār—War.—लोणार ..	N; 12·0	0·9; 397; 80; 188	Kosarsar; 4·0	Warora; 11·0	Kosarsar; 4·0; Sat.	Khambada; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs. tl.
Loṇavāhī Tolā—Bhm.—लोणवाही टोला. ..	S; ..	2·5; 398; 99; 98	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Loṇḍholī—Chd.—लोंढोली ..	E; 22·0	2·4; 1141; 225; 628	Chamorshi; ..	Mul; 22·0	Chamorshi; 3·0; Thu.	Chamorshi; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Shivaratra Fr; tl; dp.
Loṇī—Raj.—लोणी ..	W; 28·0	1·7; 632; 134; 359	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 30·0	Korpana; 4·0; Fri.	Rajura; 28·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Lovā—Srn.—लोवा ..	NE; 22·0	1·4; 79; 16; 54	Aheri; 52·0	Balharshah; 115·0	Aheri; 52·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 20·0	W.	..
Madanāpūr—War.—मदनापूर ..	E; 42·0	2·7; 464; 94; 266	Masal Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 42·0	Masal Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Madanāpūr Tukūm—War.—मदनापूर तुकूम. ..	E; 42·0	0·6; 145; 29; 90	Masal Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 42·0	Masal Bk.; 2·0; Mon.	Chimur; 9·0	W.	tl.
Maḍavelī—Srn.—मडवेली ..	NE; 70·0	4·1; 159; 27; 123	Perimili; 12·0	.. 125·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Perimili; 12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Maddikuṇṭā—Srn.—मद्दीकुंटा ..	S; 3·0	3·0; 583; 144; 289	Janampalli; 0·3	Chandrapur; 132·0	Sironcha; 3·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m).
Māḍecoṭī—Gdc.—माडेचोटी ..	NE; 67·0	0·6; 78; 13; 49	Kurkheda; 38·0	Wadsa; 64·0	Kotgul; 5·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 28·0	W;n.	..
Māḍemuḷ—Gdc.—माडेमुळ ..	SE; 8·0	0·3; 53; 10; 37	Gurwala; 3·0	Mul; 35·0	Gadhchiroli; 8·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W.	..
Māḍhebodī—Gdc.—माधेबोडी ..	NE; 65·0	2·0; 147; 23; 89	Kurkheda; 35·0	Wadsa; 64·0	Kotgal; 6·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 30·0	W.	..
Māḍhelī Bk.—War.—माढेळी बु. ..	.. ..	3·9; 2125; 493; 774	Local; ..	Dongargaon; ..	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Māgāḍaṇḍī—Srn.—मागाडंडी ..	N; 109·0	0·1; 17; 4; 8	Ghotsur; 10·0	Mul; 68·0	Gadhchiroli; 39·0; Sun	.. 4·0	W;n.	..
Mahādavāḍī—Chd.—महादवाडी ..	E; 17·0	0·1; 165; 30; 94	Keljhar; 2·0	Keljhar; 2·0	Chichpalli; 4·0; Mon.	Stage; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Mahādavāḍī—Gdc.—महादवाडी ..	N; 4·6	1·3; 161; 30; 99	Gogaon; 2·0	Mul; 29·4	Gadhchiroli; 4·6; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mahādavāḍī—War.—महादवाडी ..	NE; 43·0	1·3; 427; 87; 254	Kevada; 1·0	Sindevahi; 14·0	Kevada; 1·0; Mon.	Neri; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mahāḍāḷī—War.—महाडाळी ..	N; 10·0	2·1; 456; 109; 237	Chikani; 1·6	Chikani; 4·0	Chikani; 1·6; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mahāgāṅv Bk.—Srn.—महागांव बु. ..	N; 64·0	2·3; 683; 149; 313	Aheri; 4·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Aheri; 4·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Mahāgāṅv Kh.—Srn.—महागांव खु. ..	N; 65·0	2·0; 687; 125; 358	Aheri; 5·0	Balharshah; 61·0	Aheri; 5·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Mahākālī Colliery—Chd.—महाकाली कॉलरी ..	.. ..	0·1; 1827; 421; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Mahākurlā—Chd.—महाकुर्ला ..	W; 7·0	1·6; 346; 69; 204	Dhanora; 2·0	Chanda; 7·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Chanda; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mahālagāṅv—War.—महालगांव ..	NE; 41·0	1·9; 462; 90; 284	Jamgaon; 1·6	Tempa; 15·0	Bhisi; .. Sat.	Chimur; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mahālagāṅv—War.—महालगांव ..	E; 11·0	2·5; 799; 165; 473	Shegaon Kh.; 2·0	Warora; 11·0	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; gym.
Mahālagāṅv Kh.—War.—महालगांव खु. ..	N; ..	1·3; 157; 40; 104	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mahāvāḍā—Gdc.—महावाडा ..	E; 15·0	2·9; 204; 36; 122	Dhanora; 7·0	Mul; 37·0	Dhanora; 7·0; Thu.	Girola; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Mahāvāḍā—Gdc.—महावाडा ..	N; 23·0	0·7; 291; 54; 177	Mohali; 1·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Rangi; 3·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 11·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Mailāram Masāhat—Srn.—मैलाराम मसाहत ..	.. ..	0·1; 65; 15; 45	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Majarā—War.—मजरा ..	.. ..	0·9; 131; 23; 68	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Majarā Raiyyatavāri—War.—मजरा रैय्यतवारी. ..	.. ..	3·7; 749; 108; 368	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mājāri—War.—माजरी ..	S; 8·0	2·6; 1952; 445; 260	Local; ..	Local; ..	Bhadravati; 7·0; Wed.	Patala; 4·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
Makasūr—War.—मकसूर ..	N; 17·0	0·6; 35; 8; 25	Kosarsar; 1·6	Warora; 17·0	Kosarsar; 1·6; Sat.	Khambada; 3·0	W;n.	..
Mākepallī—Gdc.—माकेपल्ली ..	E; 25·0	0·7; 64; 9; 41	Karwafa; 9·0	Mul; 46·0	Karwafa; 9·0; Tue.	Karwafa; 9·0	W;n.	..
Mākepallī Mālagujārī—Gdc.—माकेपल्ली मालगुजारी.	SE; 32·0	0·5; 692; 151; 393	Ghot; 6·0	Balharshah; ..	Ghot; 6·0; Tue.	Ghot; 6·0	W.	ch. Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Makkepallī—Srn.—मक्केपल्ली ..	N; 72·0	0·2; 41; 8; 25	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Aheri; 30·0	W;n.	..
Mākonā—War.—माकोना ..	.. ..	0·8; 284; 49; 171	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Māladoṅgarī—Bhm.—मालडोंगरी ..	S; 2·0	2·5; 1143; 224; 672	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 2·0	W;n.; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Māladugī—Gdc.—मालदुगी ..	N; 62·0	2·1; 515; 90; 265	Kurkheda; 1·0	Wadsa; 18·0	Kurkheda; 1·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 1·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mālandā—Gdc.—मालंदा ..	E; 23·0	2·5; 175; 38; 92	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	Dhanora; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office ; Distance (4)		Railway Station ; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Mālenagaṭṭā—Srn.—मालेनगट्टा ..	..	..	0·1;	40;	7;	19	Jaravandi;	5·0	Balharshah;	122·0	Aheri;	66·0; Sat.	Aheri;	68·0	W;n.	tl.
Māleṅgā—Srn.—मालेंगा ..	NE;	115·0	0·01;	87;	18;	35	Bhamaragad;	15·0	Balharshah;	121·0	Allapalli;	57·0; Sun.	Aheri;	59·0	W;n.	ch.
Māler—Gdc.—मालेर ..	S;	16·0	4·6;	479;	94;	266	Kunghada;	4·0	Mul;	30·0	Talodhi Mokasa,	6·0; Wed.	Ghot;	12·0	W;t.	Cs; tl.
Mālerā—Gdc.—मालेरा ..	S;	60·0	1·2;	364;	77;	195	Mulchara;	2·0	Balharshah;	40·0	Mulchara;	2·0; Thu.	Mulchara;	2·0	W;t.	tl.
Mālevāḍā—Gdc.—मालेवाडा ..	NE;	74·0	2·4;	700;	138;	397	Local;	..	Wadsa;	36·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Kurkheda;	22·0	W;rv; t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs.
Mālevāḍā—War.—मालेवाडा ..	NE;	37·0	3·4;	832;	172;	435	Sawargaon ;	2·0	Tempa;	17·0	Sawargaon;	2·0; Sun.	..	0·4	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mallamapoḍūr—Srn.—मल्लमपोडूर	NE;	110·0	3·0;	308;	56;	89	Bhamaragad;	10·0	Balharshah;	116·0	Allapalli;	54·0; Sun.	Aheri;	58·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Māmalā—Chd.—मामला ..	NE;	11·0	1·1;	250;	59;	88	Chanda;	11·0	Chanda;	12·0	Chanda;	12·0; Wed.	..	6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mānā—Chd.—माना ..	S ;	3·0	1·0;	92;	19;	38	Chanda;	3·0	Chanda;	3·0	Chanda;	3·0; Wed.	Chanda;	3·0	W.	tl; ch.
Mahagāṅv—War.—मनगांव ..	S;	6·0	1·9;	524;	125;	298	Patala;	2·0	Majari;	5·0	Warora;	6·0; Sun.	Patala;	2·0	n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mānaguṭṭā Masāhat—Srn.—मानगुट्टा मसाहत.	N;	..	0·1;	82;	12;	60	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Māṇakāpūr—Chd.—माणकापूर ..	E;	32·0	0·3;	70;	13;	42	Bhejgaon;	5·0	..	..	Bhejgaon;	5·0; Fri.	..	..	W;rv; t.	..
Māṇakāpūr—Chd.—माणकापूर ..	NE;	..	0·6;	123;	21;	67	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W	..
Māṇāpūr—Gdc.—मानापूर ..	NE;	26·0	1·0;	936;	185;	540	Delanwadi;	1·0	Wadsa;	20·0	Delanwadi;	1·0; Sat.	Armori;	15·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Ram-Navmi Fr.; 3 tl.
Maṇḍalāpūr—Srn.—मंडलापूर ..	S;	3·0	0·1;	46;	9;	5	Sironcha;	3·0	Chandrapur;	132·0	Sironcha;	3·0; Mon.	Sironcha;	3·0	W;t.	..
Mandā Tukūm—Chd.—मंदा तुकूम..	E;	21·0	0·5;	95;	21;	59	Chiroli;	1·0	Totevahi;	1·0	Chiroli;	1·0; Sun.	Chak Janala;	2·0	W;w.	tl.
Maṇḍavā—Raj.—मांडवा ..	W;	31·0	2·1;	522;	116;	320	Korpana;	4·0	Manikgad;	33·0	Chanai Bk.;	2·0; Mon.	Rajura;	31·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māṇḍav Gurhāḍ Raiyyatavārī—War. मांडव गुऱ्हाड रैय्यतवारी.	N;	15·0	1·2;	221;	50;	129	Kosarsar;	2·0	Chikani;	9·0	Kosarsar;	2·0; Sat.	Khamb ada;	3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Māṇḍhrā—Srn.—मांद्रा ..	N;	50·0	4·4 ;	350;	77;	184	Kamalapur;	18·0	Balharshah;	110·0	Aheri;	40·0; Sat.	Kamalapur;	18·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Māṇḍolī—Srn.—मांडोली ..	N;	112·0	0·1;	19;	3;	13	Ghotsur;	19·0	Mul;	63·0	Gadhchiroli;	33·0; Sun.	Kasansoor;	12·0	W;n.	..
Mānemohāḷī—War.—मानेमोहाळी ..	NE;	41·0	1·1;	487;	107;	313	Masal Bk.;	2·6	Warora:	41·0	Masal Bk.;	2·6; Mon.	Chimur;	8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Mānevārā—Srn.—मानेवारा ..	NE;	110·0	4·6;	333;	69;	137	Ghotsur;	2·0	Chandrapur	126·0	Gadhchiroli;	52·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli;	52·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Māṅgadā—Gdc.— मांगदा ..	NE;	30·0	2·6;	339;	69;	231	Delanwadi;	4·0	Wadsa;	30·0	Delanwadi;	4·0; Sat.	Armori;	12·0	W;t; n	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māṅgalagāṅv—War.—मांगलगांव ..	NE;	42·5	2·6;	1027;	233;	557	Jambhulghat;	3·0	Kanpa,	12·0	Jambhulghat;	3·0 Tue.	Stage;	0·5	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.
Maṅgalapeṭh—Chd.—मंगलपेठ ..	..	..	0·2;	11;	2;	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Māṅgalī—Bhm.—मांगली ..	S;	7·6	1·3;	760;	180;	453	Chougan;	2·6	Brahmapuri;	7·0	Chougan;	2·6; Wed.	Rui;	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māṅgalī—Bhm.—मांगली ..	NW;	18·0	1·1;	953;	188;	536	Mohali Mokasa;	1·0	Local;	..	Nagbhid;	6·0; Thu.	Mohali Mokasa;	1·0	W	2 Sl (pr, m);Cs; tl; ch.
Māṅgalī Devatāle—War.—मांगली देवताळे.	N;	..	2·3;	607;	132;	338	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Māṅgalī Raiyyatavārī—War.—मांगली रैय्यतवारी.	S;	12·0	2·6;	881;	178;	464	Pirli;	3·0	Bhadravati;	8·0	Bhadravati;	7·0; Wed.	Bhadravati;	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; gym.
Maṅgaramenḍhā—Bhm.—मंगरमेंढा..	S;	34·0	0·5;	340;	63;	144	Palebarsa;	2·0	Sindevahi;	24·0	Pethari;	8·0; Fri.	Vyhad;	12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m; dg.

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Māṅgarul—Bhm.—मांगरुळ ..	W; 21·0	2·4; 607; 145; 367	Govindpur; 3·0	Nagbhid; 10·0	Talodhi; 4·0; Wed.	.. 3·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māṅgevāḍā—Gdc.—मांगेवाडा ..	SE; 50·0	0·2; 112; 10; 70	Pendhari; 7·0	Mul; 72·0	Pendhari; 7·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 7·0	rv.	..
Māṅgevāḍā—Gdc.—मांगेवाडा ..	NE; 37·0	0·2; 191; 32; 118	Malevada; 3·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Malevada; 3·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 19·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Maṅgī—Raj.—मंगी ..	SW; 10·0	6·6; 800; 165; 449	Chandur; 3·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Rajura; 10·0; Sat.	Rajura; 10·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Maṅgiguḍam—Srn.—मंगिगुडम ..	E; 21·0	0·6; 60; 12; 23	Sironcha; 21·0	Balharshah; 150·0	Sironcha; 21·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 21·0	W;n.	tl.
Māṅgulahirā—Raj.—मांगुलहिरा ..	W; 42·0	2·2; 248; 48; 151	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	.. 42·0	W;n.	Cs; tl.
Maṅjīgāṅv—Gdc.—मंजीगांव ..	S; 23·0	0·5; 184; 36; 110	Ghot; 3·0	Balharshah; 58·0	Ghot; 3·0; Tue.	Ghot; 3·0	W;t	..
Mannerājārām—Srn.—मन्नेराजाराम	NE; 70·0	3·2; 472; 87; 289	Parimilli; 12·0	.. 125·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Perimili; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Mānolī Bk.—Raj.—मानोली बु. ..	N; ..	1·1; 248; 40; 144	Sasti; ..	Balharshah; 3·0	Rajura; .. Sat.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mānolī Kh.—Raj.—मानोली खु. ..	W; 14·3	1·2; 361; 82; 212	Chandaur; 2·0	Manikgad; 16·2	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; dg; ch.
Mānorā—Chd.—मानोरा ..	SE; 24·0	1·4; 1164; 230; 738	Local; ..	Balharshah; 12·0	Kothari; 4·0; Mon.	Kothari; 4·0	W;t; pl.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Mānorā—War.—मानोरा ..	NE; 16·0	2·2; 554; 107; 296	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	Warora; 16·0	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Shivratra Fr; 2 tl.
Māraḍā—Chd.—मारडा ..	SW; 6·0	3·6; 1114; 188; 547	Local; ..	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; ch.
Māradā—Gdc.—मारदा ..	SE; 27·0	4·1; 114; 22; 68	Potegaon; 3·0	Mul; 52·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 25·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 27·0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Mārakaboḍī—Gdc.—मारकबोडी ..	S; 7·0	2·2; 471; 89; 295	Yeoli; 2·0	Mul; 32·0	Gadhchirc1i; 7·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 7·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Marakāgāṅv—Gdc.—मरकागांव ..	SE; 41·0	0·3; 131; 19; 79	Pendhari; 9·0	Mul; 66.0	Pendhari; 9.0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	..
Mārakāgondī—Raj.—मारकागोंदी ..	S; 25·0	1·1; 15; 3; 9	Vansadi; ..	Manikgad; ..	Vansadi; .. Wed.	Vansadi; ..	n.	tl.
Mārakāgondī—Raj.—मारकागोंदी ..	W; ..	2·4; 63; 13; 45	Korpana; ..	Manikgad; 28.0	Vansadi; 5.0; Wed.	Vansadi; 5·0	W;n.	Cs; tl.
Marakānār—Srn.—मरकानार ..	NE; 92·0	3·8; 217; 38; 93	Allapalli; 48·0	Balharshah; 120.0	Allapalli; 48.0; Sun.	Aheri; 52·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr).
Mārakaṇḍā Kansabā—Gdc.—मारकंडा कंसबा	S; 49·0	0·8; 520; 118; 202	Local; ..	Balharshah; 37.0	Ashti; 3.0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Mārakegāṅv—Gdc.—मारकेगांव ..	E; 23·0	2·7; 67; 15; 47	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Mārakegāṅv—Gdc.—मारकेगांव ..	E; 45·0	2·7; 98; 21; 62	Yerkad; 15·0	Mul; 73·0	Murumgaon; 7·0; Tue;	Murumgaon; 7·0	W;n.	..
Marakekasā—Gdc.—मरकेकसा ..	NE; 82·0	1·0; 92; 18; 54	Kurkheda; 31·0	Wadsa; 47·0	Local; .. Sun.	Kurkheda; 35·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Mandal Fr. Mrg; tl.
Marajāsāvarī—Chd.—मराळसावरी ..	E; 19·0	0·5; 31; 5; 15	Keljhar, 2·0	Keljhar; 2·0	Keljhar; 2·0; Fri.	Mahadwadi; 2·0	W;rv.	tl.
Marāḷ Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—मराळ मेंढा	NW; 4·0	1·1; 394; 81; 230	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Maramā—Gdc.—मरमा ..	NE; 44·0	0·6; 58; 12; 35	Malevada; 8·0	Wadsa; 45·0	Malevada; 9·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 45·0	W.	..
Maramapallī—Srn.—मरमपल्ली ..	NE; 43·0	5·0; 213; 43; 139	12·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	.. 12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Maranelī—Srn.—मरनेली ..	N; 48·0	0·1; 54; 11; 25	Rajaram; 3·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 11·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W;n.	..
Marapallī—Srn.—मरपल्ली ..	N; 80·0	0·7; 127; 29; 79	Yetapalli; 1·6	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 1·6	W.	Sl (pr).
Marapallī—Srn.—मरपल्ली ..	N; 30·0	1·1; 245; 54; 147	Kamalapur; 5·0	Balharshah; 115·0	Bamani; 15·0; Sun.	Umanur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Mārḍā—Raj.—मार्डा ..	N; 14·0	1·7; 713; 138; 352	Charli; 3·0	Chanda; 7·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Nandgaon; 4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Mārḍā—War.—मार्डा ..	W; ..	3·3; 646; 98; 351	Warora; ..	Warora; ..	Warora; .. Sun.	Warora; ..	n.	Gopal Kala Fr. Ct. Vad. 4; tl.
Mardahur—Srn.—मर्दहुर ..	NE; ..	8·0; 21; 6; 9	Kandoli; 17·0	Balharshah; 173 0	Allapalli; 37·0; Sun.	.. 44·0	n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Meḍāram Mālagujārī—Srn.—मेडारम मालगुजारी.	E; 2·0	0·3; 340; 69; 176	Sironcha; 2·0	Manchariyal; 40·0	Sironcha; 2·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 0·7	W.	Sl (pr).
Meḍāram Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—मेडारम रैय्यतवारी.	N; 19·0	0·4; 61; 10; 37	Tekda (Talla); 5·0	Balharshah; 111·0	Vyankatapur; 10·0; Sun.	Rompalli; 2·0	n.	..
Meḍharī—Srn.—मेढरी ..	N; 120·0	0·1; 31; 7; 18	Jaravandi; 12·0	.. 115·0	Gadhchiroli; 50·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 50·0	W.	..
Meḍharī—Srn.—मेढरी ..	NE; 150·0	18·1; 337; 52; 130	Ghotsur; 14·0	Balharshah; 150·0	Irpanar; 12·0; ..	Yetapalli; 40·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Mehā Bk.—Bhm.—मेहा बु. ..	S; 30·0	1·7; 652; 124; 339	Antargaon; 1·0	Rajoli; 14·0	Pathari; 5·0; Fri.	Vyahad; 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl.
Mehā Kh.—Bhm.—मेहा खु. ..	S; 34·0	0·7; 117; 24; 56	Palebarsa; 2·0	Sindevahi; 24·0	Pathari; 8·0; Fri.	Vyahad; 12·0	W.	tl; dg.
Mehandī—Raj.—मेहंदी ..	W; 38·0	0·8; 60; 14; 34	Korpana; 8·0	Manikgad; 40·0	Korpana; 8·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Meṇḍakī—Bhm.—मेंडकी ..	S; 11·0	2·2; 2262; 422; 1047	Local; ..	Balapur; 7·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); pyt; 2 Cs; 3 tl; dg; lib; dp (vet).
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	N; 31·0	0·9; 105; 2; 59	Wairagad; 3·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Wairagad; 2·0; Thu.	Armori; 10·0	rv;t.	Cs; tl; ch.
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	NE; 67·0	2·4; 110; 19; 70	Sonsari; 1·0	Wadsa; 9·0	Sonsari; 1·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 9·0	n.	ch.
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	NE; 36·0	0·6; 139; 24; 83	Bhakrandi; 1·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Bhakrandi; 1·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;n;t.	Cs; tl.
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	E; 18·0	7·5; 191; 31; 118	Dhanora; 3·0	Mul; 43·0	Dhanora; 3·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 3·0	W.	..
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	NE; 39·0	1·1; 200; 43; 146	Angara; 3·0	Wadsa; 34·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 20·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा ..	E; 5·0	1·7; 618; 134; 390	Badlitukum; 1·0	Mul; 32·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Meṇḍhā—War.—मेंढा ..	NE; 34·0	1·2; 9; 1; 4	Chimur; 1·0	Warora; 34·0	Chimur; 1·0; Fri.	Chimur; ..	n.	..
Meṇḍhā Cāragāṅv—Bhm.—मेंढा चारगांव. ..	SW; 12·0	0·7; 232; 39; 121	Savargaon; 1·0	Balapur; 6·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Meṇḍhādhākalī Uśarāḷā—Bhm.—मेंढाधाकली उशराळा.	SW; 20·0	3·7; 1177; 267; 709	Vadhona; 1·0	Alevahi; 4·0	Vadhona; 1·0; Sun.	Talodhi; 4·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2 dg.
Meṇḍhā Mālagujārī—Bhm.—मेंढा मालगुजारी.	SW; 32·0	1·3; 497; 104; 267	Sindevahi; 1·0	Sindevahi; 1·0	Sindevahi; 1·0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Meṇḍhāṭolā—Gdc.—मेंढाटोला ..	E; 15·0	1·9; 262; 60; 126	Local; ..	Mul; 38·0	Local; .. Wed.	Chatgaon; 4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; tl; ch; lib; dp (vet).
Meṇger—Srn.—मेंगेर ..	N; 95·0	3·6; 57; 9; 23	Yetapalli; 15·0	Balharshah; 8·0	Allapalli; 33·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 33·0	t.	..
Mesā—War.—मेसा ..	NE; 10·0	2·2; 472; 98; 234	Shegaon Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 10·0	Shegaon Bk.; 2·0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2 dg.
Meṭegāṅv—Chd.—मेटेगांव ..	NE; ..	0·5; 40; 6; 25	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Meṭejāṅgadā—Gdc.—मेटेजांगदा ..	NE; 31·0	2·4; 84; 17; 60	Mohali; 4·0	Wadsa; 30·0	Rangi; 7·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 8·0	W;t.	..
Meṭepār—War.—मेटेपार ..	NE; 42·0	1·8; 821; 153; 430	Doma; 2·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Jambhulghat; 2·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl;
Meṭṭū Guḍam—Srn.—मेट्टू गुडम ..	NE; 31·0	1·4; 162; 35; 116	Aheri; 46·0	Balharshah; 108·0	Aheri; 47·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 17·0	W;rv.	..
Mhātāradevī—Chd.—म्हातारदेवी ..	W; 13·0	1·7; 559; 108; 234	Ghugus; 2·0	Ghugus; 2·0	Ghugus; 2·0; Sun.	Tadali; 6·0	W;w; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Mhasāḷ—War.—म्हसाळ ..	N; 12·0	1·4; 250; 63; 143	Chikani; 2·0	Nagri; 5·0	Chikani; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mhasāḷā Tukūm—Chd.—म्हसाळा तुकूम.	N; 8·0	0·4; 308; 60; 163	Paili Bhatali; 3·0	Chanda; 8·0	Chanda; 8·0; Wed.	Chanda; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mhasalī—Bhm.—म्हसली ..	W; 13·0	0·8; 432; 74; 243	Vilam; 1·0	Nagbhid; 5·0	Paharani; 2·0; Mon.	Bhikeshwar; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Mhasoḷī—War.—म्हसळी ..	NE; 40·0	2·5; 614; 133; 413	Local; ..	Kanpa; 25·0	Neri; 1·0; Wed.	Neri; 4·0	W.	3 Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Micagāṅv—Gdc.—मिचगांव ..	SE; 13·0	0·2; 139; 127; 289	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	pyt; Cs.

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Mardakuhī—Srn.—मर्दकुही ..	NE; 150·0	1·7; 112; 19; 51	Ghotsur; 20 0	Balharshah; 155 0	Irpanar; 200; ..	Yetapalli; 45·0	W.	ch.
Maregāṅv—Gdc.—मरेगांव ..	N; 14·0	1·6; 615; 118; 403	Gilgaon; 4·0	Wadsa; 28·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Maregāṅv Tukūm—Bhm.—मरेगांव तुकूम.	SW; 32·0	0·5; 100; 26; 52	Rajoli; 8·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Sindevahi; 10·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 10·0	t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Marhegāṅv—Chd.—मऱ्हेगांव ..	NE; 30·0	1·5; 336 68; 177	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Markal (Surveyed)—Srn.—मर्कल (सर्व्हे).	.. ..	4·0; 277; 54; 175	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Mārkaṇḍā Dev—Gdc.—मार्कंडा देव ..	SW; ..	1·8; 476; 103; 285	Bhendala; ..	Mul; ..	Bhendala; .. Mon.	Mul; ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivratri Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl.
Māroḍā—Chd.—मारोडा ..	NE; 31·0	11·0; 2244; 514; 1123	Local; ..	Mul; 4·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	w;t.	..
Māroḍā—Gdc.—मारोडा ..	S; ..	1·0; 287; 59; 186	.. ..	.. ..	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;rv; w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Somnath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; ch; lib.
Māroḍā—Gdc.—मारोडा ..	S; 12·0	8·9; 350; 78; 176	Gurwala; 5·0	Mul; 36·0	Gurwala; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Somnath Fr. Vsk; tl.
Māsaḷ Bk.—War.—मासळ बु. ..	NE; 39·0	2·4; 1242; 258; 540	Local; ..	Warora; 39·0	Local; .. Mon.	Chimur; 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 4 tl.
Māsaḷ Tukūm—War.—मासळ तुकूम	NE; 32·0	1·8; 335; 64; 201	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 37·0	Chimur; 4·0; Fri.	Chimur; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māsaḷ Tukūm—War.—मासळ तुकूम	NE; 38·0	0·5; 717; 155; 424	Talodhi; 1·0	Warora; 38·0	Masal Bk.; 1·0; Mon.	Chimur; 5·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Māsaḷ Visāpūr—War.—मासळ विसापूर.	E; 14·0	3·3; 504; 97; 303	Pirli; 3 0	Bhadravati; 12·0	Bhadravati; 12·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 11·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Masānadī—Gdc.—मसानदी ..	SE; 47·0	2·1; 165; 25; 98	Pendhari; 5·0	Mul; 68·0	Pendhari; 5·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 5·0	W;n.	..
Māsaragoṭā—Gdc.—मासरगोटा ..	NE; 19·0	2·3; 87; 17; 57	Rangi; 3·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Rangi; 3·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 11·0	W.	..
Maselī—Gdc.—मसेली ..	S; 5·0	2·0; 57; 13; 21	Gurwala; 2·0	Mul; 31·0	Gadhchiroli; 5·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W;rv.	..
Maselī—Gdc.—मसेली ..	NE; 84·0	6·2; 307; 56; 199	Belgaon; 12·0	Wadsa; 75·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Māthā—Raj.—माथा ..	W; 30·0	2·7; 829; 194; 475	Korpana; 3·0	Manikgad; 32·0	Vansadi; 4·0; Wed.	Rajura; 30·0	W.	Sl (m); Cs (c); tl.
Māthārā—Raj.—माथरा ..	W; 4·0	2·0; 247; 59; 155	Rajura; 4·0	Manikgad; 5·2	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	Rajura; 4·0	W.	..
Mauśi—Bhm.—मौसी ..	NW; 6·0	3·0; 1532; 319; 944	Local; ..	.. ..	Local; .. Sat.	Rajura; 4·0	W;n; t.	2 Sl (pr,m); 2 Cs; 3 tl.
Mauśī—Gdc.—मौशी ..	NE; 52·0	2·7; 158; 32; 99	Desaiganj; 20·0	Wadsa; 20·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 4·0	W.	..
Mauśī Khāmb—Gdc.—मौशी खांब	N; 14·0	2·3; 795; 160; 455	Local; ..	Wadsa; 28·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Meghnath Fr. Mrg. Vad. 3, 4; 3 tl.
Mayālaghāṭ—Gdc.—मयालघाट ..	NE; 70·0	0·2; 100; 20; 64	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; 41·0	Mseli; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Māyar—Bhm.—मायर ..	W; 4·0	0·5; 261; 60; 114	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Meḍādāpallī—Srn.—मेडदापल्ली ..	NE; 116·0	0·3; 144; 40; 104	Bhamaragad; 16·0	Balharshah; 122·0	Allapalli; 58·0; Sun.	Aheri; 60·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); ch.
Meḍapallī—Srn.—मेडपल्ली ..	.. ..	0·6; 69; 13; 40	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Meḍapallī—Srn.—मेडपल्ली ..	N; 70·0	3·9; 109; 22; 58	Aheri; 16·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 12·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Meḍāpallī—Srn.—मेडपल्ली ..	.. ..	2·2; 131; 35; 68	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..

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Micagāṅv Bk.—Gdc.—मिचगांव बु...	E; 18·4	0·3; 215; 46; 123	Gilgaon; 4·0	Mul; 43·6	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Dudhamara; 3·4	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Micagāṅv Kh.—Gdc.—मिचगांव खु.	E; 19·0	0·2; 132; 30; 71	Gilgaon; 3·6	Mul; 44·0	Gilgaon; 3·6; Fri.	Dudhamara; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Micaguḍā—Srn.—मिचगुडा ..	N; 20·0	0·1; 25; 5; 16	Perimili; 12·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	Perimili; 12·0	W;n.	ch.
Mīnagāṅv—Chd.—मीनगांव ..	N; 7·0	0·4; 175; 26; 90	Paili Bhatali; 1·0	Chanda; 7·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Chanda; 7·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Minagharī—Bhm.—मिनघरी ..	SW; 40·0	2·9; 997; 201; 523	Gadbori; 3·0	Sindevahi; 5·0	Sindevahi; 4·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Minajharī—War.—मिनझरी ..	NE; 37·1	0·6; 84; 18; 60	Ambeneri; 2·1	Kanpa; 17·7	Jambhulghat; 5·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 5·0	W.	..
Minajharī—War.—मिनझरी ..	NE; 32·0	0·6; 301; 60; 176	Khadsangi; 7·0	Warora; 32·0	Chimur; 8·0; Fri.	Khadsangi; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Miṇḍāḷā—Bhm.—मिंडाळा ..	SW; 12·0	2·8; 1286; 267; 677	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 6·0	Local; .. Sun.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	2 Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym; lib.
Minthūr—Bhm.—मिंथूर ..	W; 10·0	2·2; 1223; 241; 596	Navegaon Pandav; 0·1	Nagbhid; 4·0	Navegaon Pandav; 0·1; Tue.	Nagbhid; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 4 Cs; tl; cn.
Miragudavañcā—Srn.—मिरगुडवंचा	NE; 100·0	2·8; 171; 28; 111	Allapalli; 52·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 52·0; Sun.	Aheri; 56·0	rv;h.	..
Mirakal—Srn.—मिरकल ..	N; 66·0	0·3; 84; 19; 40	Aheri; 15·0	Balharshah; 77·0	Allapalli; 11·0; Sun.	.. 8·0	W.	..
Moḍaske Masāhat—Srn.—मोडस्के मसाहत. ..	NE; 105·0	0·1; 113; 16; 34	Yetapalli; 25·0	Balharshah; 91·0	Allapalli; 43·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 43·0	W;n.	..
Moḍebhaṭṭī—Gdc.—मोडेभट्टी ..	NE; 28·0	5·5; 204; 34; 138	Mohali; 4·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Dhanora; .. Wed.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Modumaḍagu—Srn.—मोदुमडगु ..	N; 48·0	0·1; 22; 3; 13	Kamalapur; 16·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	.. 18·0	W;n;t.	..
Modumaḍagu—Srn.—मोदुमडगु ..	N; 57·0	0·1; 59; 15; 35	Allapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 73·0	Allapalli; 1·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 1·0	W.	tl.
Modumaturrā—Srn.—मोदुमतुर्रा ..	N; 56·0	1·1; 198; 48; 120	Indaram; 1·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Aheri; 9·0; Sat.	Aheri; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Mohabāḷā—War.—मोहबाळा ..	SE; 13·0	1·7; 355; 70; 183	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 3·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Mohabāḷā—War.—मोहबाळा ..	N; 3·0	1·4; 490; 106; 233	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Warora; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg; ch
Mohagāṅv—Gdc.—मोहगांव ..	N; 70·0	0·9; 221; 51; 134	Kurkheda; 23·0	Desaiganj; 39·0	Korchi; 1·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Mohagāṅv—Gdc.—मोहगांव ..	E; 42·0	3·6; 256; 41; 148	Pendhari; 2·0	Mul; 67·0	Pendhari; 2·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; dg; ch;
Mohagāṅv—Gdc.—मोहगांव ..	N; 67·0	1·8; 286; 49; 180	Sonsari; 1·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Sonsari; 1·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Mohagāṅv—Gdc.—मोहगांव ..	N; 60·0	1·5; 352; 58; 199	Desaiganj; 18·0	Wadsa; 18·0	Kurkheda; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mohajharī—Gdc.—मोहझरी ..	N; 33·0	1·01; 602; 108; 337	Wairagad; 3·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Wairagad; 3·0; Thu.	Armori; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch.
Mohajharī Patch—Gdc.—मोहझरी पॅच.	N 7·0	0·1; 66; 12; 43	Porla; 1·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Porla; 1·0; Tue.	Porla; 1·0	W.	..
Mohāḷā Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—मोहाळा रैय्यतवारी.	.. ..	2·2; 413; 77; 271	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mohālī—Bhm.—मोहाळी ..	SW; 7·0	1·1; 1768; 352; 906	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 8·0	Sindevahi; 7·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 7·0	W;str	3 Sl (pr, m, h); pyt; Cs; tl.
Mohalī—Gdc.—मोहली ..	NE; 24·0	1·5; 792; 158; 362	Local; ..	Wadsa; 32·0	Rangi; 4·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 10·0	W;t.	2 Sl(pr, m); pyt; Cs; lib.
Mohālī Mokāsā—Bhm.—मोहाळी मोकासा.	NW; 18·0	2·1; 1080; 221; 605	Local; ..	Mangali; 1·6	Nagbhid; 6·0; Thu.	Local; ..	..	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; tl; ch; lib; dp.
Mohālī Tukūm—Chd.—मोहाळी तुकूम.	E; 14·0	0·4; 175; 29; 76	Chichpalli; 7·0	Chichpalli; 6·0	Chichpalli; 7·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;t; pl.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mohandī—Srn.—मोहंदी ..	NE; 113·0	1·1; 18; 4; 7	Yetapalli; 33·0	Balharshah; 99·0	Allapalli; 51·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 51·0	W;n.	..
Moharalī—Gdc.—मोहरली ..	.. ..	2·4; 723; 141; 364	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Moharalī—Srn.—मोहरली ..	N; ..	0·2; 97; 19; 50	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Moharlī—Gdc.—मोहर्ली ..	S; 60·0	0·5; 329; 56; 184	Lagam; 10·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Bori; 16·0; Wed.	Lagam; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Moharlī—War.—मोहर्ली ..	E; 40·0	3·1; 777; 163; 192	Local; ..	Chandrapur; 16·0	Bhamdeli; .. Tue;	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Mohoṭolā Urf Cak Kukaḍī—Gdc.—मोहोटोला उर्फ चक कुकडी	N; 22·0	1·6; 296; 51; 169	Wairagad; 4·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 4·0; Thu.	.. 8·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Mokelā—Srn.—मोकेला ..	N; 19·0	0·2; 21; 6; 13	Tekda (Talla); ½·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Vynakatapur; 4·0; ..	Kambalpeta; 4·0	W;rv.	..
Mokelā Masāhat—Srn.—मोकेला मसाहत.	N; 62·0	0·2; 65; 13; 43	Parimili; 6·0	Balharshah; 98·0	Allapalli; 36·0; Sun.	Perimili; 6·0	rv.	..
Mokhālā—Chd.—मोखाळा ..	NE; 42·0	1·9; 1385; 313; 773	Local; ..	Mul; 14·0	Vyahad Kh.; 2·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs (frm); tl; ch.
Mokhālā—War.—मोखाळा ..	NE; 39·0	1·2; 148; 30; 79	Neri; 1·0	Tempa; 23·0	Neri; 1·0; Wed.	Neri; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mokhālā—War.—मोखाळा ..	N; ..	1·9; 235; 43; 131	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Moracūl—Gdc.—मोरचूल ..	E; 47·0	1·5; 114; 20; 63	Yerkadmohad; 18·0	Mul; 65·0	Murumgaon; 10·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 10·0	W;t;n.	..
Moraḍapār—Srn.—मोरडपार ..	NE; 118·0	0·1; 58; 10; 36	Bhamaragad; 18·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 60·0; Sun.	Aheri; 62·0	n;rv.	ch.
Moradul—Gdc.—मोरदुल ..	E; 48·0	0·2; 44; 9; 26	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 68·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	n.	Cs.
Moravā—Chd.—मोरवा ..	NW; 6·0	4·0; 831; 167; 451	Tadali; 2·4	Padoli; 2·0	Tadali; 2·4; Thu.	Stage; 0·1	W;w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Moravāhī—Chd.—मोरवाही ..	NE; 31·0	1·0; 404; 86; 243	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Moravāhī—Srn.—मोरवाही ..	N; 132·0	1·9; 92; 16; 43	Jaravandi; 5·0	Balharshah; 122·0	Aheri; 66·0; Sat.	Aheri; 68·0	W;n.	tl.
Mosam—Srn.—मोसम ..	N; 50·0	1·4; 61; 17; 35	Devalmarri; 6·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 8·0; Sun.	Stage; ..	W;w.	Cs (gr).
Moṭegāṅv—War.—मोटेगांव ..	NE; 44·0	2·9; 1025; 212; 475	Kewada; 3·0	Sindevahi; 11·0	Local;	Neri; 6·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Motukapallī—Srn.—मोतुकपल्ली	N; 33·0	0·3; 47; 11; 23	Regunta; 13·0	.. ..	Bamani; 20·0; Sun.	.. ..	n.	..
Movāḍā—War.—मोवाडा ..	N; ..	1·0; 345; 72; 210	Tembhurda; ..	Dongargaon; ..	Tembhurda; .. Thu.	Tembhurda; ..	W.	..
Movelī Masāhat—Srn.—मोवेली मसाहत. ..	N; 112·0	0·1; 46; 11; 19	Yetapalli; 8·0	Balharshah; 108·0	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	Aheri; 32·0	W.	tl; ch.
Muḍajhā—Bhm.—मुडझा ..	S; 30·0	5·9; 2054; 420; 1133	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 20·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 5·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Muḍajhā Bk.—Gdc.—मुडझा बु. ..	S; 6·0	2·6; 929; 201; 501	Kaneri; 3·0	Mul; 19·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Kaneri; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Muḍajhā Tukūm—Gdc.—मुडझा तुकूम.	S; 6·0	0·4; 13; 5; 10	Kaneri; 3·0	Mul; 19·0	Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Kaneri; 2·0	W;t.	..
Muddukṛiṣṇāpūr—Srn.—मुद्दुकृष्णापूर	S; 5·0	0·3; 113; 21; 49	Janampalli; 2·0	Balharshah; 134·0	Sironcha; 5·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 5·0	W;rv.	..
Mudholī—Gdc.—मुधोली ..	S; ..	0·9; 261; 58; 184	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Mudholī—War.—मुधोली ..	E; 19·0	2·5; 1036; 226; 449	Local; ..	Warora; 19·0	Local; .. Wed.	Khatoda; 3·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.
Mudholī Rīṭh—Gdc.—मुधोली रीठ..	SW; 34·0	0·4; 644; 145; 357	Ganpur; 2·0	Mul; 18·0	Adyal; 5·0; Sat.	Ashti; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Mudholī Tukūm—Gdc.—मुधोली तुकूम.	SW; 35·0	0·6; 205; 42; 129	Ganpur; 3·0	Mul; 20·0	Adyal, 5·0; Sat.	Ashti; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Mūgāpūr—Srn.—मूगापूर ..	S; 7·0	1·6; 307; 70; 173	Janampalli; 5·0	Balharshah; 136·0	Sironcha; 5·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 5·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Mūī—Bhm.—मूई ..	SE; 12·0	1·3; 678; 136; 358	Gangalvadi; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 12·0	Gangalvadi; 1·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Mujūm Khaḍakī—Gdc.—मुजूम खडकी.	NE; 86·0	0·5; 78; 13; 54	Kurkheda; 35·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Betkathi; 2·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 35·0	W;rv. t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Mujyālagoṇḍī—Gdc.—मुज्यालगोंडी	NE; 31·0	4·0; 150; 41; 84	Yerkad; 2·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Dhanora; 9·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 7·0	W;t.	..
Mukaḍīguṭṭā Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—मुकडीगुट्टा रैय्यतवारी.	SE; 23·0	0·5; 100; 18; 68	Asaralli; 3·0	Balharshah; 145·0	Asaralli; 3·0; Fri.	Local;	W.	Sl (pr).
Mukhanapallī—Srn.—मुखनपल्ली ..	NE; 35·0	1·5; 98; 19; 60	Aheri; 45·0	Balharshah; 106·0	Aheri; 45·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 12·0	n.	..
Mūl—Chd.—मूल ..	NE; 28·0	4·0; 7469 1645; 2319	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	8 Sl (3 pr, 2 m, 2 h, clg); 4 Cs (sp, c, 2 mis); 6 tl; mq; dh; gym; lib; 2 dp; Cch.
Mulacarā—Gdc.—मुलचरा ..	S; 80·0	0·5; 455; 91; 210	Lagam; 14·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Local; .. Thu.	Ashti; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Mulotīpadīkasā—Gdc.—मुलोतीपदीकसा	NE 88·0	1·5 259 46 167	Kurkheda; 36·0	Wadsa; 52·0	Markekasa; 6·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 36·0	tl.	Sl (pr).
Muṇḍāḷā—Bhm.—मुंडाळा ..	S; 34·0	3·1; 683; 140; 406	Pathari; 2·0	Rajoli; 10·0	Pathari; 2·0; Fri.	Hirapur; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Muṇḍīpūr—Gdc.—मुंडीपूर ..	NE; 82·0	1·3; 27; 5; 17	Kurkheda; 33·0	Wadsa; 49·0	Betkathi; 2·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 33·0	rv;n.	..
Muṇganer—Gdc.—मुंगनेर ..	E; 32·0	2·1; 77; 14; 52	Dhanora; 11·0	Mul; 57·0	Dhanora; 11·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 11·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Muradagāṅv—War.—मुरदगांव ..	N; 16·0	2·1; 336; 69; 193	Nagri; 3·0	Nagri; 2·6	Nagri; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Muragāṅv—Gdc.—मुरगांव ..	SE; 39·0	2·0; 172; 34; 107	Pandhari; 8·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	Pendhari; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Murajhār—Gdc.—मुरझार ..	NE; 34·0	0·1 24; 4; 16	Murumgaon; 7·0	Wadsa; 33·0	Murumgaon; 8·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 6·0	n.	..
Murakhaḷā—Gdc.—मुरखळा ..	W; 4·0	1·5; 485; 106; 262	Kaneri; 2·0	Mul; 21·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Murakhāḷā—Gdc.—मुरखाळा ..	.. ..	2·4; 1405; 276; 847	Murakudi; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Murakuḍī—Gdc.—मुरकुडी ..	NE; 72·0	1·9; 51; 7; 25	Belgaon; 16·0	Wadsa; 45·0	Maseli; 16·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Muramāḍī—Chd.—मुरमाडी ..	NE; ..	1·2; 283; 67; 164	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Muramāḍī—Gdc.—मुरमाडी ..	NE; 38·0	1·8; 320; 63; 210	Malevada; 3·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 18·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Muramāḍī—Gdc.—मुरमाडी ..	E; 15·0	1·4; 611; 109; 341	Gilgaon; 1·0	Wadsa; 34·0	Gilgaon; 1·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 15·0	t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Dongardev; Fr. Ct.; tl.
Muramāḍī Koṭhā—Bhm.—मुरमाडी कोठा.	SW; 22·0	2·2; 629; 129; 355	Rajoli; 5·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0; Mon.	Local; 0·1	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Muramurī—Gdc.—मुरमुरी ..	S; 18·0	3·4; 576; 131; 323	Muranda; 4·0	Mul; 28·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 4·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Muraṇḍā—Gdc.—मुरांडा ..	S; 24·0	3·3; 201; 46; 119	Local; ..	Mul; 48·0	Talodhi Mokasa; .. Wed.	.. 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Muraṅgal—Srn.—मुरंगल ..	NE; 113·0	0·1; 49; 10; 29	Bhamaragad; 13·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Allapalli; 55·0; Sun.	Aheri; 59·0	n.	ch.
Murapār—Bhm.—मुरपार ..	S; 16·0	1·2; 176; 136; 117	Mendki; 4·0	Balapur; 10·0	Gangalvadi; 6·0; Sat.	Mendki; 5·0	W,t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Murapār—War.—मुरपार ..	NE; 30·0	1·2; 437; 100; 248	Khadsangi; 4·0	Warora; 30·0	Chimur; 10·0; Fri.	Khadsangi; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Murapār Gujar War.—मुरपार गुजर	E; 44·0	1·0; 61; 12; 44	Kevada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 11·0	Motegaon; 2·0; Sun.	Neri; 6·0	W.	..
Murapār Tukūm—Bhm.—मुरपार तुकूम.	SW; 36·0	0·5; 130; 33; 90	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Murasā—War.—मुरमा ..	S; 25·0	3·6; 898; 185; 446	Sakharvahi; 2·0	Ghugus; 2·0	Ghugus; 2·0; ..	Tadoli; 4·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl.
Muravāḍā—Srn.—मुरवाडा ..	NE; 160·0	0·1; 14; 3; 4	Ghotsur; 20·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 20·0; ..	Yetapalli; 45·0	W;n.	ch.
Mūrtī—Raj.—मूर्ती ..	SE; 5·5	5·5; 428; 85; 252	Vihirgaon; 2·0	Vihirgaon; 3·0	Virur; 6·0; Wed.	Virur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (fmg); 2tl.

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Murumabhusī—Srn.—मुरुमभुसी ..	NE; 94·0	0·1; 68; 11; 28	Allapalli; 52·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Allapalli; 52·0; Sun.	Aheri; 56·0	rv;n.	..
Murumabodī—Gdc.—मुरुमबोडी ..	E; 10·0	1·8; 88; 17; 60	Ambeshioni; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 10·0	W;t.	tl.
Murumagāṅv—Gdc.—मुरुमगांव ..	E; 37·0	1·9; 673; 129; 310	Yerkad; 7·4	Mul; 62·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; Mandai Fr. Ct.; tl; ch; dp (vet).
Musaramaguḍā—Srn.—मुसरमगुडा	N; 110·0	2·3; 119; 20; 58	Ghotsur; 7·0	Mul; 74·0	Gadhchiroli; 39·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 1·0	n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Muskā—Gdc.—मुस्का ..	NE; 35·0	2·8; 504; 91; 339	Angara; 4·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 7·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 20·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Mutanūr—Gdc.—मुतनूर ..	S; 28·0	0·05; 28; 7; 16	Muranda; 4·0	Mul; ..	Talodhi Mokasa; 12·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 12·0	W.	..
Muṭrā—Raj.—मुट्रा ..	W; 6·0	1·9; 419; 89; 228	Pandharpouni; 2·0	Chunala; 8·0	Rajura; 6·0; Sat.	Rajura; 6·0	n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Muttāpūr Mālagujāri—Srn.—मुत्तापूर मालगुजारी.	SE; 22·0	2·2; 81; 21; 49	Asaralli; 3·0	Balharshah; 145·0	Asaralli; 3·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 3·0	W;rv; n.	..
Muyāboināpeṭā—Srn.—मुयाबोइना-पेटा.	N 24·0	1·6; 641; 154; 290	Regunta; ..	Manchariyal; ..	.. .. ..	.. 18·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nācanagāṅv—Gdc.—नाचनगांव ..	S; ..	0·2; 55; 12; 32	Chamorshi; ..	Mul; ..	Chamorshi; .. Sat.	.. ..	W.	..
Nācan Bhaṭṭī—Bhm.—नाचन भट्टी..	SW; 32·0	1·2; 607; 126; 367	Rajoli; 14·0	Sindevahi; 6·0	Nawargaon; 2·6; Thu.	Nawargaon; 2·6	W;st.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3 tl; dg; ch; 3 lib.
Naḍakalī Urf Betakāṭhī—Gdc.— नडकली उर्फ बेतकाठी ..	NE; 84·0	0·1; 44; 8; 26	Malevada; 10·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Malevada; 10·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 34·0	n.	..
Naḍikuḍā—Srn.—नडिकुडा ..	SE; 15·0	1·0; 766; 178; 272	Ankisa; 2·0	.. 144·0	Ankisa; 2·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Nāgabhīḍ—Bhm.—नागभीड ..	W; 12·0	4·2; 6156; 1299; 1452	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W.	8 Sl (3 pr; 3 m; 2 h); pyt; Cs; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 7 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Nāgālā—Chd.—नागाळा ..	W; 6·0	1·7; 397; 73; 229	Shengaon; 4·0	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Nāgālā—Chd.—नागाळा ..	E; 18·0	2·2; 649; 129; 381	Keljhar; 2·0	Keljhar; 2·0	Keljhar; 2·0; Fri.	Mahadwadi; 1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nāgaloṇ—War.—नागलोण ..	S; 8·0	1·0; 285; 47; 161	Patala; ..	Majari; 3·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Patala; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāgapūr—Chd.—नागपूर ..	NE; 6·3	2·7; 618; 127; 358	Chanda; 6·3	Padoli; 2·0	Chanda; 6·3; Wed.	Morwa; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Nāgapūr—Gdc.—नागपूर ..	NE; 65·0	0·8; 151; 29; 93	Kurkheda; 45·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	W;rv, n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Nāgāpūr—Raj.—नागापूर ..	SW; 45·0	1·1; 4; 1; 2	.. ..	.. 30·0	Chandur; 12·0; Tue.	.. 10·0	n.	..
Nagaram—Srn.—नगरम ..	S; 3·0	3·2; 906; 188; 157	Sironcha; 3·0	Manchariyal; 36·0	Sironcha; 3·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Nāgaravāhī—Gdc.—नागरवाही ..	NE; 25·0	0·6; 227; 42; 141	Delanwadi; 0·4	Wadsa; 24·0	Delanwadi; 0·4; Sat.	Armori; 13·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nāgarī—War.—नागरी ..	NW; 13·0	4·5; 2786; 637; 880	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	Warora; 13·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); pyt; 2 Cs; 9 tl; 4 m; mq; 4 dg; lib; dp.
Nāgarī Navegāṅv—Gdc.— नागरी नवेगांव. ..	N; 7·0	2·7; 984; 204; 594	Porla; 1·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Porla; 1·0; Tue.	Porla; 1·0	W;t;	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Nāgepallī Masāhat—Srn.— नागेपल्ली मसाहत. ..	N; 57·0	0·3; 257; 59; 126	Allapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 65·0	Allapalli; 1·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nagrāḷā—Raj.—नग्राळा ..	SW; 23·0	2·9; 45; 9; 23	Chandur; 8·0	Manikgad; 23·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Chandur; 8·0	n.	..
Nāgulavāḍī—Srn.—नागुलवाडी ..	N; 115·0	0·2; 103; 17; 55	Yetapalli; 8·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Aheri; 34·0	rv.	(Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Naigunḍam—Srn.—नैगुंडम ..	N; 50·0	0·1; 38; 7; 20	Kamlapur; 12·0	Balharshah; 91·0	Kamalapur; 12·0; Sun.	Repanapalli; 14·0	n.	ch.
Nainaguḍā—Srn.—नैनगुडा ..	N; 114·0	0·2; 111; 15; 43	Ghotsur; 12·0	Mul; 66·0	Gadhchiroli; 36·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 6·0	W;n.	ch.
Nainapūr—Gdc.—नैनपूर ..	N; 32·0	4·5; 738; 114; 396	Desaiganj; 1·0	Desaiganj; 1·0	Desaiganj; 1·0; Sun.	Desaiganj; 0·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Nainer—Srn.—नैनेर ..	N; 40·0	0·2; 92; 14; 59	Kamlapur; 10·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Renpanpalli; 12·0	W.	..
Nakoḍā—Chd.—नकोडा ..	W; 19·0	1·4; 306; 70; 173	Ghugus; 1·0	Ghugus; 1·0	Ghugus; 1·0; Sun.	Chanda; 19·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nalaphaḍī—Raj.—नलफडी ..	SE; 14·0	5·2; 430; 88; 215	Virur; 4·0	Virur; 4·0	Virur; 4·0; Wed.	Virur; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāleśvar—Bhm.—नालेश्वर ..	SW; 7·4	1·9; 421; 81; 253	Mohali; 0·4	Sindevahi; 8·4	Sindevahi; 8·4; Mon.	Sindevahi; 7·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Naleshwar Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl.
Naleśvar—Chd.—नलेश्वर ..	E; 27·0	1·3; 613; 134; 368	Chiroli; 2·0	Totevahi; 3·0	Chiroli; 2·0; Mon.	..	6·0 W;rv; t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Maha-shivratra Fr.; 2tl; 2 gym.
Nallīkasā—Gdc.—नल्लीकसा ..	NE; 116·0	0·1; 12; 2; 8	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	n.	..
Nāndā—Raj.—नांदा ..	W; 18·0	5·4; 966; 233; 562	Local; ..	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāndagāṅv—Bhm.—नांदगांव ..	SW; 28·0	1·7; 1080; 233; 658	Girgaon; 2·0	Alevahi; 6·0	Nawargaon; 5·0; Thu.	Chikhalgaon; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Nāndagāṅv—Chd.—नांदगाव ..	.. ..	1·8; 256; 49; 130	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Nāndagāṅv—Chd.—नांदगांव ..	S; 6·0	2·5; 1061; 220; 412	Visapur; 2·0	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Nāndagāṅv—Chd.—नांदगांव ..	E; 44·0	2·8; 1537; 345; 632	Local; ..	Mul; 15·0	Local; .. Fri.	Mul; 15·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; ch
Nāndagāṅv—Raj.—नांदगांव ..	NW; 14·0	3·3; 792; 170; 484	Local; ..	Manikgad; 16·0	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch
Nāndagāṅv Heṭī—Chd.—नांदगांव हेटी. ..	.. ..	0·1; 139; 34; 82	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Nāndagāṅv Jāṇī—Bhm.—नांदगांव जाणी. ..	N; 6·0	3·4; 1305; 231; 774	Arher Navargaon; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Arher Navargaon; 2·0; Mon.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs; 2 tl; m.
Nāndarā—War.—नांदरा ..	W; ..	0·7; 86; 19; 49	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Nāndarā—War.—नांदरा ..	N; 16·0	0·5; 158; 32; 81	Sakhara Rajapur; 2·0	Warora; 16·0	Sakhara Rajapur; 2·0; Sun.	Chargaon Bk.; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nāndarā—War.—नांदरा ..	NE; 39·0	1·4; 403; 77; 261	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 39·0	Chimur; 6·0; Fri.	Chimur; 6·0	W;n.	3 Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nandavardhan—Chd.—नंदवर्धन ..	.. ..	3·1; 452; 91; 273	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Nāndeḍ—Bhm.—नांदेड ..	SW; 29·0	4·8; 738; 126; 436	Sonuli; 2·0	Talodhi; 13·0	Nawargaon; 5·0; Thu.	Nawargaon; 5·0	W;n, t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Nandigāṅv—Srn.—नंदिगांव ..	N; 47·0	0·01; 118; 23; 40	Rajaram; 6·0	Balharshah; 77·0	Allapalli; 11·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	Cs.
Nandigāṅv—Srn.—नंदिगांव ..	SE; 5·0	0·9; 205; 40; 120	Sironcha; 5·0	Balharshah; 124·0	Sironcha; 5·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nandorī Bk.—War.—नंदोरी बु. ..	S; 3·0	4·7; 1727; 369; 834	Local; ..	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	3 Sl (pr, 2 m); Cs; 2 tl.
Nānhī—Gdc.—नान्ही ..	N; 60·0	4·9; 831; 160; 462	Kurkheda; 2·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 2·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nānhorī—Bhm.—नान्होरी ..	N; 6·0	2·6; 2147; 377; 1187	Local; ..	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Nāraculī—Gdc.—नारचुळी ..	N; 30·0	4·5; 357; 65; 210	Rangi; 3·0	Desaiganj; 31·0	Rangi; 3·0; Mon.	.. 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Nāraguṇḍā—Srn.—नारगुंडा ..	NE; 105·0	0·2; 156; 25; 88	Allapalli; 55·0	Balharshah; 127·0	Allapalli; 55·0; Sun.	Aheri; 57·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Nārakasā—Gdc.—नारकसा ..	SE; 65·0	0·5; 38; 6; 25	Yerkad; 25·0	Wadsa; 70·0	Kotgul; 12·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	n.	..

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Nārāṇḍā—Raj.—नारांडा ..	W; 24·0	6·7; 1167; 227; 602	Antargaon Bk.; 5·0	Chandrapur; 24·0	Vansadi; 3·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;n.	4 Sl (pr, m, h, clg); pyt; 2 Cs (c); 2 tl; ch.
Nārapaṭhār—Raj.—नारपठार ..	SW; 34·0	0·2; 35; 7; 20	Korpana; 8·0	Rajura; 36·0	Korpana; 8·0; Fri.	Korpana; 8·0	n.	ch.
Narasinhapallī Patch—Srn.—नरसिंहपल्ली पॅच. ..	N; 24·0	0·6; 219; 44; 123	Regunta; 1·6	Manchariyal; 49·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	Bamani; 14·0	W.	tl.
Nārāyaṇapūr—Gdc.—नारायणपूर ..	S; ..	0·4; 6; 1; 3	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Naroṭī Mālagujārī—Gdc.—नरोटी मालगुजारी. ..	N; 18·0	3·04; 221; 43; 127	Waladha; 2·0	Desaiganj; 23·0	Wairagad; 7·0; Thu.	.. 13·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Nasirakhānapallī—Srn.—नसिरखानपल्ली. ..	S; 2·0	0·4; 35; 10; 22	Sironcha; 1·0	Chandrapur; 132·0	Sironcha; 1·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 1·0	W.	..
Navakhaḷā—Bhm.—नवखळा ..	W; 12·4	3·8; 1912; 359; 951	Nagbhid; 0·5	Nagbhid; 1·2	Nagbhid; 0·5; Thu.	Nagbhid; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Navaragāṅv—Bhm.—नवरगांव ..	SW; 32·0	5·7; 7131; 1493; 3162	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 7·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.	7 Sl (3 pr, 2 m, 2 h); 4 Cs; Rangpanchmi in March; 7 tl; mq; gym; 2 dp (vet).
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	N; 32·0	0·2; 48; 11; 28	Armori; 6·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 6·0; Fri.	Armori; 6·0	W.	tl.
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	NE; 21·0	5·1; 136; 31; 111	Dhanora; 4·0	Mul; 46·0	Dhanora; 4·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	NE; 71·0	1·3; 146; 31; 88	Kurkheda; 25·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Korchi; 1·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	NE; 75·0	1·0; 231; 40; 137	Armori; 9·0	Wadsa; 35·0	Kurkheda; 15·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	N; 59·0	0·8; 252; 41; 149	Kurkheda; 4·0	Wadsa; 12·0	Kurkheda; 4·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Navaragāṅv—Gdc.—नवरगांव ..	S; 14·0	0·7; 326; 65; 192	Gilgaon; 1·0	Mul; 38·0	Tolodhi Mokasa; 6·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	..
Navaragāṅv Urf Rāmaṭolā—Gdc.—नवरगांव उर्फ रामटोला.	NE; 78·0	1·7; 58; 12; 44	Sonsari; 6·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Sonsari; 6·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 16·0	W.	ch.
Navataḷā—War.—नवतळा ..	NE; 44·0	2·0; 1328; 289; 776	Local; ..	Kanpa; 20·0	Jambhulghat; 4·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Navataḷā Tukūm—Gdc.—नवताळा तुकूम. ..	S; 15·0	0·9; 165; 33; 97	Kunghada; 2·0	Mul; 26·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 3·0; Wed.	Ghot; 12·0	W;t.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Bhm.—नवेगांव ..	S; 13·0	1·1; 223; 49; 123	Mendki; 3·0	Balapur; ..	Mendki; 3·0; Tue.	Mendki; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Navegāṅv—Chd.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	1·1; 198; 36; 106	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Navegāṅv—Gdc.—नवेगांव ..	E; 11·0	0·8; 15; 3; 9	Gadhchiroli; 11·0	Mul; 34·0	Karwafa; 2·0; Tue.	Chatgaon; 8·0	W;n.	..
Navegāṅv—Gdc.—नवेगांव ..	N; 7·0	0·5; 167; 37; 104	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Navegāṅv—Gdc.—नवेगांव ..	S; 3·0	3·2; 478; 92; 258	Kaneri; 3·0	Mul; 20·0	Gadhchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Navegāṅv—Gdc.—नवेगांव ..	SW; 18·0	1·6; 515; 98; 276	Bhendala; 1·6	Mul; 12·0	Bhendala; 1·6; Mon.	Mul; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Navegāṅv—Raj.—नवेगांव ..	SE; 17·0	1·1; 12; 6; 9	Virur; 3·0	Virur; 3·0	Virur; 3·0; Wed.	Virur; 3·0	W.	..
Navegāṅv—Raj.—नवेगांव ..	SW; 25·0	0·3; 56; 9; 29	Devada; 6·0	Manikgad; 25·0	Bhedoda; 8·0; Fri.	Devada; 8·0	W.	..
Navegāṅv—Raj.—नवेगांव ..	W; 18·0	9·2; 185; 38; 115	Pelora; 4·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Chanda; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Navegāṅv—Srn.—नवेगांव ..	N; 109·0	0·1; 19; 4; 11	Ghotsur; 18·0	Mul; 64·0	Gadhchiroli; 32·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 12·0	n.	..
Navegāṅv—War.—नवेगांव ..	NE; 53·0	1·7; 18; 3; 8	Bhisi; ..	Kanpa; 10·0	Bhisi; .. Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	n.	tl.

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Navegāṅv Bhujalā—Chd.—नवेगांव भुजला ..	E; 43·0	2·2; 1237; 247; 650	Bembal; 2·0	Mul; 16·0	Nandgaon; 1·6; Fri.	Mul; 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); ch.
Navegāṅv Huṇḍeśvarī—Bhm.—नवेगांव हुंडेश्वरी ..	SW; 12·0	1·3; 381; 73; 218	Mindala; 4·0	Nagbhid; 8·0	Nagbhid; 8·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 8·0	t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Navegāṅv Maktā—Bhm.—नवेगांव मक्ता.	E; 1·0	0·4; 371; 71; 189	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;n.	tl.
Navegāṅv More—Chd.—नवेगांव मोरे ..	.. ..	2·7; 975; 191; 535	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;pl.	..
Navegāṅv Pāṇḍav—Bhm.—नवेगांव पांडव.	W; 10·0	0·8; 1186; 226; 565	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 2·0	Local; .. Tue.	Nagbhid; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, h); 4 Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Navegāṅv Peṭh—War.—नवेगांव पेठ..	NE; 40·0	2·1; 566; 118; 320	Pimpalneri; 0·2	17·0	Chimur; .. Fri.	Chimur; 3·6	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Navegāṅv Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—नवेगांव रैय्यतवारी.	.. ..	2·8; 227; 47; 135	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Navegāṅv Raiyyatavārī—Gdc.—नवेगांव रैय्यतवारी.	S; ..	1·0; 1288; 250; 756	Kunghada; 2·0	Mul; 27·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 3·0; Wed.	Stage; ..	W;str	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dg; ch.
Navegāṅv Tukūm—Bhm.—नवेगांव तुकूम.	S; 24·0	1·4; 382; 83; 211	Nimgaon; 3·0	Mul; 20·0	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Navejharī—Gdc.—नवेझरी ..	NE; 190·0	0·9; 137; 30; 87	Belgaon; 13·0	Wadsa; 72·0	Maseli; 9·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Nāvejharī—Gdc.—नावेझरी ..	NE; 40·0	1·3; 293; 48; 175	Angara; 2·0	Desaiganj; 35·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Yerkadmohad; 12·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Nāyadev—War.—नायदेव ..	N; 5·0	1·5; 153; 31; 90	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0; Sun.	Warora; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Nehākāḷ—Gdc.—नेहाकाळ ..	SE; 70·0	0·2; 24; 4; 14	Yerkad; 25·0	Wadsa; 70·0	Kotgul; 6·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 22·0	n.	Tipakal Guru Fr. Ct.; tl.
Neharapāyalī—Gdc.—नेहरपायली	NE; 69·0	0·8; 101; 20; 58	Armori; 11·0	Wadsa; 27·0	Kurkheda; 11·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 11·0	W.	ch.
Nelaguṇḍā Masāhat—Srn.—नेलगुंडा मसाहत.	NE; 114·0	0·5; 305; 53; 161	Bhamaragad; 14·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 56·0; Sun.	Aheri; 60·0	W;rv, n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Nemaḍā—Srn.—नेमडा ..	N; 18·0	0·7; 126; 29; 72	Tekda (Talla); 1·0	..	.. .. ..	.. 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Nendavāḍī Masāhat—Srn.—नेंदवाडी मसाहत.	NE; 115·0	0·1; 74; 12; 21	Ghotsur; 16·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Vyankatapur; 4·0; Sun.	Yetapalli; 40·0	W;n.	ch.
Nendar—Srn.—नेंदर ..	NE; 100·0	0·1; 98; 18; 27	Yetapalli; 20·0	Balharshah; 150·0	Irpanar; 14·0; ..	..	..	..
Nerī—Chd.—नेरी ..	N; 4·0	0·7; 298; 61; 160	Durgapur; 2·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 38·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 38·0	W;w.	..
Nerī—War.—नेरी ..	NE; 38·0	3·1; 5083; 1081; 2003	Local; ..	Chanda; 4·0	Chanda; 4·0; Wed.	Chanda; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nilaj—Bhm.—निलज ..	SE; 8·4	1·3; 945; 136; 564	Gangalvadi; 3·0	Warora; 38·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;rv, t.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 3 Cs; 5 tl; lib; dp.
Nilajaī—War.—निलजई ..	.. ..	3·7; 858; 172; 454	.. ..	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Gangalwadi; 3·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nilasanī Peṭhagāṅv—Chd.—निलसनी पेठगाँव.	E; 52·0	1·7; 1107; 201; 602	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Nimaḍhelā—War.—निमढेला ..	.. ..	0·9; 191; 45; 116	.. ..	Mul; 24·0	Vyahad Kh; 8·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Nimagāṅv—Bhm.—निमगांव ..	S; 36·0	2·3; 1856; 397; 1046	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Nimagāṅv—Gdc.—निमगांव ..	NE; 32·0	1·5; 160; 38; 113	Bhakrandi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 25·0	Vyahad; 6·0; Mon.	Vyahad; 6·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Nimagāṅv—Gdc.—निमगांव ..	NE; 31·0	1·5; 603; 128; 360	Rangi; 2·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Bhakrandi; 3·0; Tue.	Dhanora; 16·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Nimanī—Raj.—निमनी ..	W; 10·0	2·6; 491; 115; 286	Bakhardi; 2·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Rangi; 2·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 19·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
				Manikgad; 12·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

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Nimasaḍā—War.—निमसडा ..	N; 5·0	2·4; 455; 103; 236	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0; Sun.	Warora; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Nimbāḷā—Chd.—निंबाळा ..	NE; 14·0	0·8; 373; 79; 229	Chanda; 14·0	Chanda; 14·0	Chanda; 14·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nimbāḷā—Raj.—निंबाळा ..	W; 9·0	1·3; 167; 38; 94	Rajura; 18·0	Manikgad; 11·0	Rajura; 9·0; Sat.	Rajura; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Niphandrā—Bhm.—निफंद्रा ..	S; 30·0	3·3; 1365; 252; 784	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 18·0	Gadhchiroli; 3·0; Sun.	Vyahad; 8·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib; dp (vet).
Nirlī—Raj.—निर्ली ..	N; 12·0	2·4; 241; 54; 144	Charli; 1·0	Chandrapur; 12·0	Chandrapur; 12·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nokārī—Raj.—नोकारी ..	W; 16·0	1·9; 299; 62; 190	Nanda; 2·0	Manikgad; 18·0	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Chandur; 2·0	W;n	Sl (pr); tl.
Nokārī Bk.—Raj.—नोकारी बु. ..	W; 21·0	0·6; 52; 10; 27	Chandur; 6·0	Manikgad; 21·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandur; 6·0	n.	..
Nokārī Kh.—Raj.—नोकारी खु. ..	SW; 16·0	2·1; 272; 52; 153	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 16·2	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	Chandur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Nokevāḍā—Raj.—नोकेवाडा ..	SW; 40·0	1·6; 193; 30; 111	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Nunhārā Raiyyatavārī—War.—नुन्हारा रैय्यतवारी	SE; ..	1·6; 252; 46; 158	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Ovāḷā—Bhm.—ओवाळा ..	SW; 22·0	1·0; 777; 170; 477	Nagbhid; 10·0	Talodhi; 7·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Palasgaon; 0·7	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pācagāṅv—Bhm.—पाचगांव ..	SE; 9·0	1·3; 494; 93; 304	Gangalvadi; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 9·0	Gangalvadi; 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pācagāṅv—Chd.—पाचगांव ..	.. ..	5·4; 63; 14; 10	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Pācagāṅv—Raj.—पाचगांव ..	S; 10·0	2·1; 1117; 232; 614	Pandharpouni; 2·0	Manikgad; 12·0	Rajura; 10·0; Sat.	Varur; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; dh; ch.
Pācagāṅv—War.—पाचगांव ..	NE; 52·0	1·3; 147; 31; 79	Shankarpur; 3·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 2·0	W.	tl.
Pācagāṅv—War.—पाचगांव ..	N; 20·0	1·8; 527; 102; 195	.. ..	Warora; ..	.. 2·0; ..	..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pācagāṅv Musalamān—War.—पाचगांव मुसलमान.	.. ..	0·8; 524; 99; 254	Chora; ..	Bhadravati; ..	Sawarla .. Sat. Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon;	Bhadravati; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Padabɔriyā—Gdc.—पदबोरिया ..	E; 40·0	0·1; 61; 10; 33	Dhanora; 10·0	Mul; 62·0	Dhanora; 10·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 10·0	W;n.	..
Padamāpūr—Chd.—पदमापूर ..	N; 6·0	3·5; 787; 156; 413	Paili Bhata'i; 2·0	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Paḍatamapallī—Srn.—पडतमपल्ली ..	E; 105·0	4·2; 75; 17; 54	Bhamaragad; ..	Balhərshah; 107·0	Allapalli; 45·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.	..
Pāḍhūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—पाढूर (सर्व्हेड).	.. ..	0·7; 52; 9; 36	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Paḍiyāl Job—Gdc.—पडियाल जोब ..	NE; 78·0	6·0; 51; 6; 32	Belgaon; 16·0	Wadsa; 45·0	Maseli; 7·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Padmāpūr Tukūm—Bhm.—पद्मापूर तुकूम.	S; 23·0	1·2; 298; 62; 201	Pathari; 17·0	Alevahi; 13·0	Mudza; 5·0; Mon.	.. 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Paḍolī—Chd.—पडोली ..	N; 4·0	1·3; 564; 117; 314	Chanda; 4·0	Local; ..	Chanda; 4·0; Wed.	Morwa; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Pāhāraṇī—Bhm.—पाहारणी ..	NW; 8·0	8·0; 1034; 217; 416	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 6·0	Local; .. Mon.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Paiḍī—Srn.—पैडी ..	NW; 112·0	0·2; 65; 12; 41	Ghotsur; 18·0	Mul; 62·0	Gadhchiroli; 30·0; Sun.	Kasanscur; 14·0	W.	ch.
Paimā (Surveyed)—Srn.—पैमा (सर्व्हेड).	N; 40·0	3·3; 215; 37; 135	Allapalli; 10·0	Balharshah; 99·0	Allapalli; .. Sun.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Pālagāṅv—Raj.—पालगांव ..	W; 15·0	2·0; 140; 34; 82	Bakhardi; 3·0	Manikgad; 17·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Chandur; 8·0	W.	tl; ch.
Pālakheḍā—Gdc.—पालखेडा ..	E; 14·0	1·2; 126; 27; 73	Mendhatola; 1·0	Mul; 38·0	Mendhatola; 1·0; Wed.	Chatgaon; 4·0	W;t.	tl; ch.
Pālāpūṇḍī—Gdc.—पालापूंडी ..	NE; 74·0	2·0; 119; 20; 69	Malevada; 3·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Malevada; 3·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;n.	..
Paḷasagaḍ—Gdc.—पळसगड ..	NE; 54·0	3·1; 265; 56; 168	Kurkheda; 6·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs; tl; dg.
Paḷasagāṅv—Chd.—पळसगांव ..	SE; 20·0	3·6; 1297; 250; 727	Kothari; 2·0	Balharshah; 10·0	Kothari; 2·0; Mon.	Kothari; 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; lib.

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Paḷasagāṅv—Gdc.—पळसगांव ..	E; 48·0	0·3; 44; 7; 23	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 70·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	n.	..
Paḷasagāṅv—Gdc.—पळसगांव ..	NE; 39·0	0·6; 74; 13; 54	Angara; 3·0	Desaiganj; 33·0	Malevada; 8·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 15·0	W;n.	..
Paḷasagāṅv—Gdc.—पळसगांव ..	N; 29·0	2·0; 143; 31; 95	Sonsari; 3·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Khadholi; 4·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 9·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Paḷasagāṅv—Gdc.—पळसगांव ..	N; 34·0	3·2; 512; 111; 270	Armori; 6·0	Desaiganj; 12·0	Armori; 6·0; Fri.	Armori; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Paḷasagāṅv—War.—पळसगांव ..	E; 26·0	0·6; 154; 36; 88	Moharli; 6·0	Warora; 24·0	Mudholi; 5·0; Wed.	Kharoda; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Paḷasagāṅv—War.—पळसगांव ..	S; 6·0	1·7; 360; 76; 189	Majari; 1·0	Majari; 1·0	Majari; 2·0; Sun.	Sembal; 2·0	W;tv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Paḷasagāṅv—War.—पळसगांव ..	E; 47·0	3·5; 1014; 222; 600	Local; ..	Warora; 47·0	Local; .. Fri.	Neri; 8·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr,m); tl.
Paḷasagāṅv Jāṭ—Bhm.—पळसगांव जाट	SW; 30·0	4·1; 3074; 600; 1467	Local; ..	Alevahi; 4·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;t;n.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; 3 dg; lib.
Paḷasagāṅv Kh.—Bhm.—पळसगांव खु.	SW; 21·0	1·2; 885; 194; 532	Nagbhid; 9·0	Talodhi; 5·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 0·5	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs (c,mis); 3 tl.
Pālebārasā—Bhm.—पालेबारसा ..	S; 28·0	1·4; 623; 141; 281	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 20·0	Mudza; 7·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 20·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.
Pālejharī—Raj.—पालेझरी ..	SW; 25·0	2·0; 99; 22; 55	Chandur; 10·0	Virur; 25·0	Chandur; 15·0; Tue.	Chandur; 15·0	W;n.	ch.
Pālejharī—Raj.—पालेझरी ..	W; 22·0	0·5; 109; 24; 77	Antargaon Bk.; ..	Chandrapur; ..	Vansadi; .. Wed.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Palle—Srn.—पल्ले ..	N; 56·0	7·5; 173; 43; 118	Perimili; 6 0	Balharshah; 92·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	Perimili; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Pallī—Srn.—पल्ली ..	NE; 85·0	3·6; 225; 52; 134	Bhamaragad; 17·0	Balharshah; 155·0	Allapalli; 33·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 33·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pālorā—Gdc.—पालोरा ..	N; 21·6	2·2; 121; 26; 69	Armori; 0·6	Desaiganj; 13·0	Armori; 0·6; Fri.	Armori; 0·6	W;t.	tl.
Pāmajīguḍā—Srn.—पामजीगुडा ..	NE; 102·0	3·0; 24; 4; 8	Yetapalli; 22 0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 40·0	rv;n.	..
Pānavaḍāḷā—War.—पानवडाळा ..	E; 6·0	1·9; 474; 99; 277	Dongargaon; 2·0	Warora; 8·0	Bhadravati; 6·0; Wed.	Warora; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Pañcāḷā—Raj.—पंचाळा ..	E; 7·0	2·2; 528; 90; 308	Vihirgaon; 3 0	Vihirgaon; 3·0	Rajura; 7·0; Sat.	Chunala; 5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Pandevāhī Masāhat—Srn.—पंदेवाही मसाहत.	N; 71·0	0·1; 34; 4; 15	Yetapalli; 4 0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 18·0	W;n.	tl; ch.
Pandevāhī (Surveyed)—पंदेवाही (सर्व्हेड).	N; ..	1·9; 385; 72; 201	Yetapalli; 10 0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 18·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Pāṇḍharagoṭā—Gdc.—पांढरगोटा ..	NE; 75·0	1·1; 97; 20; 64	Kurkheda; 26·0	Desaiganj; 42·0	Korchi; 2·0; Thu.	Korchi; ..	W;n.	..
Pāṇḍharakavaḍā—Chd.—पांढरकवडा	W; 12·0	2·4; 725; 149; 306	Shengaon; 1·0	Ghugus; 3·0	Ghugus; 3·0; Sun.	Chanda; 12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
Pāṇḍharapāṇī—Gdc.—पांढरपाणी ..	NE; 75·0	0·3; 53; 10; 34	Kurkheda; 26 0	Desaiganj, 42·0	Korchi 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Pāṇḍharapaunī—Raj.—पांढरपौनी ..	SW; 7·0	2·2; 634; 133; 370	Local; ..	Manikgad; 9·0	Rajura; 7·0; Sat.	Rajura; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; dp.
Pāṇḍharasāḍā—Gdc.—पांढरसाडा ..	E; 12·0	1·3; 108; 23; 64	Chatgaon; 2·0	Mul; 36·0	Gilgaon; .. Fri.	Chatgaon; 2·0	W;t.	ch.
Pāṇḍharasārad—Bhm.—पांढरसारड ..	S; 38·0	0·2; 192; 38; 98	Bothali; 2 0	Rajoli; 11·0	Chanda; 4·0; Thu.	Hirapur; 3·0	W;rv;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pāṇḍharataḷā—War.—पांढरतळा ..	N; ..	1·7; 142; 27; 59	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Pāṇḍharavāṇī—Bhm.—पांढरवाणी ..	SW; 42·0	0·4; 73; 19; 19	Shioni; 4·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Shioni; 4·0; Tue.	Sindevahi; 10·0	t.	Sl (pr).
Pāṇḍharavānī—Raj.—पांढरवानी ..	S; ..	2·9; 67; 14; 34	Devada; ..	Manikgad; 30·0	Yergavan; 4·0; Tue.	.. 7·0	W.	ch.
Pāṇḍharavānī—Raj.—पांढरवानी ..	SW; 40·0	0·4; 81; 19; 42	Chandur; 10·0	Rajura; 42·0	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	Chandur; 10·0	W;n.	..
Pāṇḍharavānī—War.—पांढरवानी ..	NE; 40·0	1·2; 188; 39; 120	Neri; 1·0	Kampa; 22·0	Neri; 1·0; Wed.	Neri; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl; ch.
Pāṇḍharī Bhaṭāḷ—Gdc.—पांढरी भटाळ	S; 22·0	0·05; 39; 10; 26	Muranda; 4 0	Mul; 32·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 6·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 8·0	W;t.	..
Pāñjarepār—Bhm.—पांजरेपार ..	W; 8·0	0·8; 485; 90; 235	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·6	Nagbhid; 6·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·6; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·6	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl; ch; lib.

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Pāñjarepār—War.—पांजरेपार ..	NE; 43·0	1·7; 482; 91; 284	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0	Kanpa; 2·0; Sun.	2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 4 tl; gym; lib.
Pāñjhurṇī—War.—पांझुर्णी ..	W; 6·0	4·5; 759; 178; 449	Local; ..	Warora; 7·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·4	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Pannemārā—Gdc.—पन्नेमारा ..	E; 60·0	1·3; 374; 58; 216	Yerkad; 10·0	Mul; 72·0	Murumgaon; 4·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Pānolī—Bhm.—पानोली ..	W; 8·0	0·5; 557; 116; 331	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pānolī Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—पानोली मेंढा	W; 6·0	1·1; 117; 20; 69	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pānorā—Chd.—पानोरा ..	.. ..	2·0; 491; 101; 276	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pāraḍagāṅv—Bhm.—पारडगांव ..	SE; 2·0	1·2; 1000; 188; 583	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; ch.
Pāraḍapār—War.—पारडपार ..	NE; 39·0	1·3; 250; 57; 164	Jambhulghat; 3·0	Kanpa; 16·0	Jambhulghat; 3·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Paradhān Heṭī—War.—परधान हेटी	NE; 39·0	0·6; 22; 7; 14	Sawargaon; 2·0	Warora; 39·0	Neri; 2·0; Wed.	Neri; 2·0	W;n;t.	tl.
Pāraḍī—Chd.—पारडी ..	.. ..	0·9; 159; 31; 94	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Pāraḍī—Chd.—पारडी ..	E; 35·0	2·04; 758; 133; 441	Rajgadh; 3·6	Mul; 8·0	Rajgadh; 3·6; Tue.	Saoli; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Pāraḍī—War.—पारडी ..	E; 24·0	1·9; 247; 49; 119	Moharli; 2·0	Chandrapur; 18·0	Sawarla Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon; 2·0; Wed.	Moharli; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pāraḍī—War.—पारडी ..	.. ..	1·3; 462; 112; 269	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Pāraḍī Buṭī—War.—पारडी बुटी ..	NE; 42·0	1·7; 81; 15; 50	Ambeneri; ..	Kanpa; 12·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Pāraḍī Dev—Gdc.—पारडी देव ..	SW; 40·0	0·5; 54; 8; 33	Ganpur; 3·0	Balharshah; 30·0	Ashti; 8·0; Fri.	Ashti; 8·0	W;rv.	tl.
Pāraḍīkupī—Gdc.—पारडीकुपी ..	W; 8·0	4·0; 1412; 274; 814	Kaneri; 1·0	Mul; 17·0	Gadhchiroli; 8·0; Sun.	Kaneri; 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr;m); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; lib; dp.
Pārakābhaṭṭī—Srn.—पारकाभट्टी ..	NE; 43·0	1·7; 24; 5; 13	Aheri; ..	Balharshah; 110·0	Aheri; .. Sat.	Jimalgatta; 7·0	n.	..
Pāranā—Bhm.—पारना ..	SW; 35·0	0·6; 142; 29; 43	Shioni; 6·0	Sindevahi; 18·0	Shioni; 6·0; Tue.	Sindevahi; 18·0	w.	2 tl.
Parasalagondī Masāhat—Srn.—परसलगोंदी मसाहत.	N; 83·0	0·5; 396; 67; 217	Yetapalli; 9·0	Balharshah; 93·0	Allapalli; 31·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 31·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Pārasavāḍī—Gdc.—पारसवाडी ..	E; 15·0	1·8; 74; 14; 57	Chatgaon; 4·0	Mul; 40·0	Dhanora; 6·0; Thu.	Dudhamara; 0·4	W;t.	..
Pārasavāḍī—Gdc.—पारसवाडी ..	NE; 20·0	0·8; 119; 24; 77	Delanwadi; 6·0	Wadsa; 20·0	Delanwadi; 6·0; Sat.	.. 20·0	t;rv;n.	Cs; tl; ch.
Parasevāḍā—Srn.—परसेवाडा ..	N; 20·0	0·7; 195; 34; 116	Regunta Malgujari; 3·0	Manchariyal; ..	Bamani; 10·0; Sun.	Umanur; 20·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Parasoḍā—Raj.—परसोडा ..	W; 40·0	2·6; 483; 105; 211	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 42·0	Korpana; 12·0 Fri.	.. 42·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Parasoḍā—War.—परसोडा ..	N; 3·0	2·0; 492; 95; 283	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Warora; 3·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; dg.
Parasoḍī—Bhm.—परसोडी ..	E; ..	0·5; 226; 43; 115	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Brahmapuri 1·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 1·0	W;n.	tl.
Parasoḍī—Chd.—परसोडी ..	.. ..	3·5; 441; 87; 255	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Parasoḍī—War.—परसोडी ..	.. ..	0·6; 121; 23; 69	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..

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Parāyanār—Srn.—परायनार ..	NE; 112·0	0·4; 223; 45; 120	Bhamaragad; 12·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Allapalli; 54·0; Sun.	Aheri; 58·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Pārḍī—Bhm.—पार्डी ..	W; 8·0	1·6; 1173; 223; 692	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 6·0	Navegaon Pandav; 2·0; Tue.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; 2 tl.
Pārḍī—Raj.—पार्डी ..	W; 36·0	1·8; 415; 87; 209	Korpana; 6·0	Rajura; 38·2	Korpana; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs. dp.
Pārḍī Jāṭīn—Bhm.—पार्डी जाटीन ..	SW; 24·0	0·7; 105; 20; 53	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	Talodhi; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 2·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	w.	tl.
Pārlī—Srn.—पार्ली ..	NE; 60·0	0·2; 20; 3; 10	Kamalapur; ..	Balharshah; ..	Aheri; 40·0; Sat.	.. ..	rv;n.	..
Pārodhī—War.—पारोधी ..	NE; 17·0	2·7; 577; 125; 313	Chandankheda; 2·0	Warora; 17·0	Chandankheda; 2·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Pāṭāḷā—War.—पाटाळा ..	S; 9·0	3·2; 1089; 249; 474	Local; ..	Majari; 3·0	Warora; 9·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;rv n.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; Dhuli Vandan; Fr. Mrg. Vad. 2; tl.
Pāṭan—Raj.—पाटन ..	SW; 2·5	2·5; 150; 31; 87	Chandur; ..	Rajura; ..	Chandur; .. Tue.	Chandur; ..	W.	tl.
Pāṭaṇavāḍā—Gdc.—पाटणवाडा ..	N; 29·0	0·9; 91; 13; 57	Wairagad; 1·0	Desaiganj; 21·0	Wairagad; 1·0; Thu.	Armori; 9·0	W;rv.	Cs.
Pātharagoṇḍī—Gdc.—पाथरगोंडी ..	.. ..	0·1; 21; 4; 11	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Pātharagoṭā—Gdc.—पाथरगोटा ..	SE; 32·0	0·1; 30; 5; 20	Pendhari; 11·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 11·0; Thu.	.. ..	w.	..
Pātharagoṭā—Gdc.—पाथरगोटा ..	N; 32·0	1·7; 292; 70; 188	Armori; 6·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 6·0; Fri.	Armori; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pātharī—Bhm.—पाथरी ..	S; 57·0	3·2; 1437; 354; 610	Local; ..	Rajoli; 11·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib; 2 dp; (1 vet).
Pattīgāṅv Masāhat—Srn.—पत्तीगांव मसाहत.	NE; 47·0	0·4; 139; 22; 84	Dechali; 13·0	Balharshah; ..	Sironcha; 47·0; Mon.	.. ..	n.	..
Pattīgāṅv Masāhat—Srn.—पत्तीगांव मसाहत.	N; 47·0	0·1; 24; 3; 13	Rajaram; .. 2·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 12·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W.	..
Paunī—Raj.—पौनी ..	N; ..	1·7; 620; 121; 298	Govri; 2·0	Manikgad; 10·0	Rajura; 9·0; Sat.	Rajura; 9·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Paunī—Gdc.—पौनी ..	E; 23·0	2·02; 347; 62; 194	Dhanora; .. 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Pauravel—Gdc.—पौरवेल ..	E; 32·0	0·1; 16; 2; 10	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Pavanapār—Bhm.—पवनपार .	S; 24·0	1·6; 578; 132; 336	Gunjevahi Mahal; 3·0	Sindevahi; 12·0	Pathari; 9·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pāvaṇā Raiyyatavārī—War.—पावणा रैय्यतवारी.	E; 6·0	3·9; 980; 209; 549	Warora; 10·0	Warora; 10·0	Warora; 10·0; Sun.	Warora; 10·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr;m); Cs; tl.
Pavanī—War.—पवनी ..	.. ..	2·0; 413; 92; 235	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Pāyadī—Gdc.—पायदी ..	E; 45·0	2·8; 275; 54; 133	Pendhari; 4 0	Mul; 68·0	Pendhari; 4·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Pāyalasanapeṭh—Gdc.—पायलसनपेठ S; 20·0	1·8; 167; 36; 106	Muranda; ..	Mul; ..	Talodhi Mokasa; 6·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa;	6·0	W;t.	
Pāyalī Bhaṭāḷī—Chd.—पायली भटाळी	10·0; 1530; 326; 831	Local; ..	Chanda; 8·0	Chanda; 8·0; Wed.	Chanda; 8·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch; lib.	
Pekīnakāsā—Gdc.—पेकीनकासा .. SE; 13·0	0·01; 9; 1; 6	Gurwala; 6·0	Mul; 37·0	Gurwala; 6·0; Mon.	Gadhchiroli; 13·0	n.	..	
Pekīnakāsāmuḍajhā—Gdc.—पेकीनकासामुडझा. E; 44·0	0·4; 197; 41; 101	Pendhari; 2·0	Mul; 66·0	Pendhari; 2·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.	
Pelorā—Raj.—पेलोरा .. N; ..	2·8; 920; 216; ..	Nandgaon; 2·0	Chandrapur; 9·0	Chandrapur; 9·0; Wed.	Chandrapur; 9·0	W;rv; n.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs;2 tl; ch.	

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Peṇḍalavāhī—Srn.—पेंडलवाही ..	NE; 118·0	3·0; 94; 14; 40	Jaravandi; 6·0	Mul; 70·0	Gadhchiroli; 46·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 8·0	W.	tl.
Pendhā—Gdc.—पेंधा ..	N; 45·0	0·5; 5; 2; 3	Koregaon; 5·0	Wadsa; 11·0	Desaiganj; 11·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 5·0	W;t.	..
Peṇḍharī—Bhm.—पेंढरी ..	W; 17·0	0·7; 398; 75; 222	Mohali Mokasa; 1·0	Nagbhid; 6·0	Nagbhid; 5·0; Thu.	Mahali Mokasa; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Peṇḍharī—Bhm.—पेंढरी ..	S; 36·0	3·0; 687; 149; 347	Bhothali; 4·0	Rajoli; 10·0	Pathari; 4·0; Fri.	Hirapur; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Peṇḍharī—Gdc.—पेंढरी ..	SE; 44·0	1·7; 401; 90; 211	Local; ..	Mul; 65·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl.
Peṇḍharī—War.—पेंढरी ..	NE; 44·0	1·9; 422; 92; 240	Kevada; 2·0	Sindevahi; 11·0	Motegaon; 2·0; Sun.	Neri; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Peṇṭipākā—Srn.—पेंटिपाका ..	SE; 6·0	1·3; 447; 102; 163	Janamapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 135·0	Sironcha; 6·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Peramalabhaṭṭī—Srn.—पेरमलभट्टी	NE; 126·0	4·2; 74; 16; 50	Bhamaragad; 26·0	Balharshah; 132·0	Allapalli; 68·0; Sun.	Aheri; 70·0	W;rv; n.	..
Perimilī—Srn.—पेरिमिली ..	N; ..	3·7; 383; 81; 177	Local; ..	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 20·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Peṭā—Srn.—पेटा ..	N; 123·0	2·2; 41; 6; 27	Yetapalli; 19·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Aheri; 43·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	ch.
Peṭā—Srn.—पेटा ..	.. ..	3·1; 181; 34; 96	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	t.
Peṭā—Srn.—पेटा ..	NE; 32·0	1·4; 729; 115; 362	Local; ..	Balharshah; 107·0	Aheri; 45·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Peṭagāṅv—Bhm.—पेटगांव ..	SW; 42·0	1·8; 1418; 302; 790	Local; ..	Rajoli; 2·0	Rajoli; 2·0; Sat.	Rajoli; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Jayanti Fr; 2 tl. gym; ch; lib.
Peṭagāṅv—Chd.—पेटगांव ..	.. ..	1·4; 307; 60; 191	Jibgaon; 1·0	Mul; 16·0	Saoli; 8·0; Thu.	Saoli; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Peṭeḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—पेटेडोंगरी ..	.. ..	0·3; 10; 3; 8	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Peṭhabhānasulī—War.—पेठभानसुली	.. ..	0·9; 251; 49; 149	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Peṭhataḷā—Gdc.—पेठतळा ..	S; 28·0	0·5; 590; 123; 345	Ghot; 2·0	Balharshah; 57·0	Ghot; 2·0; Tue.	Ghot; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr), Cs.
Peṭh Tukūm—Gdc.—पेठ तुकूम ..	N; 13·0	1·2; 311; 57; 181	Deulgaon; 2·0	Wadsa, 18·0	Deulgaon; 2·0; Thu.	Deulgaon; 2·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Pevarā—War.—पेवरा ..	NE; 6·0	0·5; 149; 33; 87	Paona Raiyyatwari; 3·0	Warora; 8·0	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Phakanābhaṭṭī—Gdc.—फकनाभट्टी..	NE; 71·0	0·5; 68; 15; 42	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; ..	Belgaon; .. Mon.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Pharāḍā—Gdc.—फराडा ..	SW; 18·0	3·5; 968; 184; 556	Bhendala; 3·0	Mul; 18·0	Bhendala; 3·0; Mon.	Bhendala; 3·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl; ch.
Pharī—Gdc.—फरी ..	NE; 70·0	1·2; 145; 26; 83	Malevada; 1·0	Wadsa; 37·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W;rv; n.	..
Phasaṭolā—Gdc.—फसटोला ..	SE; 28·0	1·9; 98; 19; 56;	Karwafa; 10·0	Mul; 57·0	Potegaon; 6·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	..
Phattāpūr—War.—फत्तापूर ..	N; 13·0	3·1; 391; 90; 257	Barvha; 2·0	Nagri; 6·0	Kosarsar; 4·0; Sat.	Khambada; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pherī—Gdc.—फेरी ..	N; 28·0	0·4; 167; 36, 98	Kural; 5·0	Desaiganj; 7·0	Desaiganj; 7·0; Sun.	Kural; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Phisakuṭī—Chd.—फिसकुटी ..	E; 36·0	2·3; 1540; 305; 857	Rajgadh; 2·0	Mul; 7·0	Rajgadh; 2·0; Tue.	Chandapur; 1·0	W;pl.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl.
Phokurḍī—Gdc.—फोकुर्डी ..	SW; ..	2·2; 667; 148; 400	Bhendala; ..	Mul; ..	Bhandala; .. Mon.	Mul; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Phulaboḍī—Gdc.—फुलबोडी ..	SE; 25·0	4·0; 247; 43; 162	Karwafa; 8·0	Mul; 49·0	Karwafa; 8·0; Tue.	Karwafa; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); ch.
Phulakhal—Gdc.—फुलखल ..	SE; 40·0	N.A.; 34; 6; 23	Pendhari; 2·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 3·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 3·0	W;n.	..
Phulakoḍā—Gdc.—फुलकोडा ..	E; 35·0	1·8; 78; 16; 41	.. 7·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Murumgaon; 6·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 6·0	rv.	..
Phulorā—Chd.—फुलोरा ..	.. ..	0·4; 18; 4; 11	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Phuṇḍī Masāhat—Srn.—फुंडी मसाहत. ..	N; 50·0	0·04; 263; 38; 163	Kondoli (Surveyed); 6·0	Balharshah; 102·0	Allapalli; .. Sun.	.. 14·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)			Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Phuradī—Chd.—फुरडी ..	..	..	3·5;	816;	155;	445	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Phuser—Gdc.—फुसेर ..	S;	28·0	0·03;	18;	4;	15	Muranda;	6·0	Muranda;	6·0	Talodhi Mokasa;	14·0	Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa;	14·0	W;n.	..
Phuṭāṇā—Chd.—फुटाणा ..	..	..	2·7;	1062;	200;	623	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;t.	..
Piḍamilī—Srn.—पिडमिली ..	NE;	102·0	0·2;	46;	8;	26	Allapalli;	54·0	Balharshah;	126·0	Allapalli;	54·0	Sun.	Aheri;	58·0	n.	..
Pijadurā—War.—पिजदुरा ..	N;	..	2·2;	484;	97;	284	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Pimpaḷagāṅv—Bhm.—पिंपळगांव ..	NE;	6·0	3·02	2896;	604;	1661	Local;	..	Brahmapuri;	6·0	Arher Navargaon;	0·6;	Mon.	..	..	W.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs; Ram Navami Fr; Cr; Sud. 9; 4 tl; 2 m; ch; 2 lib.
Pimpaḷagāṅv—Gdc.—पिंपळगांव ..	N;	38·0	4·6;	414;	95;	253	Kokadi;	2·0	Desaiganj;	8·0	Desaiganj;	8·0;	Sun.	Shankarpur;	3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pimpaḷagāṅv—War.—पिंपळगांव ..	N;	..	0·4;	63;	16;	45	Barvha;	..	Nagri;	..	Barvha;	..	Wed.	Khambada;	..	W.	..
Pimpaḷagāṅv—War.—पिंपळगांव ..	N;	13·0	0·4;	426;	86;	199	Barvha;	4·0	Nagri;	6·0	Kosarsar;	4·0;	Sat.	Stage;	1·6	W.	..
Pimpaḷagāṅv—War.—पिंपळगांव ..	NE;	42·0	1·7;	850;	165;	539	Jambhulghat;	2·0	Kanpa;	17·0	Jambhulghat;	2·0;	Tue.	Jambhulghat;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pimpaḷakhuṭ—Chd.—पिंपळखुट ..	NE;	17·0	0·3;	214;	40;	119	Chichpalli;	2·0	Chichpalli;	8·0	Chichpalli;	2·0;	Mon.	Chichpalli;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pimpaḷakhuṭā (Raiyyatapūr)—Gdc.—पिंपळखुटा (रैय्यतपूर).	S;	9·0	2·1;	279;	53;	163	Yeoli;	1·6	Mul;	30·6	Gadhchiroli;	9·0;	Sun.	Gadhchiroli;	9·0	W;nt;	Sl (pr); tl.
Pimpaḷanerī—War.—पिंपळनेरी ..	NE;	36·0	1·4;	826;	187;	455	Local;	..		18·0	Local;	..	Mon.	Chimur;	3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Pimparajhorā—Gdc.—पिंपरझोरा ..	NE;	74·0	0·6;	47;	8;	30	Kurkheda;	25·0	Desaiganj;	41·0	Korchi;	1·0;	Thu	Kurkheda;	25·0	W.	..
Piṇḍī Guṇḍam—Srn.—पिंडी गुंडम ..	N;	74·0	0·2;	42;	10;	28	Allapalli;	..	Balharshah;	98·0	Allapalli;	..	Sun.	Aheri;	30·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Pipaḷagāṅv—Raj.—पिपळगांव ..	W;	14·0	2·4;	587;	134;	368	Local;	..	Manikgad;	16·0	Chandur;	2·0;	Tue.	Chandur;	2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Piparḍā—Raj.—पिपर्डा ..	W;	29·0	3·6;	266;	56;	160	Korpana;	5·0	Manikgad;	31·2	Vansadi;	3·0;	Wed.	Vansadi;	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq.
Piparḍā—War.—पिपर्डा ..	E;	49·0	4·6;	646;	130;	299	Palasgaon;	2·0	Warora;	49·0	Palasgaon;	2·0;	Sun.	Neri;	10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Piparī—Chd.—पिपरी ..	SW;	10·0	5·5;	1222;	236;	642	Dhanora;	2·0	Chanda;	10·0	Ghugus;	6·0;	Sun.	Chanda;	10·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Piparī—Gdc.—पिपरी ..	NE;	118·0	3·0;	121;	18;	86	Malevada;	6·0	Desaiganj;	30·0	Malevada;	6·0;	Sun.	Kurkheda;	14·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Piparī—Raj.—पिपरी ..	W;	25·0	2·8;	507;	105;	289	Vansadi;	4·0	Manikgad;	26·0	Vansadi;	4·0;	Wed.	Vansadi;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Piparī—War.—पिपरी ..	S;	18·0	3·9;	821;	186;	452	Bhadravati;	5·6	Bhadravati;	5·6	Bhadravati;	5·6;	Wed.	Bhadravati;	5·6	rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl.
Piparī Deśapāṇḍe—Chd.—पिपरी देशपांडे. ..	..	..	2·8;	586;	126;	299	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;rv.	..
Piparī (Dikṣit)—Chd.—पिपरी (दिक्षित). ..	..	..	0·5;	547;	105;	329	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;t.	..
Piparī Tukūm—Chd.—पिपरी तुकूम ..	..	..	0·5;	15;	4;	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;n.	..
Pirālī—War.—पिरली ..	E;	..	2·0;	858;	188;	437	Local;	..	Bhadravati;	9·0	Bhadravati;	9·0;	Wed.	Bhadravati;	7·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m) Cs; 4 tl; lib.
Piramedā—Srn.—पिरमेडा ..	N;	20·0	0·2;	120;	26;	69	Rogunta Malgujari;	2·0	Manchariyal;	..	Bamani;	10·0;	Sun.	Bamani;	10·0	W;n.	..
Pirāṇjī Māl—Chd.—पिरंजी माल ..	NE;	38·0	1·1;	169;	35;	115	Saoli;	3·0	Mul;	10·0	Saoli;	3·0;	Thu.	Saoli;	3·0	W;t;pl	Sl (pr); tl.
Pisevaḍadhā—Gdc.—पिसेवडधा ..	NE;	12·0	2·5;	769;	159;	397	Delanwadi;	2·0	Wadsa;	20·0	Delanwadi;	3·0;	Sat.	Armori;	16·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Dhulivandan Fr.March; 2 tl; ch; Cch.
Pitesūr—Gdc.—पितेसूर ..	SE;	70·0	2·6;	89;	15;	53	Yerkad;	45·0	Wadsa;	70·0	Kotgul;	3·0;	Fri.	Murumgaon;	25·0	n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. mi.); Pcp; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Piṭīcuā—War.—पिटीचुआ ..	NE; 33·0	2·6; 133; 31; 80	Chimur; 5·0	Warora, 33·0	Chimur; 5·0; Fri.	Shedgaon; 3·0	W.	tl.
Pocamapallī Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—पोचमपल्ली रैय्यतवारी ..	SE; 14·0	2·9; 540; 117; 295	Ankisa; 3·0	Balharshah; 143·0	Ankisa; 3·0; Tue.	Ankisa; 3·0	W.	..
Poḍasā—Chd.—पोडसा ..	.. ..	2·4; 512; 110; 328	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pohe—War.—पोहे ..	.. ..	1·5; 280; 56; 158	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pokkūr—Srn.—पोक्कूर ..	NE; 110·0	0·2; 96; 15; 41	Kandoli; 14·0	Balharshah; 165·0	Allapalli; 33·0; Sun.	Aheri; 40·0	n.	..
Pombhūrṇā—Chd.—पोंभूर्णा ..	.. ..	5·5; 2965; 520; 1211	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Porlā—Gdc.—पोर्ला ..	N; 12·0	5·7; 2619; 536; 1371	Local; ..	Wadsa; 24·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;t.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); pyt; 4 Cs; Mandoba Fr. Ct; Sud. 15; tl; mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Poṭegāṅv—Gdc.—पोटेगांव ..	SE; 25·0	1·3; 366; 92; 229	Local; ..	Mul; 50·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 24·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 25·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Poṭegāṅv—Gdc.—पोटेगांव ..	N; 37·0	1·7; 565; 123; 280	Kokadi; 1·0	Desaiganj; 7·0	Desaiganj; 7·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Poṭepallī—Gdc.—पोटेपल्ली ..	S; ..	1·2; 222; 44; 137	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Povanapār—Bhm.—पोवनपार ..	S; 17·0	0·4; 73; 15; 53	Avalgaon; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 17·0	Gangalvadi; 6·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 6·0	W.	tl.
Poyarakoṭī—Srn.—पोयरकोटी ..	NE; 106·0	0·1; 120; 21; 84	Allapalli; 56·0	Balharshah; 128·0	Allapalli; 56·0; Sun.	Aheri; 60·0	rv;n.	..
Pratāpagaḍ—Gdc.—प्रतापगड ..	NE; 84·0	0·01; 18; 1; 11	Malevada; 9·0;	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 9·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 25·0	rv;n.	..
Puḍīyāl Mohadā—Raj.—पुडीयाल मोहदा. SW; 42·0		0·2; 28; 8; 20	Chandur; 22·0	Manikgad 44·0	Chandur; 22·0; Tue.	Chandur 22·0	W.	ch.
Pulakhal—Gdc.—पुलखल ..	S; 7·0	1·8; 624; 118; 319	Kaneri; 2·0	Mul, 18·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	Stage; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl.
Punnūr—Srn.—पुन्नूर ..	N; 105·0	5·8; 336; 64; 159	Ghotsur; 7·0	Mul; 77·0	Gadhchiroli; 42·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Purāḍā—Gdc.—पुराडा ..	NE; 114·0	4·02; 893; 196; 503	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 26·0	Ramgad; 2·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W; rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Purakepār—Bhm.—पुरकेपार ..	SW; 33·0	3·5; 48; 11; 39	Ratnapur; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 14·0	Nawargaon; 4·0; Thu.	Nawargaon; 4·0	W.	..
Purasalagondī—Srn.—पुरसलगोंदी ..	NE; 100·0	1·7; 210; 45; 59	Yetapalli; 20·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 38·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 38·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Pusāpaṇḍī—Gdc.—पुसापंडी ..	NE; 27·0	5·1; 72; 15; 51	Dhanora; 6·0	Mul; 52·0	Dhanora; 6·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 6·0	W;t.	..
Puske—Srn.—पुस्के ..	NE; 103·0	0·1; 14; 4; 5	Yetapalli; 23·0	Balharshah; 89·0	Allapalli; 41·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 41·0	W.	..
Puskoṭī—Srn.—पुस्कोटी ..	NE; 160·0	7·0; 117; 21; 57	Ghotsur; 20·0	Yetapalli; 50·0	Irpanar; 16·0; ..	Yetapalli; 45·0	W;n.	ch.
Pusukapallī—Srn.—पुसुकपल्ली ..	N; 54·0	0·7; 126; 28; 66	Aheri; 5·0	Balharshah; 67·0	Aheri; 5·0; Sat.	Aheri; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Pusumapallī—Srn.—पुसुमपल्ली ..	NE; 102·0	0·1; 34; 6; 15	Yetapalli; 22·0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 40·0	rv;n.	..
Puyāradaṇḍ—War.—पुयारदंड ..	NE; 56·0	1·4; 694; 154; 398	Bhisi; 1·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Bhisi; 1·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Rāhapallī Bk.—Raj.—राहपल्ली बु. ..	S; 38·0	0·3; 143; 29; 87	Chandur; 22·0	Virur; 38·0	Chandur; 22·0; Tue.	Devada; 15·0	W;n.	..
Rāhapallī Kh.—Raj.—राहपल्ली खु. ..	S; 45·0	1·4; 64; 14; 43	Indhani; 16·0	.. ..	Indhani; 14·0; ..	Vakadi; 16·0	W;n.	..
Raiyyatavāri Colliery No. 3—Chd.—रैय्यतवारी कॉलरी नं. ३	..	N.A. 694; 115; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;pl.	..
Rājagadh—Chd.—राजगढ ..	E; 34·0	4·0; 1205; 230; 640	Local; ..	Mul; 6·0	Local; .. Tue.	Borchandli; 1·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; ch; lib; dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling Distance (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)			Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Rājagaṭṭā—Gdc.—राजगट्टा ..	SW;	46·0	0·7;	214;	43 ;	96	Marakanda;	3·0	Balharshah;	40·0	Ashti;	9·0;	Fri.	Marakanda — Kansaba;	3·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Rajagaṭṭāgāṅv—Gdc.—राजगट्टागांव	N;	6·0	2·0;	377;	76;	222	Ambeshioni;	3·0	Mul;	31·0	Gadhchiroli;	7·0;	Sun.	Gadhchiroli;	7·0	W;t.	Cs.
Rājanagaṭṭā—Gdc.—राजनगट्टा ..	S;	19·0	0·01;	51;	11;	31	Amgaon;	2·0	Mul;	22·0	Chamorshi;	4·0;	Sat.	Ghot;	10·0	W.	..
Rājanāpallī—Srn.—राजनापल्ली ..	S;	4·0	1·1;	121;	32;	62	Janampalli;	1·6	Balharshah;	130·6	Sironcha;	4·0;	Mon.	Sironcha;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr). ..
Rājārām—Srn.—राजाराम ..	N;	45·0	7·1;	727;	160;	368	Local;	..	..	..	Kamala-pur;	10·0;	Sun.	..	3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Rājaṭolā—Gdc.—राजटोला ..	NE;	61·0	0·3;	17;	3;	8	Kurkheda,	23·0	Wadsa;	39·0	Belgaon;	2·0;	Mon.	Kurkheda;	23·0	W;t.	ch.
Rājāṭolā—Gdc.—राजाटोला ..	NE;	79·0	0·5;	29;	4;	19	Belgaon;	10·0	Wadsa;	63·0	Maseli;	1·0;	Fri.	Kurkheda;	..	W;t.	..
Rajolī—Bhm.—राजोली ..	SW;	24·0	0·5;	176;	30;	102	Balapur Bk.;	3·0	Balapur Bk.;	3·0	Balapur Bk.;	3·0;	Fri.	Balapur Bk.;	3·0	W.	tl.
Rājolī—Chd.—राजोली ..	NE;	38·0	4·5;	2594;	416;	1202	Local;	..	Local;	..	Local;	..	Sat.	Local;	..	W;t.	2 Sl(pr, h); Cs; 4 tl; mq; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Rājolī—Gdc.—राजोली ..	SE;	28·0	1·4;	253;	61;	166	Potegaon;	2·0	Mul;	56·0	Gadhchi-roli;	28·0;	Sun.	Gadhchiroli;	28·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rājolī—Gdc.—राजोली ..	E;	18·0	2·1;	275;	42;	154	Dhanora;	4·0	Mul;	43·0	Dhanora;	4·0;	Thu.	Dhanora;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Rājurā Urban Area I—Raj.— राजुरा नागरी विभाग १. ..	HQ;	..	0·3;	4376;	953;	714	Local;	..	Manikgad;	1·2	Local;	..	Sat.	Local;	..	W;n.	4 Sl (pr; m; h; trg-clg); Cs; 4 tl; mq; dh; gym ch; lib; dp.
Rājur Bk.—Gdc.—राजुर बु. ..	S;	30·0	0·4;	107;	20;	77	Ghot;	12·0	Mul;	32·0	Ghot;	12·0	Tue.	Ghot;	12·0	t.	..
Rājur Kh.—Gdc.—राजुर खु. ..	S;	30·0	0·5;	16;	3;	10	Ghot;	12·0	Mul;	32·0	Ghot;	12·0	Tue.	Ghot;	12·0	W.	
Rākhī—Gdc.—राखी ..	S;	7·0	1·3;	364;	83;	219	Gurwala;	1·0	Mul;	34·0	Gadhchiroli;	7·0;	Sun.	Gadhchiroli;	7·0	W.	..
Rāḷāpeṭh—Chd.—राळापेठ ..	SE;	..	2·5;	250;	50;	149	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Rāḷegāṅv—War.—राळेगांव ..	NE;	..	1·7;	303;	57;	149	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Rāḷegāṅv—War.—राळेगांव ..	SW;	11·0	1·0;	318;	64;	173	Patala;	2·0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rāmagaḍ—Gdc.—रामगड ..	NE;	116·0	0·4;	296;	59;	149	Purada;	2·0	Majari;	5·0	Warora;	11·0;	Sun.	Patala;	2·0	W;n;t.	2 Sl (pr, m), 2 Cs; Mandai Fr. Phg; ch; 2 lib.
									Desaiganj;	28·0	Local;	..	Thu.	Kurkheda;	12·0		
Rāmāḷā—Bhm.—रामाळा ..	SW;	44·0	0·5;	662;	137;	325	Gadheri;	1·0	Sindevahi;	4·0	Sindevahi;	3·0;	Mon.	Sindevahi;	3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr) Cs; tl; dg.
Rāmālā—Gdc.—रामाला ..	SW;	..	1·2;	743;	169;	158	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W;n.	..
Rāmānajapūr Wasteland—Srn.— रामानजपूर वेस्टलँड. ..	S;	3·0	0·7;	152;	35;	43	Sironcha;	3·0	Chandrapur;	133·0	Sironcha;	2·0;	Mon.	Sironcha;	2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Rāmannāpeṭh Raiyyatavāri—Srn.— रामन्नापेठ रैय्यतवारी. ..	N;	20·0	0·6;	135;	30;	60	Regunta;	2·0	..	..	Bamani;	10·0;	Sun.	..	20·0	W;n.	..
Rāmapūr—Gdc.—रामपूर ..	SW;	40·0	0·5;	125;	24;	70	Anakhoda;	2·0	Balharshah;	32·0	Ashti;	3·0;	Fri.	Ashti;	3·0	W;rv.	..
Rāmapūr—Gdc.—रामपूर ..	N;	25·0	2·6;	308;	60;	171	Armori;	5·0	Desaiganj;	10·0	Armori;	5·0;	Fri.	Armori;	5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Rāmapūr—Gdc.—रामपूर ..	S;	..	1·4;	341;	71;	204	Bori;	1·0	Balharshah;	60·0	Bori;	1·0;	Wed.	Bori;	1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Rāmapūr—Raj.—रामपूर ..	W;	..	1·0;	8;	2;	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Rāmapūr—War.—रामपूर ..	NE;	38·0	0·9;	150;	25;	80	Neri;	2·0	Kanpa;	22·0	Neri;	2·0;	Wed.	Neri;	2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Rāmapurī—Bhm.—रामपुरी ..	SW;	14·0	1·3;	246;	64;	158	Mendki;	3·0	Balapur Bk.;	5·0	Mendki;	3·0;	Tue.	..	..	W;t.	Sl (pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Rāmapūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—रामपूर (सर्व्हेड).	N; 64·0	1·2; 185; 32; 90	Aheri; 3·0	Balharshah; 62·0	Aheri; 3·0; Sat.	Aheri; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Rāmapūr Tukūm—Chd.—रामपूर तुकूम.	NE; 27·0	0·6; 168; 43; 30	Mul; 1·0	Mul; 1·0	Mul; 1·0; Wed.	Mul; 1·0	W.	tl.
Rāmapūr Tukūm—Gdc.—रामपूर तुकूम.	S; 0·½	0·8; 790; 183; 96	Gadhchiroli; ..	Mul; 25·0	Gadhchiroli; 0·½; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr,m) tl; dp.
Rāmasāgar—Gdc.—रामसागर	S; ..	0·3; 202; 43; 127	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Rāmasāyaṭolā—Gdc.—रामसायटोला.	NE; 86·0	0·6; 62; 8; 36	Kurkheda; 34·0	Wadsa; 50·0	Markekasa; 1·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 36·0	W;n.	..
Rāmayāpeṭā—Srn.—रामयापेटा	N; 62·0	0·01; 61; 12; 36	Allapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 70·0	Allapalli; 6·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Rameśaguḍam—Srn.—रमेशगुडम	E; 31·0	1·3; 339; 75; 179	Asaralli; 21·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Sironcha; 31·0; Mon.	*Sironcha;* 31·0	rv;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Rām Kṛṣṇāpūr—Srn.—राम कृष्णापूर.	S; 3·0	0·3; 52; 10; 31	Sironcha; 3·0	Chandrapur; 136·0	Sironcha; 3·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 3·0	rv;n.	..
Rānabendalī—Chd.—रानबेंदली	N; 3·0	1·1; 183; 39; 83	Durgapur; 1·0	Chanda; 3·0	Chanda; 3·0; Wed.	Chanda; 3·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rānabhūmī—Gdc.—रानभूमी	SE; 9·0	1·4; 123; 24; 79	Bedlitukum; 2·0	Mul; 35·0	Gadhchiroli; 9·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rānabothalī—Bhm.—रानबोथली	S; 6·0	1·4; 620; 115; 343	Chougan; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Chougan; 2·0; Wed.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rānakaṭṭā—Gdc.—रानकट्टा	SE; 65·0	0·4; 119; 19; 74	Yerkad; 25·0	Desaiganj; 70·0	Kotgul; 17·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	n.	..
Ranamocan—Bhm.—रनमोचन	SE; 6·0	2·3; 939; 178; 597	Kurud; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl.
Rānamūl—Gdc.—रानमूळ	SE; 8·0	0·8; 89; 15; 53	Gurwala; 2·0	Mul; 36·0	Gadhchiroli; 8·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W;rv.	..
Rānaparasoḍī—Bhm.—रानपरसोडी	W; 9·0	1·2; 218; 37; 122	Pardi; 1·0	Nagbhid; 6·0	Navegaon Pandav; 1·6; Tue.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Rānavāhī—Gdc.—रानवाही	NE; 69·0	3·6; 203; 37; 139	Malevada; 2·0	Wadsa; 36·0	Malevada; 2·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 20·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Rānavellī—Raj.—रानवेल्ली	SW; ..	1·4; 148; 32; 96	Varur; 3·0	Manikgad; 7·0	Bhedoda; 1·0; Fri.	Varur; 3·0	W.	..
Raṅgadhāmapeṭā Mālagujārī—Srn.—रंगधामपेटा मालगुजारी.	SE; 15·0	0·5; 81; 22; 32	Ankisa; 1·0	Manchariyal; 75·0	Ankisa; 1·0; Tue.	Sironcha; 15·0	W;t.	..
Raṅgayyāpallī—Srn.—रंगय्यापल्ली	N; 5·0	1·4; 682; 146; 279	Sironcha; 5.0	Manchariyal; 39·0	Sironcha; 5·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Rāṅgī—Gdc.—रांगी	N; 20·0	5·0; 648; 154; 411	Local; ..	Wadsa; 31·0	Local; .. Wed.	Dhanora; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; gym; lib.
Rāṇīpoḍūr—Srn.—राणीपोडूर	NE; 99·0	2·2; 130; 25; 80	Allapalli; 53·0	Balharshah; 125·0	Allapalli; 53·0; Sun.	Aheri; 57·0	rv.	..
Rāpellī—Srn.—रापेल्ली	N; 52·0	0·3; 96; 17; 61	Perimili; 5·0	Balharshah; 98·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Perimili; 11·0	W;rv; n.	..
Rasapallī—Srn.—रसपल्ली	NE; 32·0	1·7; 217; 48; 109	Kamalapur; 12·0	Ballarshah; 112·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Ratnāpūr—Bhm.—रत्नापूर	SW; 33·0	7·1; 2437; 511; 1245	Local; ..	*Sindevahi;* 8·0	Navargaon; 1·0; Thu.	Navargaon; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs; 3 tl; ch; dp.
Ratnāpūr—Chd.—रत्नापूर	NE; ..	0·6; 210; 37; 112	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Rāvaṇajhorā—Gdc.—रावणझोरा	S; 14·0	0·01; 9; 1; 5	Gurwala; 7·0	Mul; 38·0	Gurwala; 7·0; Mon.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;n.	..
Rāvaṇapallī—Gdc.—रावणपल्ली	S; 16·0	4·0; 59; 10; 41	Muranda; 3·0	Mul; 40·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 8·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 8·0	t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Rāvaṇavāḍī—Gdc.—रावणवाडी ..	N; 40·0	2·4; 280; 56; 168	Koregaon; 1·0	Wadsa; 6·0	Desaiganj; 6·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ravi—Gdc.—रवि ..	N; 21·0	0·6; 176; 35; 107	Armori; 2·0	Desaiganj; 11·0	Armori; 2·0; Fri.	Armori; 2·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rāyagaṭṭā—Srn.—रायगट्टा ..	N; 43·0	0·1; 40; 9; 17	Rajaram; 2·0	.. ..	Kamalapur; 9·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	n.	..
Rāyapeṭā—Srn.—रायपेटा ..	N; 6·0	0·7; 71; 17; 32	Sironcha; 6·0	Manchariyal; 38·0	Sironcha; 6·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 1·0	n.	..
Rāyapūr—Gdc.—रायपूर ..	S; ..	0·9; 52; 12; 27	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Rāyapūr—Gdc.—रायपूर ..	SE; 19·0	0·3; 124; 22; 68	Gurwala; 12·0	Mul; 37·0	Gadhchiroli; 19·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 19·0	W;t.	..
Rāyapūr—Raj.—रायपूर ..	W; 42·0	3·3; 60; 11; 28	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	.. 42·0	n.	..
Recā—Gdc.—रेचा ..	SE; 45·0	1·7; 83; 14; 56	Pendhari; 1·6	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 1·6; Thu.	Pendhari; 1·6	rv.	Cs.
Recā—Srn.—रेचा ..	NE; 111·0	2·0; 110; 16; 59	Jaravandi; 5·0	Chandrapur; 183·0	Aheri; 63·0; Sat.	Aheri; 59·0	W;n.	..
Regādaṇḍ—Gdc.—रेगादंड ..	SE; 41·0	1·8; 103; 18; 67	Pendhari; 9·0	Mul; 67·0	Pendhari; 9·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 9·0	W;n.	..
Regādaṇḍī—Srn.—रेगादंडी ..	N; 127·0	0·2; 107; 17; 59	Yetapalli; 23·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Aheri; 47·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Regaḍī—Gdc.—रेगडी ..	SE; 32·0	3·2; 687; 162; 318	Local; ..	Balharshah; 70·0	Ghot; 10·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Reguṇṭā Mālagujārī—Srn.—रेगुंटा मालगुजारी. ..	N; 24·0	1·4; 514; 105; 271	Local; ..	Manchariyal; 48·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	Bamani; 14·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Rekābhaṭal—Srn.—रेकाभटल ..	NE; 155·0	0·1; 14; 2; 4	Ghotsur; 18·0	Balharshah; 154·0	Irpanar; 15·0; ..	Yetapalli; 45·0	W;n.	..
Rekāmeṭṭā Masāhat—Srn.—रेकामेट्टा मसाहत. ..	NE; ..	0·2; 79; 14; 25	Bhamaragad; 17·0	Balharshah; 129·0	Allapalli; 29·0; Sun.	Aheri; 33·0	W;n.	..
Rekanār—Srn.—रेकनार ..	N; 112·0	7·0; 118; 21; 46	Jaravandi; 11·0	Mul; 67·0	Gadhchiroli; 38·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 13·0	W.	..
Rekanār—Srn.—रेकनार ..	N; 84·0	6·4; 254; 46; 173	Yetapalli; 10·0	Balharshah; 93·0	Allapalli; 31·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 31·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Rekhāgāṅv—Gdc.—रेखागांव ..	S; ..	6·0; 370; 79; 216	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Rekhāṭolā—Gdc.—रेखाटोला ..	SE; 25·0;	2·9; 165; 33; 101	Karwafa; 4·0	Mul; 41·0	Karwafa; 4·0; Tue.	Karwafa; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Relā—Srn.—रेला ..	NE; 50·0	1·4; 60; 9; 31	.. 14·0	Balharshah; 125·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	.. 14·0	rv.	..
Reṅgābodī—War.—रेंगाबोडी ..	NE; ..	2·6; 525; 116; 294	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Reṅgātūr—Bhm.—रेंगातूर ..	W; 17·0	1·5; 119; 25; 65	Mohali Mokasa; 1·0	Nagbhid 7·0	Nagbhid; 6·0; Thu.	Mohali Mokasa; 1·0	W.	2 tl.
Reṅgulavāhī—Srn.—रेंगुलवाही ..	N; 33·0	0·02; 86; 17; 46	Regunta; 13·0	.. ..	Bamani; 17·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 10·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Repanapallī—Srn.—रेपनपल्ली ..	NE; 36·0	2·2; 147; 34; 74	Kamalapur; 3·0	Balharshah; 87·0	Kamalapur; 3·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;t.	Cs; ch.
Rīḍavāhī—Gdc.—रीडवाही ..	E; 57·0	0·5; 115; 20; 68	Yerkad; 9·0	Mul; 65·0	Murumgaon; 2·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 2·0	W;n.	..
Roḍāvāhī—Gdc.—रोडावाही ..	SE; 39·0	0·3; 170; 33; 118	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 66·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	W.	..
Ruī—Bhm.—रुई ..	SE; 8·0	2·4; 1039; 191; 635	Gangalvadi; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Gangalvadi; 3·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Rupāpeṭh—Raj.—रुपापेठ ..	W; 38·0	3·6; 366; 90; 144	Korpana; 8·0	Manikgad; 40·0	Chanai Bk.; 5·0; Mon.	.. 38·0	W;n.	Sl (pr). Cs; tl.
Rupīnagaṭṭā—Gdc.—रूपीनगट्टा ..	SE; 52·0	0·1; 30; 5; 20	Pendhari; 13·0	Mul; 78·0	Pendhari; 13·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 13·0	W;n.	..
Sādāgaḍh—Chd.—सादागढ ..	NE; 35·0	2·6; 201; 38; 114	Chimatha; 3·6	Mul; 7·0	Mul; 7·0; Wed.	Chimatha; 3·6	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Sādhuṭolā—Gdc.—साधुटोला ..	N; 51·0	0·5; 66; 14; 43	Kurkheda; 3·0	Wadsa; 19·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	t.	..
Saganāpūr—Gdc.—सगनापूर ..	SW; 34·0	0·4; 94; 21; 53	Chittaranjan; 1·0	Mul; 25·0	Adyal; 1·0; Sat.	Ashti; 12·0	W.	..
Saganāpūr—Gdc.—सगनापूर ..	SW; 28·0	1·3; 669; 127; 342	Bhendala; 2·0	Mul; 12·0	Bhendala; 2·0; Mon.	Mul; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sāgarā—War.—सागरा ..	E; 18·0	2·9; 911; 186; 489	Local; ..	Warora; 18·0	Chandan-kheda; 3·6; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Sāīgāṅv—Gdc.—साईगांव ..	NE; 33·0	1·1; 60; 11; 39	Malevada; 7·0	Wadsa; 45·0	Malevada; 7·0; Sun.	.. ..	n.	Sl (pr).
Sāīgāṅv—Gdc.—साईगांव ..	N; 20·0	1·7; 487; 92; 273	Armori; 2·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 2·0; Fri.	Armori; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāīṭolā—Gdc.—साईटोला ..	NE; 45·0	0·7; 92; 17; 51	Angara; 2·0	Desaiganj; 40·0	Bhakrandi; 4·0; Tue.	Yerkad-mohad; 12·0	W.	..
Sakamur Urf Sakapūr—Chd.—सकमुर उर्फ सकपूर. ..	SE; ..	1·2; 417; 85; 232	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Sakanagaṭṭā—Srn.—सकनगट्टा ..	N; 68·0	0·3; 125; 22; 76	Aheri; 18·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Allapalli; 14·0; Sun.	.. 8·0	W.	..
Sākarā—Gdc.—साकरा ..	N; 6·0	2·9; 875; 175; 474	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 28·0	Gadhchi-roli; 4·2; Sun.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sākharā Rājāpūr—War.—साखरा राजापूर. ..	NE; 18·0	3·4; 863; 173; 440	Local; ..	Warora; 19·0	Local; .. Sun.	Chargaon Bk.; 5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Sākharavāhī—Chd.—साखरवाही ..	NE; 10·0	6·7; 1008; 202; 497	Local; ..	Tadali; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0; Thu.	Tadali; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; (C; fmg); tl; Cch.
Sākharavāī—Raj.—साखरवाई ..	S; 6·0	2·2; 350; 67; 210	Varur; 2·0	Manikgad; ..	Bhedoda; 2·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sākharī—Chd.—साखरी ..	E; 22·0	5·2; 758; 158; 436	Chamorshi; 3·0	Mul; 24·0	Chamorshi; 4·0; Thu.	Chamorshi; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Sākharī—Raj.—साखरी ..	W; 9·0	6·9; 919; 189; 543	Local; ..	Manikgad; 11·0	Rajura; 9·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; dg; ch.
Sākherā—Gdc.—साखेरा ..	E; 16·0	7·6; 443; 84; 236	Karwafa; 3·0	Mul; 35·0	Karwafa; 3·0; Tue.	Chatgaon; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; ch.
Salaīṭolā—Gdc.—सलईटोला ..	SE; 24·0	0·1; 34; 6; 24	Gurwala; 15·0	Mul; 40·0	Gadhchi-roli; 24·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 24·0	W.	..
Sālamārā—Gdc.—सालमारा ..	N; 31·0	0·5; 145; 30; 77	Armori; 6·0	Desaiganj; 15·0	Armori; 5·0; Fri.	Armori; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Salāṅgaṭolā—Gdc.—सलांगटोला ..	NE; 43·0	0·3; 16; 4; 12	Angara; 5·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Bhakrandi; 3·0; Tue.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;rv.	..
Salaṅgaṭolā—Gdc.—सलंगटोला ..	NE; 55·0	0·5; 128; 25; 81	Kurkheda; 6·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Kurkheda; 6·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W.	..
Sāle—Gdc.—साले ..	NE; 67·0	1·2; 32; 6; 20	Kurkheda 45·0	Wadsa; 65 0	Kotgal; 7·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 26·0	n.	..
Sāle—Gdc.—साले ..	NE; 74·0	0·9; 124; 20; 73	Kurkheda; 26·0	Desaiganj; ..	Korchi; .. Thu.	Kurkheda; 26·0	n.	..
Sālebhaṭṭī—Gdc.—सालेभट्टी ..	NE; 42·0	1·1; 169; 29; 127	Angara; 6·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Bhakrandi; 4·0; Tue.	Dhanora; 20·0	W;n.	..
Sālebhaṭṭī—Gdc.—सालेभट्टी ..	E; 22·0	1·2; 268; 50; 136	Dhanora; 1·0	Mul; 47·0	Dhanora; 1·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 1·0	n.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Sālejharī—Chd.—सालेझरी ..	SE; ..	2·1; 452; 86; 267	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sālorī—War.—सालोरी ..	NE; ..	4·4; 1076; 216; 607	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	..
Sāmadā Bk.—Chd.—सामदा बु. ..	NE; 46·0	4·3; 1741; 385; 956	Vyahad Bk.; 2·0	Mul; 18·0	Vyahad; 6·0; Mon.	Mokhala; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Sāmadā Kh.—Bhm.—सामदा खु. ..	S; 23·0	0·8; 209; 57; 115	Gunjevahi Mahal; 5·0	Alevahi; 8·0	Pathari; 10·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 14·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāṅgoḍā—Raj.—सांगोडा ..	W; 24·0	1·1; 445; 90; 258	Antargaon Bk.; 1·0	Ghugus; 15·0	Chandur; 10·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Śaṅkarapūr—Gdc.—शंकरपूर ..	N; 37·0	2·6; 568; 127; 358	Visora; 1·0	Wadsa; 5·0	Desaiganj; 5·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Śaṅkarapūr—War.—शंकरपूर ..	NE; 49·0	4·0; 2913; 598; 1319	Local; ..	Kanpa; 5·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	w.	4 Sl (pr; 2h); Cs; 3 tl; mq; 2 dg; 2 gym; 4 lib; dp.
Saraḍapār—War.—सरडपार ..	NE; 37·0	1·1; 308; 53; 163	Neri; 2·0	Warora; 37·0	Neri; 2·0; Wed.	Neri; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Saraḍapār Tolā—Bhm.—सरडपार टोला. ..	SW; 38·0	3·7; 833; 176; 365	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0	Rajoli; 4·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; 2 dg; ch; lib.

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Sarakhedā—Srn.—सरखेडा ..	NE; 109·0	2·2; 126; 27; 83	Jaravandi; 3·0	Chandrapur; 181·0	Aheri; 61·0; Sat.	Aheri; 57·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Mata Fr. Phg, Vad. 1; tl; ch.
Sarāṇḍā Bk.—Gdc.—सरांडा बु. ..	SE; 45·0	1·7; 60; 11; 44	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 8·0	rv;n.	
Sarāṇḍī—Bhm.—सरांडी ..	SW; 37·0	0·7; 183; 40; 134	Nawargaon; 6·0	Talodhi; 18·0	Nawargaon; 6·0; Thu.	Nawargaon; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sarāṇḍī—Chd.—सरांडी ..	S; ..	1·7; 149; 38; 92	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Sāṣṭī Urban Area II—Raj.—साष्टी नागरी विभाग २. ..	N; 4·0	5·4; 5331; 1209; 932	Local; ..	Balharshah; 3·0	Ballarpur; 3·0; Sun.	Ballarpur; 3·0	W;rv; n.Pl.	2 Sl (m); Cs; Ram tirth Fr ct; Sud. 9; 2 tl; lib.
Sataputī—Gdc.—सतपुती ..	NE; ..	2·1; 175; 37; 124	Kurkheda; ..	Desaiganj; ..	Korchi; 3·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Sātārā—War.—सातारा ..	NE; 40·0	2·0; 407; 88; 247	Masal Bk.; 1·0	Warora; 40·0	Masal Bk.; 1·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Sātārā Bhonsale—Chd.—सातारा भोंसले.	E; ..	0·6; 140; 25; 79	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Sātārā Komaṭī—Chd.—सातारा कोमटी. ..	E; ..	0·4; 223; 44; 131	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Sātārā Tukūm—Chd.—सातारा तुकूम. ..	E; ..	0·5; 188; 35; 102	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Sāṭhagāṅv—War.—साठगांव ..	NE; 52·0	3·1; 893; 188; 451	Local; ..	Kanpa; 8·0	Shankarpur; 3·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 14; tl.
Satitolā—Gdc.—सतिटोला ..	NE; 38·0	0·6; 125; 21; 81	Angara; 1·0	Wadsa; 33·0	Malevada; 5·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 17·0	W.	ch.
Sātrī—Raj.—सात्री ..	E; 4·0	0·3; 428; 82; 228	Chunala; 2·0	Chunala; 2·0	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	Chunala; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāvalagāṅv—Bhm.—सावलगांव ..	E; 6·0	1·3; 671; 134; 385	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvalahīrā—Raj.—सावलहीरा ..	W; 32·4	3·3; 235; 51; 141	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 34·0	Chanai Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	.. 32·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāvalakheḍā—Gdc.—सावलखेडा ..	N; 30·0	2·3; 379; 76; 232	Armori; 10·0	Wadsa; 16·0	Kadholi; 1·0; Mon.	Armori; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Sāvalī—Chd.—सावली ..	NE; 34·0	7·3; 4871; 1086; 2118	Local; ..	Mul; 7·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;t; pl.	3 Sl (2 pr,h); Cs; 5 tl; dg; dp.
Sāvalī—Gdc.—सावली ..	NE; 80·0	2·1; 170; 23; 111	Belgaon; 17·0	Wadsa; 60·0	Saoli; 5·0; ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Sāvaṅgā Bk.—Gdc.—सावंगा बु. ..	E; 43·0	1·9; 169; 31; 106	Pendhari; 4·0	Mul; 66·0	Pendhari; 4·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Sāvaṅgā Kh.—Gdc.—सावंगा खु. ..	SE; 44·0	0·1; 49; 8; 28	Pendhari; 5·0	Mul; 67·0	Pendhari; 5·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 5·0	W;rv; n.	..
Sāvaṅgī—Gdc.—सावंगी ..	N; 85·0	3·2; 1248; 260; 683	Desaiganj; 3·0	Desaiganj; 3·0	Desaiganj; 3·0; Sun.	Desaiganj; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāvaṅgī Baḍage—Bhm.—सावंगी बडगे.	SW; 21·5	1·0; 138; 28; 85	Nagbhid; 10·0	Talodhi; 5·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Palsagaon; 1·2	W.	tl.
Sāvaṅgī Dikṣit—Bhm.—सावंगी दिक्षित.	S; 30·0	0·3; 70; 12; 41	Palebarsa; ..	Sindevahi; 20·0	Pathari; 6·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 18·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaragāṅv—Bhm.—सावरगांव ..	SW; 25·0	3·4; 1856; 342; 985	Local; ..	Balapur; 4·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Sāvaragāṅv—Gdc.—सावरगांव ..	NE; 70·0	4·4; 158; 28; 101	Armori; 24·0	Wadsa; 27·0	Sonsari; 5·0; Wed.	Kurkheda; 11·0	W.	ch.
Sāvaragāṅv—Gdc.—सावरगांव ..	E; 10·0	0·4; 220; 42; 122	Chatgaon; 2·0	Mul; 35·0	Gilgaon; 3·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Sāvaragāṅv—Gdc.—सावरगांव ..	E; 42·0	2·4; 255; 41; 128	Yerkad; 28·0	Mul; 82·0	Kohaka; 2·0; Mon.	Murumgaon; 11·0	W;n;t.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Sāvaragāṅv—War.—सावरगांव ..	NE; 41·0	1·3; 1312; 268; 443	Local; ..	Mul; 17·0	Local; .. Sun.	Chirur; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.

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Sāvaragāṭhā—Bhm.—सावरगाठा ..	SW; 32·0	2·0; 155; 34; 99	Rajoli; 8·0	Sindevahi; 10·0	Sindevahi; .. Mon.	Sindevahi; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvarī—War.—सावरी ..	E; 25·0	3·6; 938; 196; 492	Moharli; 3·0	Chandrapur; 16·0	Sawarla 2·0; Sat.	Moharli; 3·0	W;rv; t.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs; tl.
Sāvarī—War.—सावरी ..	NE; 22·0	3·9; 970; 199; 571	Local; ..	Warora; 22·0	Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon; Local; .. Sun.	.. 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; lib; dp.
Sāvarlā—Bhm.—सावर्ला ..	SW; 25·0;	1·1; 114; 44; 73	Talodhi; 1·0	Balapur; 3·0	Talodhi; 1·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 1·0	W;t.	tl.
Sāvarlā—War.—सावर्ला ..	NE; 38·0	1·0; 236; 46; 131	Jamgaon Komti; 2·0	Kanpa; 19·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvarlā Sirapūr Urf Vaḍegāṅv—War. सावर्ला सिरपूर उर्फ वडेगांव.	E; 22·0	1·2; 698; 150; 310	Moharli; 3·0	Chandrapur; 22·0	Local; .. Sat.	Moharli; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Sāvelā—Gdc.—सावेला ..	SE; 16·0	2·6; 169; 30; 97	Gurwala; 20·0	Mul; 41·0	Gadhchiroli; 16·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 16·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Sāyagāṅv Tukūm—Bhm.—सायगांव तुकूम. ..	S; 15·0	1·6; 471; 98; 291	Mendki; 4·0	Balapur; 8·0	Gangalvadi; 5·0; Sat.	Mendki; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāyagāṭhā—Bhm.—सायगाठा ..	W; 8·0	2·2; 215; 43; 119	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiri Mendha; 1·0	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0; Sun.	Kirmiti Mendha; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāyakheḍā—Bhm.—सायखेडा ..	S; ..	1·0; 403; 84; 212	Palebarsa; 2·0	Sindevahi; 24·0	Mudza; 6·0; Mon.	Vyahad; 13·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sāyamārā Tukūm—Bhm.—सायमारा तुकूम. ..	SW; 41·0	2·1; 271; 63; 162	Pathari; 2·0	Rajoli; 10·0	Pathari; 2·0; Fri.	Rajoli; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sāyaṭolā—Gdc.—सायटोला ..	N; 60·0	0·3; 9; 2; 9	Gevardha; 2·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	W;n.	Cs.
Sāyavan—War.—सायवन ..	SE; 21·0	0·4; 412; 84; 186	Kachrala; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0	Tadali; 2·0; Thu.	Tadali; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; Cch.
Seḍavāī—Raj.—सेडवाई ..	SW; ..	0·9; 193; 40; 101	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	ch.
Śeḍavāī—Raj.—शेडवाई ..	SW; 40·0	4·2; 232; 58; 164	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 45·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	.. ..	n.	..
Śeḍegāṅv—War.—शेडेगांव ..	NE; 30·0	4·1; 471; 106; 274	Chimur; 3·0	Warora; 30·0	Chimur; 3·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Śegāṅv—Gdc.—शेगांव ..	N; 20·0;	2·1; 247; 55; 60	Armori; 0·1	Desaiganj; 12·0	Armori; 0·1; Fri.	Armori; 0·1	W.	..
Śegāṅv—War.—शेगांव ..	N; 10·0	1·7; 77; 16; 52	Chikani; 1·6	Chikani; 4·0	Chikani; 1·6; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Cs; tl.
Śegāṅv Bk.—War.—शेगांव बु. ..	NE; 12·0	3·7; 2947; 610; 658	Local; ..	Warora; 12·0	Local; .. Mon.	Stage; ..	W;t.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); pyt; Cs; 6tl;mq;3dg; gym; 3 dp. 1 vet).
Śegāṅv Kh.—War.—शेगांव खु. ..	NE; 16·0	5·1; 1046; 213; 588	Local; ..	Warora; 16·0	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl.
Selāḍā—Bhm.—सेलाडा ..	SW; 28·0	2·0; 27; 7; 16	Pathari; 14·0	Alevahi; 14·0	Mudza; 9·0; Mon.	Mendki; 9·0	W.	tl.
Seloṭī Urf Vāgheḍā—War.—सेलोटी उर्फ वाघेडा. ..	E; ..	3·1; 317; 65; 188	Pirli; 2·0	Warora; 10·0	Warora; 10·0; Sun.	Shegaon; 9·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Selūr—Gdc.—सेलूर ..	SW; 40·0	0·2; 97; 15; 53	Ganpur; 2·0	Mul; ..	Chamorshi; .. Thu.	Ashti; 16·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Selūr Nāgareḍḍī—Chd.—सेलूर नागरेड्डी. ..	E; ..	1·0; 194; 43; 116	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Sembal—War.—सेंबळ ..	SW; 3·6;	5·9; 1111; 254; 608	Local; ..	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Warora; 0·7	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Śenagāṅv—Chd.—शेनगांव ..	W; 12·0;	6·0; 1220; 233; 645	Local; ..	Ghugus; 3·0	Ghugus; 3·0; Sun.	Chanda; 12·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Senagāṅv—Raj.—सेनगांव ..	SW; 30·0;	0·5; 254; 53; 151	Chandur; 15·0	Virur; 30·0	Chandur; 15·0; Tue.	Chandur; 15·0	W;n.	ch.
Seraj Bk.—Raj.—सेरज बु. ..	W; 30·0;	2·7; 648; 162; 360	Local; ..	Manikgad; 31·0	Korpana; 6·0; Fri.	Pipari; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Seraj Kh.—Raj.—सेरज खु. ..	W; 30·0;	1·0; 343; 81; 181	Korpana; 4·0	Manikgad; 32·0	Vansadj; 4·0; Wed.	Rajura; 30·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sevarī (Surveyed)—Srn.—सेवरी (सर्व्हेड). ..	N; ..	2·6; 369; 68; 188	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; n.	..
				.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Siddheśvar—Raj.—सिद्धेश्वर ..	S; 12·0;	11·5; 58; 13; 16	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
Sidūr—Chd.—सिदूर ..	W; 6·0	3·4; 543; 114; 314	Dhanora; 3·0	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	t.	..
Śikarīṭolā—Gdc.—शिकरीटोला ..	NE; 70·0;	1·3; 103; 19; 62	Belgaon; ..	Wadsa; ..	Betkathi; .. Tue.	.. ..	W;n.	tl.
Sinabhaṭṭī—Srn.—सिनभट्टी ..	NE; 113·0	1·7; 37; 6; 21	Jaravandi; 7·0	Balharshah; 175·0	Aheri; 65·0; Sat.	Aheri; 61·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Sināḷā—Chd.—सिनाळा ..	N; 6·0	1·7; 508; 106; 257	Durgapur; 3·0	Chanda; 6·0	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W;n.	..
Sinasūr—Gdc.—सिनसूर ..	SE; 38·0	2·3; 47; 10; 27	Pendhari; 8·0	Mul; 64·0	Pendhari; 8·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Sinasūr—Gdc.—सिनसूर ..	NE; 58·0	1·4; 120; 15; 75	Desaiganj; 26·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Kurkheda; 10·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W.	tl.
Śindagavhāṇ—War.—शिंदगव्हाण ..	E; 18·0	0·5; 8; 1; 5	Viloda; 4·0	Warora; 18·0	Mudholi; 1·0; Wed.	Moharli; 7·0	n.	..
Sindā Masāhat—Srn.—सिंदा मसाहत. ..	NE; 37·0	0·1; 35; 6; 17	Aheri; 34·0	Balharsbah; 119·0	Aheri; 34·0; Sun.	Jimalgatta; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Sindā (Surveyed)—Srn.—सिंदा (सर्व्हेड) ..	NE; 38·0	0·3; 129; 24; 75	Aheri; 39·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Aheri; 39·0; Sun.	Jimalgatta; 13·0	W.	..
Sindesūr—Gdc.—सिंदेसूर ..	NE; 31·0	4·3; 51; 11; 37	Yerkadmohad; 3·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Dhanora; 9·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 9·0	W;n.	..
Sindesūr—Gdc.—सिंदेसूर ..	NE; 25·0	0·1; 92; 17; 56	Mohali; 2·0	Wadsa; 35·0	Rangi; 6·0; Wed.	Dhanora; 12·0	W;n.	..
Sindevāhī—Bhm.—सिंदेवाही ..	SW; 33·0	3·5; 6923; 1543; 2345	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 6 Cs; 9 tl; mq; ch; 2 lib; 5 dp.
Sindevāhī—Gdc.—सिंदेवाही ..	NE; 43·0	1·8; 57; 13; 34	Malevada; 2·0	Wadsa; 41·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 22·0	W;rv.	..
Sindī—Raj.—सिंदी ..	SE; 16·0	3·6; 471; 106; 270	Virur; 2·0	Virur; 2·0	Virur; 2·0; Wed.	Virur; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq.
Sindoḷā—Chd.—सिंदोळा ..	NE; 37·0	1·6; 506; 116; 336	Jibagaon; ..	Mul; 10·0	Saoli; 3·0; Thu.	Saoli; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Siṅganapallī—Gdc.—सिंगनपल्ली ..	S; 58·0	0·5; 197; 39; 59	Chaidampalli; 3·0	Balharshah; 55·0	Ashti; 11·0; Fri.	Chaidampalli; 3·0	W;t.	..
Siṅgāpūr—Gdc.—सिंगापूर ..	E; 11·0	0·1; 26; 4; 19	Chatgaon; 1·0	Mul; 35·0	Gadhchiroli; 11·0; Sun.	Chatgaon; 1·0	W;rv.	Ch.
Sipanapallī—Srn.—सिपनपल्ली ..	NE; ..	7·8; 129; 24; 100	Perimili; ..	Balharshah; 125·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Perimili; 12·0	W;rv.	..
Śirakāḍā—Bhm.—शिरकाडा ..	SW; 35·0	2·5; 365; 90; 158	Shioni; 2·0	Sindevahi; 14·0	Shioni; 2·0; Tue.	Sindevahi; 14·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sirakoṇḍā—Srn.—सिरकोंडा ..	NE; 22·0	2·6; 498; 98; 209	Tekda (Talla); 10·0	Manchariyal; 45·0	Venkatapur; 11·0; Sun.	.. 7·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr).
Śirapūr—Gdc.—शिरपूर ..	N; 54·0	2·7; 529; 99; 305	Kurkheda; 7·0	Desaiganj; 23·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Sirapūr—Srn.—सिरपूर ..	NE; 113·0	4·1; 240; 59; 158	Jaravandi; 7·0	Balharshah; 175·0	Aheri; 65·0; Sat.	Aheri; 61·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sirapūr—War.—सिरपूर ..	NE; 45·0	1·7; 1054; 210; 674	Local; ..	Kanpa; 20·0	Neri; .. Wed.	.. 6·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); 2Cs; 2tl.
Sirasapūr—War.—सिरसपूर ..	NE; 43·5	0·3; 489; 106; 322	Bhisi; 3·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Bhisi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 1·5	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sirasī—Raj.—सिरसी ..	SE; 9·0	4·2; 308; 67; 170	Virur; 3·0	Virur; 3·0	Virur; 3·0; Wed.	Virur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sirasī Devūḷavār—Chd.—सिरसी देवूळवार. ..	SE; ..	0·4; 236; 41; 118	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sirasī Mālagujārī—Chd.—सिरसी मालगुजारी. ..	E; ..	0·6; 258; 63; 140	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..

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Sirasī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—सिरसी रैय्यतवारी. ..	E; ..	0·7; 145; 27; 95	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sirōñcā—Srn.—सिरोंचा ..	HQ; ..	1·1; 3420; 753; 466	Local; ..	Balharshah; 119·0	Local; .. M.on.	Local; ..	W;rv.	10 Sl (5 pr; 3m; 2h); 4Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. V ad. 14; Urus; 4 tl; mq; dh; dg; dh; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp; Cch;
Sirōñcā Mālagujārī—Srn.—सिरोंचा मालगुजारी. ..	S; 0·2	2·6; 563; 136; 61	Sironcha; 0·2	Balharshah; 119·0	Sironcha; 2·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 0·2;	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sirsī—Gdc.—सिर्सी ..	N; 21·0	0·5; 365; 69; 196	Deulgaon; 7·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 7·0; Thu.	Deulgaon; 7·0	W.	2Sl(pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Sitārāmapeth—War.—सितारामपेठ ..	E; 27·0	3·8; 332; 69; 155	Moharli; 3·0	Chandrapur; 19·0	Sawarla 2·0; Wed. Sirpur *alias* Wadegaon;	Moharli; 3·0	W;rv; n.	Sitaramdev; Fr. Srn. 4 tl;
Śivanī—Bhm.—शिवनी ..	SW; 33·0	2·9; 1655; 352; 655	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 12·0	Local; .. Tue.	Sindevahi; 12·	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; 5 dh; lib.
Śivanī—Gdc.—शिवनी ..	NE; 63·0	4·8; 371; 70; 238	Sonsari; 4·0	Wadsa 21·0 Mul; 31·0	Kurkneda; 5·0; Sat. Gadhchiroli; 6·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 5·0 Gadhchiroli; 6·0	W;t. W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch. Sl (pr) Cs; tl.
Śivanī—Gdc.—शिवनी ..	S; 6·0	2·9; 931; 182; 517	Yeoli; 2·0					
Śivanī Bk.—Gdc.—शिवनी बु. ..	N; 18·0	3·0; 1207; 247; 688	Armori; 2·6	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 2·6; Fri.	Armori; 2·6	W;rv n.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (c, fmg); tl; lib.
Sivanī Cor—Chd.—सिवनी चोर ..	S; 6·0	2·2; 506; 99; 251	Marda; 3·0	Chanda; ..	Chanda; 6·0; Wed.	Chanda; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Śivaṇī Deśapāṇḍe—Chd.—शिवणी देशपांडे. ..	SE; ..	4·0; 355; 79; 202	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Śivanī Kh.—Gdc.—शिवनी खु. ..	N; 33·6	0·6; 100; 15; 63	Wairagad; 3·6	Wadsa; 24·6	Wairagad; 3·6; Thu.	Armori; 12·6	W;t.	Cs; tl; ch.
Śivaṇ Pāyalī—War.—शिवण पायली ..	NE; 42·0	2·0; 316; 62; 195	Jambhulghat; ..	Kanpa; 20·0	Jambhulghat; .. Tue.	Jambhulghat; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Śivāpūr—Raj.—शिवापूर ..	W; 42·0	1·7; 146; 33; 78	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 44·0	Korpana; 12·0; Fri.	Rajura; 42·0	W;n.	Cs.
Śivāpūr—War.—शिवापूर ..	NE; ..	0·7; 205; 41; 120	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Śivarā—War.—शिवरा ..	NE; 44·2	2·3; 623; 120; 375	Doma; 2·6	Kanpa; 12·0	Jambhulghat; 5·0; Tue.	.. 1·2	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Śivarājapūr—Gdc.—शिवराजपूर ..	NE; 67·0	0·5; 44; 9; 31	Kurkheda; 45·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 2·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	rv.	..
Śivarājapūr—Gdc.—शिवराजपूर ..	N; 30·0	1·8; 242; 49; 146	Kural; 2·0	Desaiganj; 4·0	Desaiganj; 4·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Śivasāgar Tukūm—Bhm.—शिवसागर तुकूम. ..	SW; 13·0	1·9; 85; 21; 57	Mendki; 2·0	Balapur; 4·0	Mendki; 2·0; Tue.	Mendhki; 2·0	W;t.	..
Soḍe—Gdc.—सोडे ..	NE; 23·0	2·7; 180; 28; 122	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 2·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; ch; lib.
Sohagāṅv—Srn.—सोहगांव ..	NE; 114·0	3·4; 169; 30; 108	Jaravandi; 8·0	Balharshah; 176·0	Aheri; 66·0; Sat.	Aheri; 62·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sohaḷe—Gdc.—सोहळे ..	NE; 74·0	1·4; 172; 28; 110	Kurkheda; ..	Wadsa; ..	Markekasa; 4·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.	Mandai Fr. Ct; tl.
Soīṭ—War.—सोईट ..	NW; 14·0	3·7; 1109; 242; 595	Local; ..	Nagri; 12·0	Madheli; 2·6; Mon.	Madheli; 2·6	n.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs; 2 tl; 2 lib.
Somalapūr—Gdc.—सोमलपूर ..	SE; 50·0	0·2; 62; 14; 44	Pendhari; 6·0	Mul; 72·0	Pendhari; 6·0; Thu.	Pendhari; 6·0	n.	ch.

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Somanapallī—Gdc.—सोमनपल्ली ..	SW; 36·0	1·7; 360; 78; 221	Ashti; 10·0	Mul; 30·0	Adyal; .. Sat.	Ashti; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Somanapallī—Srn.—सोमनपल्ली ..	SE; 25·0	0·7; 308; 58; 159	Asaralli; 6·0	Balharshah; 148·0	Asaralli; 6·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 6·0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Somanapallī—Chd.—सोमनपल्ली ..	SE; ..	1·3; 570; 115; 297	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Somanūr Mālagujārī—Srn.—सोमनूर मालगुजारी. ..	SE; 24·0	1·7; 327; 66; 214	Asaralli; 4·0	Balharshah; 144·0	Asaralli; 4·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 4·0	W;rv.	..
Sonāpūr—Bhm.—सोनापूर ..	SW; 25·0	1·1; 155; 37; 104	Govindapur; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 11·0	Govinda-pur; 2·0; ..	Talodhi; 6·0	W.	tl.
Sonāpūr—Chd.—सोनापूर ..	NE; 50·0	4·0; 1435; 311; 890	Nilsani Pethgaon; 2·0	Mul; 26·0	Local; .. Thu.	Mokhala; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; (c; fmg); 2 tl; ch.
Sonapūr—Gdc.—सोनपूर ..	NE; 116·0	0·01; 23; 4; 16	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	n;t.	..
Sonapūr—Gdc.—सोनपूर ..	NE; 62·0	1·8; 109; 20; 64	Kurkheda; 23·0	Wadsa; 39·0	Belgaon; 2·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W.	..
Sonapūr—Gdc.—सोनपूर ..	NE; 54·0	1·8; 230; 42; 142	Kurkheda; 42·0	Wadsa; 57·0	Kotgul; 5·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; 2 mq; Cch.
Sonāpūr—Gdc.—सोनापूर ..	S; ..	1·9; 637; 138; 375	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Sonāpūr—Raj.—सोनापूर ..	W; 22·0	2·4; 515; 122; 317	Chandur; 7·0	Manikgad; 22·0	Chandur; 7·0; Tue.	Chandur; 7·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Sonāpūr Deśapāṇḍe—Chd.—सोनापूर देशपांडे. ..	SE; ..	3·8; 830; 189; 515	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv, t.	..
Sonāpūr Tukūm—Bhm.—सोनापूर तुकूम. ..	SW; 30·0	0·4; 170; 33; 90	Vadhona; 3·0	Alevahi; 3·0	Vadhona; 3·0; Sun.	Chikhalgaon; 1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sonasarī—Gdc.—सोनसरी ..	N; 66·0	4·7; 578; 120; 340	Local; ..	Wadsa; 24·0	Local; .. Wed.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Soṇḍo—Raj.—सोंडो ..	S; 11·0	2·9; 431; 102; 237	Warur; 3·0	Wirur; 5·0	Rajura; 11·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Sondrī—Bhm.—सोंद्री ..	NE; 5·0	1·9; 994; 200; 588	Hardoli; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W;rv, t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 4 tl.
Sonegāṅv—Bhm.—सोनेगांव ..	E; 4·0	1·7; 549; 98; 338	Kurud; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Brahmapuri; 4·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Sonegāṅv—Chd.—सोनेगांव ..	W; 8·0	1·1; 405; 76; 247	Shengaon; 1·0	Tadali; 4·0	Ghugus; 4·0; Sun.	Tadali; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sonegāṅv—War.—सोनेगांव ..	NE; 18·0	1·5; 133; 30; 81	Ashta; 2·0	Warora; 18·0	Ashta; 2·0; Sun.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sonegāṅv—War.— सोनेगांव ..	NE; 45·0	1·1; 168; 27; 90	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 45·0	Neri; 4·0; Wed.	Neri; 4·0	W;rv; n.	tl.
Sonegāṅv—War.—सोनेगांव ..	NE; 35·0	0·8; 252; 49; 135	Chimur; 2·0	Warora; 37·0	Chimur; 2·0; Fri.	Chimur; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sonegāṅv—War.—सोनेगांव ..	N; 13·0	1·3; 297; 60; 192	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 13·0	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sonegāṅv—War.—सोनेगांव ..	NE; 31·0	1·0; 508; 111; 277	Chimur; 3·0	Warora; 31·0	Chimur; 2·6; Fri.	Chimur; 2·6	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); tl; mq; ch.
Sonerāṅgī—Gdc.—सोनेरांगी ..	N; 24·0	1·7; 499; 99; 293	Wairagad; ..	Wadsa; 15·0	Wairagad; .. Thu.	.. ..	t.	Cs; tl.
Sonulī—Bhm.—सोनुली ..	SW; 28·0	1·6; 335; 69; 223	Local; ..	Talodhi; 9·0	Nawargaon; 4·0; Thu.	Sawargaon; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; gym; lib.
Sonulī Bk.—Bhm.—सोनुली बु. ..	SW; 24·0	0·9; 369; 70; 231	Talodhi; 3·0	Talodhi; 8·0	Talodhi; 3·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sonulī Kh.—Bhm.—सोनुली खु. ..	SW; 24·0	0·5; 220; 47; 95	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	Talodhi; 3·9	Balapur Bk.; 3·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sonurlī—Raj.—सोनुर्ली ..	NW; 19·0	0·6; 124; 20; 73	Antargaon Bk.; 4·0	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 5·0; Tue.	Vadgaon; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sonurlī—Raj.—सोनुर्ली ..	S; 13·0	2·6; 373; 93; 200	Warur; 3·6	Manikgad; 13·0	Rajura; 10·0; Sat.	Warur; 3·0	W.	tl.
Sonurlī—Raj.—सोनुर्ली ..	W; 27·0	1·5; 734; 186; 418	Chandur; 9·0	Manikgad; 29·2	Vansadi; 1·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sorākāsā—Raj.—सोराकासा ..	S; 45·0	0·2; 50; 11; 39	Indhani; 11·0	Manikgad; 45·0	Indhani; 11·0; ..	.. ..	W,n.	..
Subaī—Raj.—सुबई ..	SE; 14·0	5·8; 592; 135; 286	Chincholi Bk.; 3·0	Wirur; 3·0	Wirur; 3·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Suddaguḍam—Srn.—सुद्दागुडम ..	N; 29·0	2·2; 40; 9; 20	Kamalapur; 13·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Bamani; 15·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	..
Suīmārā—Gdc.—सुईमारा ..	SE; 21·0	0·1; 6; 1; 5	Gurwala; 15·0	Mul; 39·0	Gadhchiroli; 21·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 21·0	W.	..
Sukaḍapallī—Raj.—सुकडपल्ली ..	S; 12·0	1·3; 191; 46; 134	Bhurkunda Bk.; 3·0	Manikgad; 15·0	Bhedoda; 3·0; Fri.	Sondo; 3·0	W;n.	..
Sukāḷā—Gdc.—सुकाळा ..	N; 32·0	1·9; 571; 100; 345	Wairagad; 4·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 4·0; Thu.	Armori; 12·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs;2 tl.
Sulasuṇḍī—Gdc.—सुलसुंडी ..	NE; 37·0	2·5; 278; 65; 181	Malevada; 4·0	Wadsa; 44·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;rv; n;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Sulejharī—Bhm.—सुलेझरी ..	W; 10·0	2·2; 912; 212; 10	Nagbhid; 0·6	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 0·6; Thu.	Nagbhid; 0·6	W;pl.	Sl (pr).
Sumaṭhāṇā—Raj.—सुमठाणा ..	S; 3·0	1·9; 402; 84; 252	Warur; 3·0	Manikgad; 5·0	Rajura; 3·0; Sat.	Warur Road; 3·0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Sumaṭhāṇā—War.—सुमठाणा ..	SE; 12·0	1·1; 272; 55; 73	Bhadravati; 2·0	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·2	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; gym; ch.
Sumaṭhāṇā—War.—सुमठाणा ..	N; 14·0	3·0; 444; 93; 239	Kosarsar; 6·0	Warora; 14·0	Kosarsar; 4·0; Sat.	Khambada; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl.
Suṅkarallī—Srn.—सुंकरल्ली ..	SE; 21·0	1·8; 561; 129; 303	Asaralli; 1·0	Balharshah; 143·0	Asaralli; 1·0; Fri.	Asaralli; 1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Supagāṅv—Chd.—सुपगांव ..	SE; ..	1·5; 469; 91; 259	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Surabodī—Bhm.—सुरबोडी ..	E; 5·0	1·1; 551; 90; 268	Hardoli; 1·0	Bral mapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Suragāṅv—Chd.—सुरगांव ..	SE; ..	1·2; 176; 36; 105	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Surajāgaḍ—Srn.—सुरजागड ..	NE; 97·0	0·2; 76; 14; 24	Yetapalli; 17·0	Balharshah; 96·0	Allapalli; 35·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 35·0	rv;n.	..
Suravāhī—Gdc.—सुरवाही ..	NE; 67·0	0·9; 17; 5; 8	Kurkheda; 27·0	Wadsa; 43·0	Belgaon; 7·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 27·0	W;n;t.	ch. ..
Sureḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—सुरेडोंगरी ..	N; ..	0·3; 137; 22; 69	Deulgaon; 3·0	Wadsa; 24·0	Deulgaon; 3·0; Mon.	Kitali; 3·0	W;t.	tl. ..
Surlā—War.—सुर्ला ..	SE; 2·0	0·9; 211; 42; 112	Warora; 1·0	Warora; 2·0	Warora; 2·0; Sun.	Warora; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Susā—War.—सुसा ..	N; ..	1·3; 282; 59; 182	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Tāḍabhuj—Chd.—ताडभुज ..	NE; .	0·7; 40; 9; 20	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Tāḍagāṅv—Srn.—ताडगांव ..	NE; 72·0	0·4; 119; 21; 86	Allapalli; 28·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Allapalli; 28·0; Sun.	Aheri; 32·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Tāḍagavhāṇ—Raiyyatavārī—War. ताडगव्हाण रैयतवारी. ..	N; ..	0·5; 238; 49; 116	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Tāḍaguḍā—Srn.—ताडगुडा ..	N; 72·0	5·2; 108; 21; 75	Aheri; 22·0	Balharshah; 84·0	Allapalli; 18·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W.	..
Tāḍaguḍā—Srn.—ताडगुडा ..	NE; 160·0	0·2; 116; 15; 44	Ghotsur; 22·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 16·0; ..	Yetapalli; 50·0	W;n.	ch.
Tāḍaguḍā—Srn.—ताडगुडा ..	NE; 112·0	3·3; 125; 20; 40	Yetapalli; 32·0	Balharshah; 98·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 50·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Tāḍāḷā Bopāpūr—War.—ताडाळा बोपापूर. ..	N; ..	1·8; 215; 45; 115	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	.. ..
Tāḍāḷā Tukūm—Chd.—ताडाळा तुकूम. ..	NE; 28·0	1·6; 840; 173; 511	Chichala; 1·0	Mul; 3·0	Mul; 3·0; Wed.	Mul; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mis); 2 tl.
Tāḍāḷī—Chd.—ताडाळी ..	NE; 8·0	3·1; 1039; 228; 610	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Tāḍapallī—Srn.—ताडपल्ली ..	N; 70·0	6·6; 248; 43; 122	Yetapalli; 14·0	Balharshah; 108·0	Aheri; 38·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Tahakapār—Gdc.—तहकपार ..	E; 20·0	0·1; 23; 4; 16	Mendhatola; 7·0	Mul; 50·0	Mendhatola; 7·0; Wed.	Chatgaon; 12·0	n.	..
Tāhakāṭolā—Gdc.—ताहकाटोला ..	NE; 80·0	1·8; 64; 11; 43	.. ..	Desaiganj; 50·0	Korchi; 10·0; Thu.	.. 34·0	W;n.	tl.
Ṭākaḷī—War.—टाकळी ..	N; ..	1·1; 13; 3; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ṭākaḷī—War.—टाकळी ..	N; ..	1·6; 240; 48; 122	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ṭākaḷī—War.—टाकळी ..	E; 7·0	1·1; 427; 86; 260	Nandori Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 5·0	Warora; 5·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ṭekāḍī—Chd.—टेकाडी ..	NE; 32·0	3·1; 1478; 285; 749	Chimatha; 0·6	Mul; 4·0	Mul; 4·0; Wed.	Chimatha; 0·6	W;rv.	Sl (m); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Ṭekāḍī—War.—टेकाडी ..	E; 18·0	1·0; 503; 104; 285	Viloda; 4·0	Warora; 18·0	Mudholi; 1·0; Wed.	Moharli; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Ṭekaḍī Tukūm—Bhm.—टेकडी तुकूम ..	S; 25·0	1·3; 167; 37; 102	Gunjevahi Mahal; 5·0	Alevahi; 8·0	Pathari; 10·0; Mon.	Sindevahi 14·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ṭekalā—Srn.—टेकला ..	NE; 134·0	0·2; 123; 22; 48	Bhamaragad; 10·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Allapalli; 34·0; Sun.	Aheri; 36·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Ṭekāmāṇḍavā—Raj.—टेकामांडवा ..	SW; 30·0	1·1; 28; 7; 19	Chandur; 17·0	Virur; 32·0	Chandur; 15·0; Tue.	Chandur; 17·0	W;n.	ch.
Ṭekamapallī—Srn.—टेकमपल्ली ..	N; 57·0	1·4; 50; 10; 24	Aheri; 3·0	Balharshah; 65·0	Aheri; 3·0; Sat.	Aheri; 3·0	W.	..
Ṭekāmeṇḍhā—Gdc.—टेकामेंढा ..	NE; 49·0	0·2; 35; 5; 22	Yerkadmohad; ..	Wadsa; 52·0	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 25·0	N.	..
Ṭekarī—Bhm.—टेकरी ..	NW; 11·0	1·04; 260; 52; 168	Paharani; 2·0	Nagbhid; 11·0	Paharani; 2·0; Mon.	Nagbhid; 11·0	W;w; t.	2 tl.
Ṭekarī—Bhm.—टेकरी ..	SW; 36·0	1·5; 693; 130; 424	Gadbori; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 2·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 2·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq; lib.
Ṭekkā—Srn.—टेक्का ..	N; 122·0	4·2; 95; 14; 40	Jaravandi; 6·0	Mul; 3·0	Gadhchiroli; 38·0; Sun.	Kasansoor; 14·0	W.	tl; ch.
Telavāsā—War.—तेलवासा ..	S; 15·0	1·8; 190; 43; 120	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 3·0	Bhadravati; 3·0; Wed.	Bhadravati; 3·0	rv.	Sl(pr);tl;ch.
Telī-Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—तेली-मेंढा ..	NW; 10·0	1·2; 354; 60; 196	Nagbhid; 4·0	Naghbid; 4·0	Nagbhid; 4·0; Thu.	Nagbhid; 4·0	W.	Sl(pr); tl;ch.
Ṭemalī—Gdc.—टेमली ..	NE; 69·0	3·8; 310; 67; 207	Kurkheda; 22·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Belgaon; 1·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 22·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Ṭembhā—Gdc.—टेंभा ..	N; 12·0	1·6; 797; 200; 485	Waladha; 2·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Deloda Bk.; 3·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 12·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Ṭembhuravāī—Raj.—टेंभुरवाई ..	S; 8·0	2·6; 713; 138; 350	Warur; 1·6	Wirur; 6·0	Bhedoda; 4·0; Fri.	Warur; 1·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ṭembhurḍā—War.—टेंभुर्डा ..	N; ..	2·4; 520; 116; 217	Local; ..	Dongargaon; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;t.	..
Ṭempaṭā—Chd.—टेंपटा ..	E; 16·0	0·1; 76; 16; 24	Chichpalli; 2·0	Chichpalli; 4·0	Chichpalli; 2·0; Mon.	Chichpalli; 2·0	W;rv.	2 tl.
Ṭhākarī—Gdc.—ठाकरी ..	SW; 54·0	1·4; 951; 219; 391	Ashti; 4·0	Balharshah; 38·0	Ashti; 4·0; Fri.	Ashti; 4·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ṭhāṇegāṅv—Gdc.—ठाणेगांव ..	N; 18·0	2·5; 1858; 351; 941	Wasala; 1·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 2·0; Fri.	Stage; 0·1	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch.
Ṭhāṇegāṅv—War.—ठाणेगांव ..	E; 29·0	0·2; 38; 16; ..	Moharli; 0·1	Chandrapur; 16·0	Bhamdeli; 2·0; ..	Moharli; 0·1	W.'	dp.
Ṭhāṇevāsanā—Chd.—ठाणेवासना ..	E; ..	0·4; 200; 36; 118	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Thātarī—Gdc.—थातरी ..	S; 16·0	0·9; 90; 19; 63	Potegaon; 4·0	Mul; 40·0	Potegaon; 4·0; Tue.	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0	W;t.	..
Theragāṅv—Bhm.—थेरगांव ..	S; 25·0	0·9; 333; 83; 200	Nimgaon; 3·0	Mul; 22·0	Vyahad Kh.; 3·0; Mon.	Vyahad; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Theragāṅv Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—थेरगांव रैयतवारी ..	E; ..	2·4; 451; 83; 271	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Theṭegāṅv—War.—थेटेगांव ..	E; 22·0	1·5; 6; 2; 5	Chora; 3·0	Bhadravati; 12·0	Chandan-kheda; 5·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	..
Thoranī—War.—थोरनी ..	S; 6·0	1·4; 242; 47; 137	Patala; 3·0	Warora; 6·0	Warora; 6·0; Sun.	Patala; 3·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Thoṭebo·ḍī—Gdc.—थोटेबोडी ..	N; 18·0	1·3; 138; 30; 85	Wairagad; 5·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Wairagad; 5·0; Thu.	Armori; 13·0	W;t;n.	tl; ch.
Thuṭrā—Raj.—थूट्रा ..	W; 12·0	5·3; 364; 85; 218	Chandur; 2·0	Manikgad; ..	Chandur; 2·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ṭikepallī—Gdc.—टिकेपल्ली ..	S; ..	0·6; 139; 28; 82	Lagam; 2·0	Balharshah; 50·0	Lagam; 2·0; Tue.	Lagam; 2·0	W;t.	ch.
Timaram Marapallī—Srn.—तिमरम मरपल्ली ..	N; 30·0	9·1; 37; 7; 23	Kamalapur; 12·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Bamani; 10·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W.	..
Timaram (Surveyed)—Srn.—तिमरम (सर्व्हेड) ..	N; 45·0	1·4; 41; 8; 19	Rajaram; 6·0	.. ..	Kamalapur; 11·0; Sun.	Local; ..	n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Timelī—Srn.—तिमेली	NE; 125·0	0·01; 31; 8; 9	Bhamaragad; 25·0	Balharshah; 131·0	Allapalli; 69·0; Sun.	Aheri; 73·0	n.	ch.
Tippā—Raj.—तिप्पा	W. 42·0	1·6; 68; 13; 33	Korpana; 12·0	Manikgad; 43·0	Korpana; 13·0; Fri.	.. 43·0	W;n.	..
Tirakāmeṭṭā—Srn.—तिरकामेट्टा	NE; 134·0	9·01; 24; 5; 12	Bhamaragad; 17·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 57·0; Sun.	.. ..	n.	..
Tirakhurā—War.—तिरखुरा	NE; 41·0	1·4; 420; 90; 269	Pimpalneri; 1·0	.. 19·0	Chimur; 3·6; Fri.	Chimur; 3·6	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Tiravañjā Mokāsā—War.—तिरवंजा मोकासा	SE; ..	1·1; 316; 63; 169	Kachrala; ..	Tadali; 7·0	Tadali; 9·0; Thu.	Mokha; 3·0	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Tiravañjā Raiyyatavārī—War.—तिरवंजा रैयतवारी	SE; 24·0	2·7; 454; 97; 265	Kachrala; 5·0	Tadali; 5·0	Chanda; 7·0; Wed.	Mokha; 5·0	W.	Sl(m); Cs; 2 tl;
Tirur—War.—तिरूर	SE; ..	0·2; 63; 12; 40	Kachrala; ..	Tadali; ..	Tadali; .. Thu.	Mokha; 2·0	n;t.	2 tl.
Tiṭavī—War.—टिटवी	NE; 38·0	1·4; 205; 47; 142	Jambhulghat; 4·0	Tadali; 17·0	Jambhulghat; 4·0; Tue.	Jambhulghat; 6·0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Tiṭoḍā—Srn.—टिटोडा	NE; 105·0	2·2; 101; 21; 29	Yetapalli; 25·0	Kanpa; 91·0	Allapalli; 43·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 43·0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Tivarlā Gāvagannā—Bhm.—तिवर्ला गावगन्ना	W; 13·6	0·9; 88; 17; 45	Nagbhid; 1·6	Nagbhid; 2·6	Nagbhid; 1·6; Thu.	Nagbhid; 1·6	W.	Cs; tl.
Tivharlā Tukūm—Bhm.—तिव्हर्ला तुकूम	W; 14·6	2·2; 526; 116; 315	Nagbhid; 2·6	Nagbhid; 3·6	Nagbhid; 2·6; Thu.	Nagbhid; 2·6	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Toḍakā (Surveyed)—Srn.—तोडका (सर्व्हेड)	NE; 33·0	0·7; 157; 36; 86	Aheri; 45·0	Balharshah; 114·0	Aheri; 45·0; Sat.	Jimlagatta. ..	rv.	..
Toḍasā—Srn.—तोडसा	N; 69·0	2·2; 220; 57; 124	Yetapalli; 8·0	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 38·0; Sat.	Yetapalli; 8·0	W.	Sl(pr); ch.
Toḍemasāhat—Gdc.—तोडेमसाहत	E; 35·0	N.A.; 67; 11; 40	Dhanora; 14·0	Mul; 70·0	Dhanora; 14·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 14·0	n.	..
Tohagāṅv—Chd.—तोहगांव	SE; ..	4·5; 2080; 411; 897	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Tohagāṅv—Gdc.—तोहगांव	SE; 29·0	0·1; 36; 8; 23	Potegaon; 6·0	.. 54·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 25·0; Wed.	Gadhchiroli; 29·0	rv.	
Ṭok—Chd.—टोक	E; ..	0·6; 85; 16; 49	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Tomaṭā—Chd.—टोमटा	SE; ..	1·4; 45; 13; 32	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Toṇḍer—Srn.—तोंडेर	NE; 53·0	0·1; 53; 10; 35	Kasalapur; 20·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Allapalli; 44·0; Sun.	Kamalapur; 20·0	W;n.	..
Toragāṅv Bk.—Bhm.—तोरगाव ब.	NW; 6·0	2·4; 1191; 223; 721	Mouza; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Dighori; 2·0; Wed.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W;t.	2 Sl(pr, m); Cs; tl.
Toragāṅv Kh.—Bhm.—तोरगाव खु.	NW; 7·0	3·0; 1151; 228; 660	Nanheri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0	Brahmapuri; 7·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 7·0	W	Sl(pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Toṭevāhī—Chd.—तोटेवाही	E; 22·0	0·5; 148; 67; 169	Chiroli; 1·0	Local; ..	Chiroli; 1·0, Sun.	Chak Jamala; 2·0	W;n.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Toyāgoṇḍī—Gdc.—तोयागोंडी	NE; 30·0	3·1; 55; 8; 39	Mohali; 6·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Bhakraidi; 2·0; Tue.	.. 6·0	W;t.	..
Tukūm—Gdc.—तुकूम	E; 24·0	2·9; 314; 56; 191	Dhanora; 3·0	Mul; 49·0	Dhanora; 3·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 3·0	W.	Sl(pr).
Tulamār—Gdc.—तुलमार	SE; 40·0	0·1; 54; 9; 32	Pendhari; 5·0	Mul; 65·0	Pendhari; 5·0; Thu.	Gadhchiroli; 40·0	W;rv.	dg; ch.
Tulanā—Raj.—तुलना	S; 4·0	6·2; 266; 58; 149	Warur; 3·0	Manikgad; 10·0	Rajura; 4·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl(pr); t.
Tulānā—War.—तुलाना	W; 3·0	3·2; 524; 115; 304	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0	Warora; 3·0; Sun.	Warora; 3·0	rv.	Sl(pr); t.
Tulān Mālagujārī—Bhm.—तुलान मालगुजारी	S; 8·0	0·4; 435; 75; 251	Mendaki; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Mendaki; 3·0, Tue.	Mendaki; 3·0	t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Tulasi—Raj.—तुलसी	W; 37·0	1·7; 131; 27; 44	Kodsi Bk. 3·0	Manikgad; 39·0	Korpana; 7·0, Fri.	.. 7·0	rv.	..
Tulasi—Gdc.—तुलसी	N; 37·0	2·1; 1179; 257; 680	Visora; 1·0	Desaiganj; 4·0	Desaiganj; 4·0; Sun.	.. 1·6	W;t.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Tulatuli—Gdc.—तुलतुली	NE; 31·0	1·8; 151; 31; 103	Delanwadi; 5·0	Wadsa; 32·0	Delanwadi; 5·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t	..
Tulhān Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—तुलहान मेंढा	SW; 8·6	0·6; 271; 59; 167	Mendaki; 2·6	Brahmapuri; 8·6	Mendaki; 2·6; Tue.	Mendali; 2·6	W	Sl(pr); t.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Tumaḍikāsā—Gdc.—तुमडीकामा	E; 63·0	N.A.; 77; 15; 45	Yerkad; 9·0	Mul; 25·0	Murumgaon; 2·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 2·0	p.	..
Tumaḍi Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—तुमडी मेंढा	W; 5·0	3·2; 24; 7; 10	Brahmapuri; 5·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 5·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 5·0	W.	tl.
Tumagāṅv—War.—तुमगांव	N; ..	3·4; 569; 127; 301	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Tumanūr—Srn.—तुमनूर	SE; 9·0	1·1; 197; 44; 101	Janampalli; 8·0	Balharshah; 138·0	Sironcha; 9·0; Mon.	Sironcha; 9·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr).
Tumaraguḍā Bk.—Srn.—तुमरगुडा बु.	N; ..	4·0; 268; 44; 155	Yetapalli; 1·0	Balharshah; 83·0	Allapalli; 20·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 20·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Tumuraguṇḍā—Gdc.—तुमुरगुंडा	S; ..	0·3; 99; 15; 58	Lagam; 2·0	Balharshah; 52·0	Lagam; 2·0; Tue.	Lagam; 2·0	W.	ch.
Tumarīkasā—Srn.—तुमरीकसा	N; ..	N.A.; 41; 9; 16	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Turremarakā—Srn.—तुर्रेमरका	NE; 130·0	0·01; 22; 5; 8	Bhamaragad; 30·0	.. ..	Allapalli; 74·0; Sun.	Aheri; 78·0	n.	ch.
Tutekanhāḷ—Gdc.—तुतेकन्हाळ	NE; 63·0	3·3; 58; 8; 40	Kurkheda; 24·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Belgaon; 4·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 24·0	W;t.	tl; ch.
Ubāḍalī—Gdc.—उबाडली	NE; 42·0	2·8; 51; 10; 32	Malevada; 4·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 21·0	W;n.	ch.
Ucalī—Bhm.—उचली	NW; 6·0	1·3; 202; 27; 104	Nanheri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0	Brahmapuri; 6·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Udāpūr—Bhm.—उदापूर	S; 2·0	1·2; 919; 170; 483	Brahmapuri; 3·0	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Brahmapuri; 3·0; Fri.	Brahmapuri; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Udegāṅv—Gdc.—उदेगांव	E; 15·0	2·5; 146; 27; 89	Chatgaon; 2·0	Mul; 37·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; ..	Girola; 2·0	W;t.	..
Uḍerā (Surveyed)—Srn.—उडेरा (सर्व्हेड)	N; 77·0	6·2; 411; 71; 239	Yetapalli; 6·0	Balharshah; 86·0	Allapalli; 24·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch.
Ukharḍā—War.—उखर्डा	NW; ..	5·0; 300; 67; 163	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Umānūr—Srn.—उमानूर	N; 26·0	0·8; 88; 18; 33	Kamalapur; 9·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	..
Umānūr Masāhat—Srn.—उमानूर मसाहत	N; 30·0	0·1; 37; 7; 18	Kamalapur; 12·0	Balharshah; 110·0	Bamani; 12·0; Sun.	Stage; 0·1	W.	..
Umaragāṅv—Bhm.—उमरगांव	SW; 25·0	0·9; 51; 10; 19	Vadhona; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Chikhalgaon; 3·0	W;n.	tl.
Umaragaṭṭā—Srn.—उमरगट्टा	NE; 106·4	1·1; 17; 3; 9	Jaravandi; 0·4	Alevahi; 1·6	Vadhona; .. Sun.	Aheri; 55·4	W;t.	tl.
Umarapāl—Gdc.—उमरपाल	NE; 75·0	0·1; 28; 4; 19	Malevada; 4·0	Balharshah; 171·4	Aheri; 58·4; Sat.	Kurkheda; 24·0	W;n.	..
Umarapāḷā—Gdc.—उमरपाला	E; 41·0	0·4; 56; 10; 34	Yerkadmohad; 12·0	Wadsa; 40·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Murumgaon; 5·0	n.	Cs; tl.
Umarvāhī—Bhm.—उमरवाही	SW; 40·0	0·8; 309; 68; 148	Gadhori; 1·0	Desaiganj; 45·0	Murumgaon; 5·0; Tue.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; 3 Cs; 3 tl; dg; ch; lib.
Umarī—Chd.—उमरी	E; ..	2·4; 84; 16; 51	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Umarī—Gdc.—उमरी	NE; 20·0	0·9; 46; 10; 20	Delanwadi; 5·0	Wadsa; 17·0	Delanwadi; 5·0, Sat.	Armori; 12·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Umarī—Gdc.—उमरी	SW; 39·0	1·2; 317; 71; 179	Konsari; 2·0	Balharshah; 38·0	Ashti; 4·0, Fri.	Ashti; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Umarī—War.—उमरी	NE; ..	0·6; 184; 36; 94	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Umarī Buṭī—War.—उमरी बुटी	NE; 37·0	0·8; 66; 16; 43	Pimpalneri; 2·0	.. 17·0	Jambulghat; 3·0, Tue.	.. 1·0	W;n.	Cs; tl.
Umarī Potadār—Chd.—उमरी पोतदार	E; ..	0·8; 517; 100; 284	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Umarī Raiyyatavārī—War.—उमरी रैयतवारी	N; ..	1·4; 396; 89; 224	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W	..
Umarī Rīṭh—Chd.—उमरी रीठ	NE; 8·0	2·1; 134; 40; 12	Tadali; 0·4	Tadali; 0·4	Tadali; 0·4; Thu.	Tadali; 0·4	W.	tl.
Umarī Tukūm—Chd.—उमरी तुकूम	E; 5·2	0·2; 19; 5; 19	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Uparī—Chd.—उपरी ..	E; 52·0	1·2; 865; 169; 500	Nilsani 2·0 Pethgaon;	Mul; 24·0	Vyahad Kh.; 8·0; Mon.	Vyahad Kh.; 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Upparavāī—Raj.—उप्परवाई ..	W; 12·0	2·0; 598; 122; 282	Chandur; 4·0	Manikgad; 14·0	Chandur; 4·0; Tue.	Hardona Bk.; 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Urāḍī—Gdc.—उराडी ..	N; 27·0	3·0; 700; 141; 440	Sonsari; ..	Wadsa; ..	Sonsari; .. Wed.	Kurkheda; 14·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Urakuḍapār—War.—उरकुडपार ..	NE; 43·0	1·8; 224; 46; 146	Chimur; 5·0	Warora; 41·0	Chimur; 5·0; Fri.	Chimur; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Usagāṅv—Chd.—उसगांव ..	W; 16·0	3·5; 712; 140; 406	Ghugus; 3·0	Ghugus; 3·0	Ghugus; 3·0; Sun.	Chanda; 16·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dh.
Uśarāpār—Bhm.—उशरापार ..	S; 30·0	1·5; 368; 56; 219	Palebarsa; ..	Sindevahi; 18·0	Pathari; 6·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 18·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Uśarāpār Tukūm—Bhm.—उशरापार तुकूम ..	S; 32·0	0·6; 148; 28; 85	Palebarsa; ..	Sindevahi; 20·0	Pathari; 6·0; Fri.	Sindevahi; 18·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Usegāṅv—Chd.—उसेगांव ..	NE; 38·6	2·3; 1189; 244; 759	Saoli; 4·0	Mul; 11·6	Saoli; 4·6; Thu.	Saoli; 4·6	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Usegāṅv—Gdc.—उसेगांव ..	N; 27·0	1·6; 83; 16; 43	Kural; 5·0	Desaiganj; 7·0	Desaiganj; 7·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Usegāṅv—Gdc.—उसेगांव ..	E; 7·0	0·5; 103; 18; 65	Ambeshioni; 2·0	Mul; 32·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 7·0	W;rv.	..
Usegāṅv—War.—उसेगांव ..	NE; 39·0	1·4; 670; 130; 388	Neri; 3·0	21·0	Neri; 3·0; Wed.	Neri; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dh.
Uthaḷapeṭh—Chd.—उथळपेठ ..	E; 26·0	0·6; 283; 45; 184	Chiroli; 2·0	Totevahi; 3·6	Chiroli; 2·0; Sun.	.. 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Uṭī Mālagujārī—Bhm.—उटी मालगुजारी ..	SW; 38·0	0·6; 169; 34; 48	Gadbori; 1·0	Sindevahi; 6·0	Nawargaon; 4·0; Thu.	Sindevahi; 6·0	W.	2tl;dg.
Vaḍadhā—War.—वडधा ..	NE; ..	1·4; 577; 118; 301	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vaḍadhā Tukūm—War.—वडधा तुकूम. ..	NE; ..	0·9; 7; 1; 6	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vaḍagāṅv—Chd.—वडगांव ..	N; 1·6	0·2; 686; 145; 310	Chanda; 1·6	Chanda; 1·6	Chanda; 1·6; Wed.	Chanda; 1·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vaḍagāṅv—Gdc.—वडगांव ..	E; 23·0	0·05; 41; 7; 20	Dhanora; 2·0	Mul; 48·0	Dhanora; 2·0; Thu.	Dhanora; ..	rv;n.	..
Vaḍagāṅv—Gdc.—वडगांव ..	SE; 46·0	3·4; 149; 22; 84	Yerkad; 25·0	Mul; 72·0	Murum-gaon; 18·0; Tue.	Murumgaon; 18·0	W.	..
Vaḍagāṅv—Gdc.—वडगांव ..	N; 57·0	4·9; 1071; 222; 650	Kurkheda; 7·0	Wadsa; 19·0	Kurkheda; 7·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 7·0	W;t.	..
Vaḍagāṅv—Raj.—वडगांव ..	W; 20·0	2·1; 583; 136; 361	Chandur; 6·0	Manikgad; 22·0	Chandur; 6·0; Tue.	Chandur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vaḍagāṅv—War.—वडगांव ..	W; ..	0·8; 191; 36; 108	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Vaḍagāṅv—War.—वडगांव ..	N; 18·0	1·3; 313; 71; 179	Barvha; 2·0	Nagri; 3·0	Nagri; 3·0; Tue.	Khambada; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Vaḍagāṅv—War.—वडगांव ..	N; 19·0	2·4; 385; 79; 224	Sakhara; 2·0	Warora; 19·0	Sakhara; 2·0; Sun.	Charaon Bk.; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍagāṅv Urf Gaṇeśapūr—Gdc.—वडगांव उर्फ गणेशपूर.	NE; 84·0	0·6; 173; 32; 110	Balegaon; 10·0	Wadsa; 54·0	Korchi; 10·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 36·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍakulī—Chd.—वडकुली ..	E; ..	1·3; 677; 124; 384	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vaḍāḷā—War.—वडाळा ..	NE; 20·0	5·2; 364; 76; 217	Viloda; 2·0	Warora; 24·0	Chandan-kheda; 5·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 6·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍāḷā Paiku—War.—वडाळा पैकु ..	NE; 35·0	2·4; 546; 124; 279	Pimpalneri; 1·0	Balharshah; 58·0	Chimur; 1·0; Fri.	Chimur; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍālāpeṭ—Srn.—वडालापेट ..	NW; 72·0	0·8; 171; 36; 100	Bori; 2·0	Desaiganj; 1·0	Bori; 2·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Vaḍasā—Gdc.—वडसा ..	N; 28·0	3·0; 1823; 376; 781	Kurud; 1·0		Desaiganj; 1·0; Sun.	Desaiganj; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahadev Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 2 tl; dg; dp.
Vaḍasākalā—Srn.—वडसाकला ..	N; 129·0	7·9; 236; 39; 152	Jaravandi; 3·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Aheri; 61·0; Sat.	Aheri; 62·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Vaḍasā Kh.—Srn.—वडसा खु. ..	N; 128·0	2·0; 99; 16; 54	Jaravandi; 2·0	Balharshah; 116·0	Aheri; 60·0; Sat.	Aheri; 60·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍasī—War.—वडसी ..	NE; 48·0	0·9; 699; 152; 414	Kevada; 3·0	Warora; 48·0	Vihirgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Chimur; 12·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr,m); 3 tl.
Vāḍavī Masāhat—Srn.—वाडवी मसाहत.	NE; 112·0	0·1; 14; 4; 6	Yetapalli; 32·0	Balharshah; 98·0	Allapalli; 50·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 50·0	W;n.	..
Vāḍegāṅv—Gdc.—वाडेगांव ..	N; 32·0	1·8; 181; 44; 117	Wairagad; 3·0	Wadsa; 22·0	Wairagad; 3·0; Thu.	Armori; 11·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs;. ch.
Vaḍhā—Chd.—वढा ..	SW; 12·0	2·9; 732; 155; 394	Dhanora; 2·0	Ghugus; 4·6	Ghugus; 4·6; Sun.	Chanda; 12·0	rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; wadha, Fr, kt, Sud. 15; 4 tl; gym.
Vaḍholī—Chd.—वढोली ..	E; ..	2·3; 1152; 227; 573	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vāḍhoṇā—Bhm.—वाढोना ..	SW; 27·0	6·3; 2845; 606; 1371	Local; ..	Alevahi; 3·0	Local; .. Sun.	Sawargaon; 2·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Holi Fr, Phg; Sud. 12; Fag. Fr. Phg; 7 tl; mq; lib.
Vāḍhoṇā—Gdc.— वाढोणा ..	N; 25·0	0·8; 187; 36; 129	Armori; 14·0	Wadsa; 15·0	Kurkheda; .. Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Vāḍhoṇā—War.—वाढोणा ..	NE; 45·0	0·7; 157; 29; 101	Bhisi; ..	Kanpa; 21·0	Bhisi; 4·0; Sat.	Bhisi; 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Vaḍidelī—Srn.—वडिदेली ..	E; 23·0	0·7; 87; 17; 41	Sironcha; 23·0	Balharshah; 152·0	Sironcha; 23·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;n.	Cs; tl.
Vaḍidem—Srn.—वडिदेम ..	SE; 13·0	0·5; 217; 50; 98	Ankisa; 5·0	Balharshah; 142·0	Ankisa; 5·0; Tue.	Ankisa; 5·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr.).
Vāgabhūmi—Gdc.—वागभूमि ..	NE; 26·0	2·0; 111; 18; 59	Dhanora; 5·0	Mulmaroda; 51·0	Dhanora; 5·0; Thu.	Dhanora; ..	W;t.	..
Vāgadarā—Gdc.—वागदरा ..	.. ..	2·0; 285; 58; 190	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Vāgadarā Urf Govāra huḍakī—Gdc..—वागदरा उर्फ गोवारहुडकी.	NE; 116·0	2·0; 286; 57; 138	Purada; 2·0	Desaiganj; 23·0	Ramgad; 0·2; Thu.	Kurkheda; 12·0	W;n;t.	..
Vāghabhūmi—Gdc.—वाघभूमि ..	NE; 42·0	2·1; 108; 16; 79	Malevada; 5·0	Wadsa; 42·0	Malevada; 5·0; Sun.	Dhanora; 21·0	n.	..
Vāghāḷā—Gdc.—वाघाळा ..	NE; 23·0	1·2; 766; 139; 384	Armori; 2·0	Desaiganj; 14·0	Armori; 2·0; Fri.	Armori; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāghanakh—War.—वाघनख ..	NW; ..	1·0; 591; 136; 337	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Vāgheḍā—Gdc.—वाघेडा ..	N; 60·0	1·9; 201; 36; 112	Kurkheda; 3·0	Wadsa; 14·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāgheḍā—War.—वाघेडा ..	NE; 46·0	1·1; 466; 94; 290	Masal Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 46·0	Neri; 5·0; Wed.	Neri; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāghejharī—Srn.—वाघेझरी ..	N; 127·0	1·8; 229; 45; 126	Yetapalli; 23·0	Balharshah; 123·0	Aheri; 47·0; Sat.	Aheri; 47·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Vāgholī—Chd.—वाघोली ..	NE; 46·0	0·5; 465; 91; 252	Vyahad Bk.; 2·0	Mul; 20·0	Vyahad Kh.; 6·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; ch.
Vāgholī—Gdc.—वाघोली ..	SW; 30·0	3·7; 939; 194; 506	Bhendala; 3·0	Mul; 10·0	Bhendala; 3·0; Mon.	Mul; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Vāgholī—War.—वाघोली ..	NE; 0·7	0·7; 75; 15; 42	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0	Warora; 9·0	Shegaon Bk.; 3·0; Mon.	Mesa; 1·0	W;n.	tl.
Vāhānagāṅv Raiyyatavārī—War.—वाहानगांव रैयतवारी.	NE; ..	3·5; 793; 176; 441	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..
Vaijāpūr—Bhm.—वैजापूर ..	SW; 26·0	0·6; 435; 88; 267	Talodhi; 4·0	Balapur; 9·0	Talodhi; 4·0; Wed.	Talodhi; 4·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Vairāgaḍ—Gdc.— वैरागड ..	N; 29·0	1·2; 2069; 447; 870	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 20·0	Local; .. Thu.	Armori; 8·0	W;rv.	3 Sl (2pr, m); 4Cs; Ekori Fr. Ct; Bhandarehswar Fr, Pandav Fr; Bdp. Sud. 1; 4 tl; 7 m; dg; 8 ch; lib; dp.
Vākaḍī—Gdc.—वाकडी ..	S; 4·0	1·6; 444; 92; 264	Gadhchiroli; 4·0	Mul; 30·0	Gadhchiroli; 4·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Jayanti Fr.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Vākal—Bhm.—वाकल ..	SW; 35·0	2·1; 559; 112; 328	Gadhori; 2·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 3·0	W;n; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Vākarlā—War.—वाकर्ला ..	NE; 53·0	1·3; 722; 158; 426	Sathgaon; 1·0	Kanpa; 12·0	Shankar-pur; 4·0; Mon.	Shankarpur; 5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl..
Vākū—Gdc.—वाकू ..	NE; 64·0	1·2; 275; 57; 189	Kurkheda; 45·0	Desaiganj; ..	Kotgul; 3·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḷadhā—Gdc.—वळधा ..	N; 16·0	2·0; 1520; 314; 875	Local; ..	Wadsa; 24·0	Deloda Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	Kitali; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Valanī—Bhm.—वलनी ..	SW; 12·0	1·3; 575; 130; 349	Sawargaon; 1·0	Balapur; 6·0	Talodhi; 2·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Valaṇī—Chd.—वलणी ..	E; 10·0	1·5; 238; 49; 142	Chichpalli; 4·0	Chanda; 10·0	Chichpalli; 4·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vālasarā—Gdc.—वालसरा ..	S; 18·0	2·0; 551; 115; 339	Amgaon; 1·6	Mul; 22 0	Chamorshi; 4·0; Sat.	Ghot; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāmanapallī—Chd.—वामनपल्ली ..	SE; ..	1·0; 138; 31; 99	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv;t.	..
Vanakheḍā—Gdc.—वानखेडा ..	NE; 31·0	1·8; 14; 2; 7	Delanwadi; 4·0	Wadsa; 34·0	Delanwadi; 4·0; Sat.	.. 20·0	t.	..
Vānakheḍā—Gdc.—वानखेडा ..	NE; 14·0	0·6; 201; 41; 133	Moushi Khamb; 1·0	Wadsa; 28·0	Gilgaon; 4·0; Fri.	Gadhchiroli; 14·0	W;t.	Sl(pr);Cs(gr);tl.
Vanakhī—Gdc.—वनखी ..	N; 18·0	2·1; 413; 85; 239	Wasala; 1·0	Desaiganj; 18·0	Armori; 6·0; Fri.	Armori; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Vānaracuvā—Gdc.—वानरचुवा ..	S; 18·0	0·1; 50; 12; 35	Muranda; 3·0	Mul; 42·0	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 10·0	W.	..
Vānaracuvā—Gdc.—वानरचुवा ..	N; 18·0	1·4; 72; 14; 42	Delanwadi; 3·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Delanwadi; 3·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	..
Vandhalī—War.—वंधली ..	W; 9·0	2·2; 612; 138; 359	Panzurni; 3·0	Dongargaon; 4·0	Madheli; 3·0; Mon.	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 3 Cs; Mahashivratra; Fr. Mg. Vad. 14 2 tl; Ch; lib.
Vāndharī—Chd.—वांढरी ..	NW; ..	1·3; 153; 35; 90	Chanda; 5·4	Tadali; 4·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Morwa; 2·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāndolī—Srn.—वांडोली ..	NE; 115·0	3·8; 18; 3; 13	Jaranvandi; 10·0	Balharshah; 178·0	Aheri; 68·0; Sat.	Aheri; 64·0	W;n.	tl.
Vāndrā—Bhm.—वांद्रा ..	SE; 16·0	2·2; 769; 140; 482	Avalgaon; 2·0	Brahmpuri; 16·0	Gangalvadi; 5·0; Sat.	Gangalvadi; 5·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Vānerī—Bhm.—वानेरी ..	SW; 36·0	0·5; 710; 136; 424	Gadbori; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0	Sindevahi; 3·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 3·0	W;t;n.	Sl (pr); Pyt; Cs; 2 tl; ch; lib.
Vāngepallī—Srn.—वांगेपल्ली ..	N; 61·4	2·8; 439; 77; 188	Aheri; 2·6	Balharshah; 62·0	Aheri; 2·6; Sat.	Aheri; 2·6	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Vāngeturī—Srn.—वांगेतुरी ..	NE; 160·0	3·6; 158; 21; 62	Ghotsur; 20·0	Balharshah; 160·0	Irpanar; 14·0; ..	Yetapalli; 50·0	W;n.	ch.
Vaṇī—Raj.—वणी ..	SW; 45·0	0·4; 115; 21; 78	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vānonā—Raj.—वानोना ..	W; 25·0	1·5; 466; 103; 262	Antaragon Bk.; 2·9	Chandrapur; 20·0	Vansadi; 4·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); tl.
Vanojā—War.—वनोजा ..	W; ..	3·5; 592; 95; 326	Warora; ..	Warora; ..	Warora; .. Sun.	Warora; ..	W;t.	..
Vansaḍī—Raj.—वन्सडी ..	W; 26·0	0·7; 556; 131; 303	Korpana; 5·0	Manikgad; 28·2	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; dh.
Varār Maktā—War.—वरार मक्ता ..	N; 19·0	0·4; 135; 34; 81	Sakhara Rajapur; 4·0	Warora; 19·0	Sakhara Rajapur; 4·0; Sun.	Wadadha; ..	W.	2 tl.
Varavaṭ—Chd.—वखट ..	N; 9·0	3·3; 854; 165; 519	Durgapur; 5·0	Chanda; 9·0	Chanda; 9·0; Wed.	Chanda; 9·0	W.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Vāravī—Gdc.—वाखी ..	NE; 117·0	1·5; 156; 30; 108	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Ramgad; 3·0; Thu.	Kurkheda; 12·0	W;n.	
Varkekasā—Gdc.—वर्केकसा ..	NE; ..	0·1; 23; 5; 13	Yerkad; 2·0	.. 39·0	Dhanora; 7·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 6·0	n.	
Varoḍā—Raj.—वरोडा ..	NW; 11·0	2·9; 295; 63; 165	Nandgaon; 2·0	Manikgad; 14·0	Chandur; 8·0; Tue.	Local; W.	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Varoḍā Colliery—War.—वरोडा कॉलरी.	E; ..	0·5; Included	in	Urban ..	Area I	.. ..	W.	..
Varoḍā (Urban Area I)—War.—वरोडा (नागरी विभाग)	HQ;	6·3; 14148; 2977; 981	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;pl.	Hanuman Fr. Ct.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Varur—Gdc.—वरूर ..	S; 30·0	0·5; 240; 44; 156	Ghot; 3·0	Balharshah; 60·0	Ghot; 3·0; Tue.	Ghot; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Varur—Raj.—वरूर ..	S; 5·0	2·6; 938; 195; 416	Local; ..	Manikgad; 10·0	Bhedoda; 2·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; dg.
Vāsā—Gdc.—वासा ..	N; 13·0	1·7; 946; 186; 487	Porla; 1·0	Wadsa; 23·0	Porla; 1·0; Tue.	Porla; 1·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Vāsāḷā—Gdc.—वासाळा ..	N; 16·0	1·7; 1846; 360; 865	Local; ..	Desaiganj; 17·0	Armori; 5·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W;t.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); 3 Cs; Mengnah Fr. Kt; 5 tl. ch;lib.
Vāsaḷ Maktā—Bhm.—वासळ मक्ता ..	SW; 11·0	1·8; 39; 8; 22	Mindala; 0·5	Nagbhid; 6·0	Mindala; 0·5; Sun.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	..
Vāsaḷ Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—वासळ मेंढा ..	SW; 12·0	1·8; 518; 101; 318	Mindala; 0·4	Nagbhid; 6·0	Mindala; 0·4; Sun.	Nagbhid; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāsāmoṇḍī—Srn.—वासामोंडी ..	N; 85·0	3·8; 202; 36; 110	Yetapalli; ..	Balharshah; 100·0	Aheri; 30·0 Sat.	Yetapalli; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Vāserā—Bhm.—वासेरा ..	SW; 41·0	3·1; 1794; 370; 873	Shioni; 3·0	Sindevahi; 9·0	Sindevahi; 8·0; Mon.	Sindevahi; 8·0	..	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs; Shankarpat Fr. January 2 tl; lib.
Vāsī—Gdc.— वासी ..	N; 26·0	2·1; 262; 54; 168	Sonsari; ..	Wadsa; ..	Kadholi; 2·0; Mon.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Vaṭarā Bk. Masāhat—Srn.—वटरा बु. मसाहत.	N; 63·0	0·2; 70; 17; 48	Devalmarri; 6·0	Balharshah; 78·0	Aheri; 16·0; Sat.	Aheri; 16·0	rv.	..
Vaṭarā Bk. (Surveyed)—Srn.—वटरा बु. (सर्व्हेड).	N; 65·0	0·6; 97; 16; 63	Devalmarri; 8·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Aheri; 18·0; Sat.	Aheri; 18·0	rv.	..
Vaṭarā Kh. (Surveyed)—Srn.—वटरा खु. (सर्व्हेड) ..	N; 67·0	1·0; 248; 43; 136	Devalmarri; 10·0	Balharshah; 80·0	Aheri; 20·0; Sat.	Aheri; 20·0	rv.	Sl (pr);
Vaṭarāṇā—Chd.—वटराना ..	SE; ..	0·5; 173; 39; 99	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	..
Vaṭelī—Srn.—वटेली ..	NE; 116·0	0·2; 118; 18; 36	Yetapalli; 36·0	Balharshah; 102·0	Allapalli; 54·0 Sun.	Allapalli; 54·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Vaṭelī—Srn.—वटेली ..	NE; 98·0	6·2; 162; 29; 108	Kandoli; 12·0	Balharshah; 165·0	Allapalli; 42·0; Tue.	Aheri; 47·0	W;n.	Sl (pr).
Vāṭhoḍā—War.—वाठोडा ..	N; 16·0	1·7; 289; 61; 158	Kosarsar; 1·0	Warora; 16·0	Kosarsar; 1·0; Sat.	Khambada; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Vaṭṭegaṭṭā—Srn.—वट्टेगट्टा ..	N; 123·0	0·2; 112; 16; 55	Yetapalli; 19·0	Balharshah; 119·0	Aheri; 43·0; Sat.	Aheri; 43·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Vāyagāṅv—Bhm.—वायगांव ..	SW; 8·0	2·4; 762; 151; 399	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Brahmapuri; 8·0	Brahmapuri 8·0; Fri.	Kirmiti Mendha; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Vāyagāṅv—Chd.—वायगांव ..	NE; 11·0	0·4; 324; 66; 131	Chanda; 11·0	Chanda; 11·0	Chanda; 11·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāyagāṅv—Gdc.—वायगांव ..	SW; 33·0	0·7; 317; 64; 187	Chittaranjan; 2·0	Mul; 26·0	Adyal; 4·0; Sat.	Ashti; 12·0	W;t.	Sl(pr);Cs;tl; Ch;lib.
Vāyagāṅv Bhoyar—War.—वायगांव भोयर.	NE; 17·0	1·5; 744; 146; 363	Chargaon Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 17·0	Chargaon Kh.; .. Tue.	Chargaon Bk.; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāyagāṅv Raiyyatavārī—War.—वायगांव रैयतवारी. ..	E; 16·0	1·6; 83; 15; 39	Chandan-kheda; 4·0	Warora; 16·0	Chandan-kheda; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Vāyagāṅv Tukūm—War.—वायगांव तुकूम.	E; 23·0	2·1; 1016; 220; 587	Chora; 3·0	Warora; 23·0	Chandan-kheda; 3·0; Thu.	Shegaon Bk.; 10·0	W;t.	..
Veḍagāṅv—Chd.—वेडगांव ..	SE; ..	3·8; 587; 132; 382	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Veḍamapallī—Srn.—वेडमपल्ली ..	N; 78·0	0·2; 83; 13; 46	Aheri; 24·0	Balharshah; 88·0	Allapalli; 21·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W;rv.	..
Vejagāṅv—Chd.—वेजगांव ..	SE; ..	3·5; 565; 110; 355	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr; m); pyt; Cs; tl.
Velagur—Srn.—वेलगुर ..	NW; 63·0	4·2; 1126; 258; 575	Local; ..	Balharshah; 68·0	Allapalli; 8·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 8·0	W;t.	Dasara Fr. An. Sud. 10;
Velamāgaḍ—Srn.—वेलमागड ..	NE; 113·0	3·7; 34; 9; 23	Jaravndi; 7·0	Balharshah; 175·0	Aheri; 65·0; Sat.	Aheri; 61·0	W;rv; n.	tl.

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Velatūr Tukūm—Gdc.—वेलतूर तुकूम	SW; 29·0	1·0; 473; 92; 302	Bhendala; 3·0	Mul; 11·0	Bhendala; 3·0; Mon.	Mul; 11·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl.
Veḷavā—Chd.—वेळवा ..	E; ..	1·2; 847; 179; 512	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv; t.	..
Venāsar—Srn.—वेनासर ..	N; 108·0	0·2; 46; 10; 27	Ghotsur; 6·3	Mul; 74·0	Gadhchiroli; 39·4; Sun.	Kasansoor; 0·3	W;n.	tl.
Vendalī—Chd.—वेंदली ..	W; 5·0	2·4; 530; 105; 325	Dhanora; 1·6	Chanda; 5·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Chanda; 5·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Veṅkaṭapūr—Srn.—वेंकटपूर ..	N; 11·0	1·9; 238; 57; 105	Tekda(Talla); 4·0	Manchariyal; 36·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;n.	Sl(pr);2tl.
Veṅkaṭāpūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—वेंकटापूर (सर्व्हे).	N; 34·0	0·9; 175; 37; 98	.. 10·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 14·0	rv;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Veṅkaṭarāv Peṭā—Srn.—वेंकटराव पेटा	N; ..	1·0; 973; 207; 415	Indaram; 1·0	Balharshah; 66·0	Aheri; 4·0 Sat.	Aheri; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Vennelāyā—Srn.—वेन्नेलाया ..	N; 16·0	1·9; 299; 55; 126	Tekda (Talla); 8·0	Manchariyal; 41·0	Venkatapur; 4·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W;n; str.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vicoḍā Bk.—Chd.—विचोडा बु. ..	N; 5·0	1·4; 223; 47; 106	Chanda; 5·0	Padoli; 1·6	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Morwa; 52·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vicoḍā Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—विचोडा रैयतवारी.	N; 5·0	1·0; 281; 54; 178	Paili Bhatali; 3·0	Chanda; 5·0	Chanda; 5·0; Wed.	Chanda; 5·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vicorā—Chd.—विचोरा ..	NE; 42·0	1·2; 211; 39; 120	Vyahad Bk.; ..	Mul; 15·0	Vyahad Kh.; 1·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W;t.	tl; ch.
Vihīragāṅv—Bhm.—विहीरगांव ..	S; 26·0	3·0; 1022; 206; 478	Local; ..	Sindevahi; 35·0	Local; .. Sat.	Vyahad; 12·0	W;t.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 2 tl; gym; ch; lib.
Vihīragāṅv—Chd.—विहीरगांव ..	SE; ..	1·0; 312; 61; 178	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Vihīragāṅv—Chd.—विहीरगांव ..	NE; 27·0	1·3; 509; 111; 222	Mul; 1·0	Mul; 1·0	Mul; 0·4; Wed.	.. 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vihīragāṅv—Gdc.—विहीरगांव ..	NE; 23·0	0·8; 259; 50; 154	Wairagad; 5·0	Desaiganj; 24·0	Wairagad; 5·0; Thu.	Mul; 9·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Vihīragāṅv—Gdc.—विहीरगांव ..	S; 7·0	1·1; 326; 62; 189	Gurwala; 2·0	Mul; 34·0	Gadhchiroli; 7·0; Sun.	.. 8·0	W;t.	Sl (pr).
Vihīragāṅv—Gdc.—विहीरगांव ..	N; 39·0	2·2; 527; 110; 274	Kokadi; 1·0	Desaiganj; 8·0	Desaiganj; 8·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 8·0	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Vihīragāṅv—Raj.—विहीरगांव ..	E; 8·0	9·1; 961; 223; 474	Local; ..	Local; ..	Rajura; 8·0; Sat.	Shankarpur; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Vihīragāṅv—War.—विहीरगांव ..	E; 45·0	6·9; 623; 138; 386	Palasgaon; 2·0	Warora; 45·0	Local; .. Sun.	Rajura; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Vihīragāṅv Tukūm—War.—विहीरगांव तुकूम.	E; 46·0	0·9; 239; 48; 141	Palasgaon; 2·0	Warora; 46·0	Vihirgaon; 1·0; Sun.	Neri; 6·0	W.	tl.
Vilam—Bhm.—विलम ..	W; 12·0	1·2; 718; 149; 375	Local; ..	Nagbhid; 4·0	Nagbhid; 4·0; Thu.	Neri; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; ch.
Viloḍā—War.—विलोडा ..	E; 22·0	2·3; 1022; 211; 584	Local; ..	Warora; 22·0	Chandankheda; 2·0; Thu.	Bhikeshwar; 2·7	W.	Sl(pr);pyt;Cs;2tl; lib.
Viraī—Chd.—विरई ..	E; 35·0	2·4; 984; 229; 570	Chichala; 2·0	Mul; 7·0	Rajgadh; 4·0; Fri.	Shegaon Bk.; 9·0	W.	
Viravhā—Bhm.—विरव्हा ..	SW; 38·0	1·3; 736; 148; 409	Petgaon; 1·0	Rajoli; 2·0	Rajoli; 2·0; Sat.	Chandrapur; 4·0	W;pl.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 3 tl; m; ch.
Virśi Tukūm—Gdc.—विर्शि तुकूम ..	N; 32·0	2·4; 3241; 5573; 580	Desaiganj; 0·3	Desaiganj; 0·3	Desaiganj; 0·3; Sun.	Rajoli; 2·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr,m); pyt; Cs; tl; 2 lib.
Virur—Raj.—विरुर ..	SE; 12·0	5·7; 1862; 391; 584	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Desaiganj; 0·3	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; tl; mq; dg.
Virur (Gāḍegāṅv)—Raj.—विरुर (गाडेगांव).	NW; 18·0	2·5; 828; 187; 432	Local; ..	Manikgad; 20·0	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	.. 7·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; lib; dp.
						Chandur; 10·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.

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Visalon—War.—विसलोन ..	S; 4·0	2·5; 526; 110; 250	Nandori Bk.; 2·0	Warora; 4·0	Warora; 4·0; Sun.	Sembal; 2·0	W;rv; n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Visāmuṇḍī—Srn.—विसामुंडी ..	N; 92·0	3·2; 142; 28; 72	Kandoli (Surveyed); 2·0	Balharshah; 162·0	Allapalli; 30·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 30·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr).
Visāmuṇḍī Urf.Katrangaṭṭā—Srn.—विसामुंडी उर्फ कत्रनगट्टा.	NE; ..	0·2; 103; 20; 64	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Visapūr—Chd.—विसापूर ..	SE; 8·0	4·8; 3327; 1016; 562	Local; ..	Balharshah; 2·0	Ballarpur; 4·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 2 tl; m; dh; lib.
Visāpūr—Gdc.—विसापूर ..	W; 2·0	1·7; 860; 193; 461	Kaneri; 4·0	Mul; 23·0	Gadhchiroli; 2·0; Sun.	Gadhchiroli; 2·0	W;rv; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib;
Visāpūr Raiyyatavārī—War.—विसापूर रैयतवारी.	E; 19·0	1·0; 258; 55; 152	Chora; 3·0	Bhadravati; 9·0	Chandankheda; 5·0; Thu.	Chandankheda; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Visorā—Gdc.—विसोरा ..	N; 36·0	4·5; 2079; 415; 790	Local; ..	Wadsa; 4·0	Desaiganj; 4·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W;t; pl.	2 Sl (pr,m); 2 Cs (c, frm); 4 tl.
Viṭhalavāḍā—Chd.—विठलवाडा ..	SE; ..	3·7; 1379; 279; 765	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Viṭṭhalagāṅv—Gdc.—विठ्ठलगांव ..	N; 37·0	0·8; 202; 41; 112	Kokadi; 2·0	Wadsa; 6·0	Desaiganj; 6·0; Sun.	Shankarpur; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Viṭṭhalarāvapeṭā Mālaguzārī—Srn. विठ्ठलरावपेटा मालगुजारी.	N; ..	0·5; 249; 48; 84	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Viṭṭhalarāvapeṭā Wasteland—Srn.—विठ्ठलरावपेटा वेस्टलॅंड.	N; 23·0	1·9; 352; 78; 141	Regunta; 1·0	Manchariyal; 48·0	Bamani; 13·0; Sun.	Bamani; 13·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Viyamāpallī—Srn.—वियमापल्ली ..	N; 6·0	0·7; 20; 5; 10	Sironcha; 6·0	Manchariyal; 40·0	Sironcha; 6·0 Mon.	.. 1·0	n.	..
Vyāhāḍ Bk.—Chd.—व्याहाड बु. ..	NE; 44·0	8·0; 2349; 520; 1150	Local; ..	Mul; 17·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 1·0	W;t; cl.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 3 tl; dh; 2 lib; 2 dp
Vyāhāḍ kh.—Chd.—व्याहाड खु. ..	NE; 42·0	0·9; 1007; 181; 585	Mokhala; 2·0	Mul; 14·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;t; cl.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
VyāhāḍNayā (Refugee Cāmp)—Chd.—व्याहाड नया (निर्वासित छावणी). ..	NE; 42·0	NA; 334; 66; 169	Mokhala; 3·0	Mul; 14·0	Vyahad Kh; 1·0; Mon.	Local; 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Vyaṅkaṭapūr—Chd.—व्यंकटपूर ..	SE; ..	0·8; 188; 39; 113	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	t.	..
Yecilī—Srn.—येचिली ..	NE; 60·0	8·8; 496; 119; 274	Kamalapur; 12·0	Balharshah; 125·0	Allapalli; 40·0; Sun.	Kamalapur; 14·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Yeḍajāl—Gdc.—येडजाल ..	NE; 60·0	0·1; 16; 2; 12	Kurkheda; 38·0	Wadsa; 65·0	Kotgul; 8·0; Fri.	Murumgaon; 27·0	W.	..
Yeḍamapallī—Srn.—येडमपल्ली ..	NE; 35·0	0·4; 192; 40; 144	Kamalapur; 7·0	Balharshah; 97·0	Kamalapur; 7·0; Sun.	Gundera; 5·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Yeḍamapāyalī—Gdc.—यडमपायली ..	SE; 50·0	2·8; 55; 9; 30	Pendhari; 18·0	Mul; 70·0	Pendhari; 18·0; Thu.	Pendhari; ..	W;rv.	..
Yeḍamapāyalī Kh.—Gdc.—येडमपायली खु.	SE; 22·0	3·9; 150 25; 93	Karwafa; 10·0	Mul; 59·0	Potegaon; 6·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr);.
Yeḍanūr—Gdc.—येडनूर ..	S; 18·0	1·4; 242; 51; 150	Muranda; 2·0	Mul; 42·0	Talodhi 6·0; Wed.	Talodhi Mokasa; 3·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Yeḍāpūr—Gdc.—येडापूर ..	NE; 117·0	1·9; 342; 67; 244	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Mokasa; Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	W;t; n.	Sl (pr); Cs. ..
Yeḍaraṅgā—Srn.—यडरंगा ..	NE; 31·0	0·8; 73; 14; 45	Kamalapur; 11·0	Balharshah; 103·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	Umanur; 3·0	W;n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Yeḍasagondī—Gdc.—येडसगोंदी ..	SE; 42·0	0·05; 19; 3; 12	Pendhari; 10·0	Mul; 62·0	Pendhari; 10·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;n.	..
Yeḍasagondī (Surveyed)—Srn.—येडसगोंदी (सर्व्हेड).	NE; 103·0	32·2; 50; 10; 17	Yetapalli; 36·0	Balharshah; 152·0	Allapalli; 58·0; Sun.	Allapalli; 58·0	Str.	dh.
Yedāsakuhī—Gdc.—येदासकुही ..	NE; 74·0	1·1; 64; 9; 48	Malevada; 4·0	Wadsa; 38·0	Malevada; 4·0; Sun.	Kurkheda; 23·0	W;rv; n.	..
Yekalapūr—Gdc.—येकलपूर ..	N; 38·0	1·4; 523; 98; 304	Visora; 2·0	Wadsa; 5·0	Desaiganj; 5·0; Sun.	Visora; 2·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Yekanasūr (Surveyed)—Srn.—येकनसूर (सर्व्हेड).	N; 72·0	1·4; 124; 24; 72	Yetapalli; 15·0	Balharshah; 109·0	Aheri; 38·0; Sat.	Aheri; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Yekārā—Bhm.—येकारा ..	SW; 29·0	2·7; 385; 87; 235	Mendki; 14·0	.. 8·0	Mendki; 8·0; Tue.	.. ..	W;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Yekoḍī—Gdc.—येकोडी ..	SW; 32·0	1·8; 202; 45; 126	Bori; 3·0	Mul; 15·0	Bhendala; 4·0; Mon.	Mul; 15·0	W.	tl.
Yelā—Srn.—येला ..	N; 24·0	1·2; 733; 172; 351	Regunta Malgujari; 2·0	Manchariyal; 49·0	Bamani; 10·0; Sun.	Bamani; 14·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Yelamagaḍ—Gdc.—येलमगड ..	NE; 46·0	3·3; 15; 4; 11	Malevada; 10·0	Wadsa; 47·0	Malevada; 10·0; Sun.	Murumgaon; 25·0	n.	..
Yelāram—Srn.—येलारम ..	NE; 32·0	2·4; 100; 17; 56	Aheri; 46·0	Balharshah; 105·0	Aheri; 42·0; Sat.	Jimalgatta; 14·0	W.	..
Yellāpūr—Raj.—येल्लापूर ..	W; 40·0	1·4; 71; 14; 42	Korpana; 6·0	Manikgad; 40·0	Korpana; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Yellūr—Gdc.—येल्लूर ..	SW; 52·0	1·8; 873; 178; 479	Ashti; 3·0	Balharshah; 36·0	Ashti; 2·0; Fri.	Ashti; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Yemalī Masāhat—Srn.—येमली मसाहत. N; 70·0	8·1; 575; 93; 356	Yetapalli; 9·0		Balharshah; 97·0	Allapalli; .. Sun.	Yetapalli; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Yenabothalā—Chd.—येनबोथला ..	SE; ..	2·3; 165; 39; 100	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;rv.	..
Yenagāṅv—Gdc.—येनगांव ..	E; 38·0	0·1; 32; 6; 17	Dhanora; 17·0	Mul; 63·0	Dhanora; 17·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 17·0	W;rv; t.	..
Yenakabaṇḍā—Srn.—येनकाबंडा ..	N; 32·0	4·6; 144; 28; 97	Kamalapur; 10·0	Balharshah; 112·0	Bamani; 14·0; Sun.	Repanpalli; 3·0	W.	..
Yenakāpaltī—येनकापल्ली ..	N; 57·0	1·7; 118; 30; 61	Allapalli; 1·6	Balharshah; 66·0	Allapalli; 1·6 Sun.	Allapalli; 1·6	W;n.	..
Yeṇāpūr—Gdc.—येणापूर ..	S; ..	0·5; 269; 57; 167	Chittaranjan; 0·4	Mul; 25·0	Adyal; .. Sat.	Ashti; 11·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Yeṅgāḍā—Gdc.—येंगाडा ..	NE; 22·0	1·4; 338; 68; 204	Delanwadi; 5·0	Wadsa; 25·0	Delanwadi; 5·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Yeṅgalakheḍā—Gdc.—येंगलखेडा ..	NE; 68·0	1·9; 470; 90; 297	Armori; 24·0	Wadsa; 26·0	Kurkheda; 10·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 10·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; ch.
Yenolī—Bhm.—येनोली ..	SW; 21·0	0·9; 126; 27; 67	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	Balapur Bk.; 2·0; Fri.	Balapur Bk.; 2·0	W;n.	2 Cs; 2 tl.
Yenolī—Bhm.—येनोली ..	SW; 27·0	1·2; 382; 75; 222	Govindapur; 2·0	Balapur; 15·0	Govindapur; 2·0; ..	Nagbhid; 7·0	W;w	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; 2 ch; gym.
Yensā—War.—येन्सा ..	N; ..	3·1; 616; 133; 327	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Ramnavami Fr; Ct; Sud. 9.
Yeragāṅv—Raj.—येरगांव ..	W; 36·0	2·4; 238; 54; 129	Korpana; 6·0	Manikgad; 38·0	Local; .. Sat.	Korpana; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Yeragavhāṇ—Raj.—येरगव्हाण ..	S; 16·0	3·6; 552; 132; 309	Bhedoda; 4·0	Manikgad; 19·0	Bhedoda; 4·0; Fri.	Devada; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Yerakaḍamohāḍ—Gdc.—येरकडमोहाड ..	NE; 29·0	3·7; 731; 148; 403	Local; ..	Mul; 40·0	Dhanora; 7·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 7·0	W;t.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Yerakaḍī—Gdc.—येरकडी ..	NE; 12·0	2·5; 131; 21; 74	Kurkheda; 12·0	Desaiganj; 28·0	Kurkheda; 12·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 12·0	r;n;t.	Sl (pr).
Yerakheḍā—War.—येरखेडा ..	N; 22·0	2·6; 349; 82; 213	Sawari; 3·0	Warora; 22·0	Amadi; 5·0; Sat.	Bothali; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Yerakheḍā—War.—येरखेडा ..	NE; 53·0	0·8; 484; 104; 310	Chimur; 6·0		Chimur; 6·0; Fri.	Chimur; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Yerakuṇḍī—Gdc.—येरकुंडी ..	E; 28·0	N.A. 19; 3; 10	Dhanora; 7·0	Mul; 53·0	Dhanora; 7·0; Thu.	Dhanora; 7·0	rv;n.	..
Yeramī Isāpūr—Raj.—येरमी इसापूर	SW; 25·0	0·3; 90; 17; 53	Chandur; 10·0	Manikgad; ..	Chandur; 10·0; Tue.	Chandur; 10·0	n.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) SPop ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Yeraṇḍī—Gdc.—येरंडी ..	E; 18·0	2·4; 128; 22; 90	Dhanora; 6·0	Mul; 43·0	Dhanora; 6·0; Thu.	Dudhamara; 3·0	W.	..
Yeraṇḍī—Gdc.—येरंडी ..	NE; 51·0	4·0; 219; 39; 131	Desaiganj; 19·0	Wadsa; 19·0	Kurkheda; 3·0; Sat.	Kurkheda; 3·0	W;t.	S! (pr); tl.
Yermānār—Srn.—येर्मानार ..	NE; ..	8·2; 337; 71; 223	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Yerrāgaḍḍā—Srn.—येरागड्डा ..	N; 28·0	1·2; 48; 10; 26	Kamalapur; 15·0	Balharshah; 120·0	Bamani; 16·0; Sun.	Umanur; 2·0	n.	..
Yerur—Chd.—येरुर ..	NE; 10·0	4·5; 689; 148; 402	Tadali; 2·2	Tadali; 2·2	Tadali; 2·2; Thu.	Tadali; 2·0	W.	2 Si (pr,m); pyt; Cs; 3 tl; m.
Yetāpallī—Srn.—येटापल्ली ..	N; 70·0	1·7; 820; 170; 332	Local; ..	Balharshah; ..	Aheri; 30·0; Sat.	Local; ..	W;n;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; m; gym; ch; dp.
Yevalī—Gdc.—येवली ..	S; 7·4	3·8; 1424; 318; 814	Local; ..	Mul; 29·0	Gadchiroli; 7·6; Sun.	Stage; 0·1	W.	2 S! (pr,m); Cs; 2 tl; 2 dg; lib; dp (vet.).
Yevatī—War.—येवती ..	NW; ..	2·7; 693; 178; 391	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;n.	..

* Figures as per Census.

LIST OF THE DESERTED VILLAGES IN CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Name of the Village
A
Abanapallī Masāhat—Srn.—अबनपल्ली मसाहत
Aḍyāḷī—War.—अडचाळी
Aḍyāḷ Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—अडचाळ मेंढा
Ājagāṅv—War.—आजगांव
Ākāpūr Mālagujārī—Chd.—आकापूर मालगुजारी
Ākāpūr Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—आकापूर रैय्यतवारी
Ākāpūr Urf Bijāpūr—Chd.—आकापूर उर्फ बिजापूर.
Aladaṇḍī Urf Tumāraguḍā Masāhat—Srn.—आलदंडी उर्फ तुमारगुडा मसाहत.
Allāpallī—Gdc.—अल्लापल्ली
Āmalā—Bhm.—आमला
Amarāvatī Mālagujārī—Srn.—अमरावती मालगुजारी.
Amarāvatī Patch—Srn.—अमरावती पॅच
Āmbe Dhānorā—Chd.—आंबे धानोरा
Ambejharī—Raj.—अम्बेझरी
Ambhorā—Chd.—अंभोरा
Āmbhorā—War.—आंभोरा
Antāpūr—War.—अंतापूर
Arjunī—Bhm.—अर्जुनी
Āsāpūr—Raj.—आसापूर
Āṣṭī—War.—आष्टी
B
Bāḍaśī—Srn.—बाडशी
Bākharḍā—War.—बाखर्डा
Bālāpūr Tukūm—Bhm.—बालापूर तुकूम
Balhārapūr—War.—बल्हारपूर
Bambejharī—Raj.—बम्बेझरी
Begaḷī—Gdc.—बेगळी
Belagāṅv—Raj.—बेलगांव
Belagāṅv—War.—बेलगांव
Belagāṅv Bhoyar—War.—बेलगांव भोयर
Belaṭek—Gdc.—बेलटेक
Belorā—War.—बेलोरा
Bembaḷ—War.—बेम्बळ
Bendevāhī Riṭh—Chd.—बेंडेवाही रीठ

Name of the Village
B—*cont.*
Bhāmaḍelī Raiyyatavārī—War.—भामडेळी रैय्यतवारी.
Bhārāpūr—Bhm.—भानापूर
Bhaṇḍārī—Gdc.—भंडारी
Bhānusakhiṇḍī—War.—भानुसखिंडी
Bhilagāṅv—War.—भिलगांव
Bhimāram Masāhat—Srn.—भिमारम मसाहत
Bhogāpur Patch—Srn.—भोगापूर पॅच
Bhokasāpūr—Rj.—भोकसापूर
Bhūmakī—Gdc.—भूमकी
Bhuyārī—War.—भुयारी
Bodhalīmāḍyā Tukūm—Gdc.—बोधलीमाड्या तुकूम.
Bodhanakheḍā—Gdc.—बोधनखेडा
Boḍukasā Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—बोडुकसा रैय्यतवारी.
Boḷadhā Tukūm—Gdc.—बोळधा तुकूम
Boṇḍarā Masāhat—Srn.—बोंडरा मसाहत
Boragāṅv—War.—बोरगांव
Boragāṅv—War.—बोरगांव
Boragāṅv Roḍī—War.—बोरगांव रोडी
Boraghāṭ—Chd.—बोरघाट
Boraghāṭ Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—बोरघाट रैय्यतवारी.
Borakanhāḷ Patch—Gdc.—बोरकन्हाळ पॅच
Boramapallī Patch—Srn.—बोरमपल्ली पॅच
Bor Rīṭh—Chd.—बोर रीठ
Brāhmaṇapallī Raiyyatavārī—Srn.—ब्राम्हणपल्ली रैय्यतवारी.
Budhevāḍā—Bhm.—बुधेवाडा
Buṅgījhorā—War.—बुंगीझोरा
C
Caitī Rīṭh—War.—चैती रीठ
Cak Aḍegāṅv—War.—चक अडेगांव
Cak Āmagāṅv No. 1—Gdc.—चक आमगांव नं. १.
Cak Ballārapūr—Bhm.—चक बल्लारपूर
Cak Banavāhī—Bhm.—चक बनवाही
Cak Belagāṅv—War.—चक बेलगांव

Name of the Village
C—*cont.*
Cak Belagāṭā (I)—Chd.—चक बेलगाटा (१)
Cak Belagāṭā (2)—Chd.—चक बेलगाटा (२)
Cak Bhikṣī—Gdc.—चक भिक्षी
Cak Boragāṅv (Rīṭh) Chd.—चक बोरगांव (रीठ)
Cak Brāmhaṇapallī—Srn.—चक ब्राम्हणपल्ली
Cak Cāmorśī—Gdc.—चक चामोर्शी
Cak Candāram—Srn.—चक चंदारम
Cak Cicaghāt—War.—चक चिचघाट
Cak Cicolī—Gdc.—चक चिचोली
Cak Cikhalī—War.—चक चिखली
Cak Cikhalī No. 1—Chd.—चक चिखली नं. १.
Cak Cikhalī No. 2—Chd.—चक चिखली नं. २.
Cak Cirolī—Chd.—चक चिरोली
Cak Dagaḍataḷā—Chd.—चक दगडतळा
Cak Dahegāṅv—Chd.—चक दहेगांव
Cak Deśapūr—Gdc.—चक देशपूर
Cak Dibhanā—Gdc.—चक दिभना
Cak Ḍonāḷā—Chd.—चक डोनाळा
Cak Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Chd.—चक डोंगरगांव
Cak Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—War.—चक डोंगरगांव
Cak Gevarā—Bhm.—चक गेवरा
Cak Goravaṭ—War.—चक गोरवट
Cak Hajārī—Bhm.—चक हजारी
Cak Iṭolī No. 2—Chd.—चक इटोली नं. २.
Cak Jānamapallī—Srn.—चक जानमपल्ली
Cak Jāpharābād—Srn.—चक जाफराबाद
Cak Kājaḷavāhī—Chd.—चक काजळवाही
Cak Kāmath—Bhm.—चक कामथ
Cak Kanhāḷagāṅv—Chd.—चक कन्हाळगांव
Cak Karabāḍā—War.—चक करबाडा
Cak Kāṭalī—Bhm.—चक काटली
Cak Kāṭalī—Gdc.—चक काटली
Cak Kavaḍasī—War.—चक कवडसी
Cak Khānābād—Bhm.—चक खानाबाद
Cak Khaṇḍāḷā—Chd.—चक खंडाळा
Cak Khāterā—Bhm.—चक खातेरा
Cak Kiṭāḍī—Bhm.—चक किटाडी
Cak Kosambī—Bhm.—चक कोसंबी
Cak Kosambī (I)—Bhm.—चक कोसंबी (१)
Cak Kosambī (II)—Bhm.—चक कोसंबी (२)

Name of the Village
C—*cont.*
Cak Kukaḍahetī—Bhm.—चक कुकडहेटी
Cak Lāḍolī—Chd.—चक लाडोली
Cak Māḍeāmagāṅv No. 2—Gdc.—चक माडेआमगांव नं. २.
Cak Malavūr—War.—चक मकसूर
Cak Mākepallī No. 2—Gdc.—चक माकेपल्ली नं. २.
Cak Marāḷasāvarī—Chd.—चक मराळसावरी
Cak Maregāṅv—Gdc.—चक मरेगांव
Cak Meḍāram—Srn.—चक मेडारम
Cak Meṇḍhā—Bhm.—चक मेंढा
Cak Mhasaboḍan—Chd.—चक म्हसबोडन
Cak Moravāhī—Chd.—चक मोरवाही
Cak Movāḍ—Bhm.—चक मोवाड
Cak Nāgaravāhī—Gdc.—चक नागरवाही
Cak Naleśvar—Chd.—चक नलेश्वर
Cak Nandigāṅv—Srn.—चक नंदिगांव
Cak Nārāyaṇapūr No. 1—Gdc.—चक नारायणपूर नं. १.
Cak Nimagāṭā—Chd.—चक निमगाटा
Cak Paḍajharī—Chd.—चक पडझरी
Cak Padmāpūr—Bhm.—चक पद्मापूर
Cak Pāṇḍharasāraḍ—Bhm.—चक पांढरसारड
Cak Patalavāḍā—Chd.—चक पतलवाडा
Cak Peṇḍharī—Bhm.—चक पेंढरी
Cak Peṭhataḷā No. 1—Gdc.—चक पेटतळा नं. १.
Cak Pimpaḷadaṇḍ—Bhm.—चक पिंपळदंड
Cak Pimpaḷakhuṭ—Chd.—चक पिंपळखुट
Cak Poṅbhūrṇā—Chd.—चक पोंभूर्णा
Cak Rājeśvarapallī—Srn.—चक राजेश्वरपल्ली
Cak Rāmanajapūr—Srn.—चक रामनजपूर
Cak Reguṇṭā—Srn.—चक रेगुंटा
Cak Sākharā—Bhm.—चक साखरा
Cak Sakhārāmapūr—Bhm.—चक सखारामपूर
Cak Sākharī—Chd.—चक साखरी
Cak Sālebaṭṭī—Bhm.—चक सालेभट्टी
Cak Saraḍapār—Bhm.—चक सरडपार
Cak Sāvaraḍaṇḍ—Bhm.—चक सावरदंड
Cak Sirakoṇḍā (I)—Srn.—चक सिरकोंडा (१)
Cak Sirakoṇḍā (II)—Srn.—चक सिरकोंडा (२)

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
C—*cont.*	**C—*cont.***
Cak Śivapī—War.—चक शिवनी	Cindhī Nimbāḷā—War.—चिंधी निंबाळा
Cak Somanapallī—Chd.—चक सोमनपल्ली	Cintalapeṭ—Srn.—चिंतलपेट
Cak Sonapūr—Gdc.—चक सोनपूर	Ciruḍ—Raj.—चिरुड
Cak Sonulī—Bhm.—चक सोनुली	Copan—War.—चोपन
Cak Sukaḍī—Chd.—चक सुकडी	Corakhaḷ—Chd.—चोरखळ
Cak Tāraḍā—Chd.—चक तारडा	**D**
Cak Ṭekaḍā—Srn.—चक टेकडा	Dābagāṅv Tukūm—Chd.—दाबगांव तुकूम
Cak Tulān—Bhm.—चक तुलान	Dabbāṭog—Srn.—दब्बातोग
Cak Ucalī—Bhm.—चक उचली	Ḍāhāḷā—War.—डाहाळा
Cak Uparī Urf Maḍhebhānsī—Chd.—चक उपरी उर्फ मढेभांसी.	Dahegāṅv—War.—दहेगांव
Cak Uṭī—Bhm.—चक उटी	Daladalī—War.—दलदली
Cak Vaḍakulī—Chd.—चक वडकुली	Dāmanamarakā—Srn.—दामनमरका
Cak Vaḍegāṅv—War.—चक वडेगांव	Dāmaram Masāhat—Srn.—दामरम मसाहत
Cak Vaḍholī—Chd.—चक वढोली	Dāmaram (Surveyed)—Srn.—दामरम (सर्व्हेड)
Cak Vāgadarā—War.—चक वागदरा	Dānodā—Raj.—दानोदा
Cak Vāsā No. 1—Gdc.—चक वासा नं. १.	Ḍāralī—Gdc.—डारली
Cak Vāyagāṅv No. 1—Chd.—चक वायगांव नं. १.	Deuḷagāṅv—Bhm.—देऊळगांव
Cak Veḍagāṅv—Chd.—चक वेडगांव	Devaghāṭ—Raj.—देवघाट
Cak Veḷavā—Chd.—चक वेळवा	Devalamarrī Masāhat—Srn.—देवलमर्री मसाहत
Cak Vihīragāṅv—Chd.—चक विहीरगांव	Devapūr—Gdc.—देवपूर
Cak Vihīragāṅv—Gdc.—चक विहीरगांव	Dhanaboḍī—War.—धनबोडी
Cak Vyāhāḍ (2)—Chd.—चक व्याहाड (२)	Dhānolī Rīṭh—Bhm.—धानोली रीठ
Cak Yenolī—Bhm.—चक येनोली	Dhānolī Tukūm—Bhm.—धानोली तुकूम
Cak Yeṭākoṭā (I)—Srn.—चक येटाकोटा (१)	Dhoṇḍā Māṇḍavā—Raj.—धोंडा मांडवा
Cak Yeṭākoṭā (II)—Srn.—चक येटाकोटा (२)	Dirāṅgī—Srn.—दिरांगी
Candāram Mālagujārī—Srn.—चंदारम मालगुजारी	Dobahur—Srn.—दोबहुर
Candrā Masāhat—Srn.—चंद्रा मसाहत	Doḍepallī—Srn.—दोडेपल्ली
Cāragāṅv—Gdc.—चारगांव	Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—War.—डोंगरगांव
Cāragāṅv Tukūm—War.—चारगांव तुकूम	Ḍoṅgaragāṅv Tukūm—Gdc.—डोंगरगांव तुकूम
Cicaghāṭ—War.—चिचघाट	Ḍoṅgarahaḷadī—Chd.—डोंगरहळदी
Cicakhoḍ—Raj.—चिचखोड	Ḍoṅgarahaḷadī No. 1—Chd.—डोंगरहळदी नं. १.
Cicāḷā Maktā—War.—चिचाळा मक्ता	Ḍoṅgarahaḷadī No. 3—Chd.—डोंगरहळदी नं. ३.
Cicāḷā Paradeśī—War.—चिचाळा परदेशी	Ḍoṅgaratamāsī Patch—Gdc.—डोंगरतमासी पॅच
Cicāḷā Rīṭh—War.—चिचाळा रीठ	Ḍorlī—Bhm.—डोर्ली
Cicāḷ Māṇusamārī—War.—चिचाळ माणुसमारी	Dudholī—Chd.—दुधोळी
Cicapallī—Gdc.—चिचपल्ली	**G**
Cicoḷā—Bhm.—चिचोला	Gāḍholī—Gdc.—गाढोली
Cikhalī—Raj.—चिखली	Gaṇeśamoḍ—Raj.—गणेशमोड
Ciṁcanavegāṅv—Raj.—चिंचनवेगांव	Gaṅgāpūr—Gdc.—गंगापूर

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
G—*cont.*	**J**
Gāṅgasāiṭolā—Gdc.—गांगसाइटोला	Jaitapūr—Gdc.—जैतपूर
Gardevāḍā—Srn.—गर्देवाडा	Jāmagāṅv—Gdc.—जामगांव
Gārevāḍā—Srn.—गारेवाडा	Jāmanārā—Gdc.—जामनारा
Gārevāḍā—Srn.—गारेवाडा	Jāmaṇī—War.—जामणी
Gaurakheḍ—War.—गौरखेड	Jāmbhaḷī Choṭā—Gdc.—जांभळी छोटा
Gavarāḷā Rīṭh—Chd.—गवराळा रीठ	Jāmbhaḷī Rīṭh—Gdc.—जांभळी रीठ
Gāvaset—War.—गावसेत	Jāmbhuḷabōḍī—War.—जांभुळबोडी
Gāyaḍoṅgaī—Bhm.—गायडोंगरी	Jām Tukūm Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—जाम तुकूम रैय्यतवारी.
Ghoḍabādev Raiyyatavārī—War.—घोडबादेव रैय्यतवारी.	Jāmuladharā—Raj.—जामुलधरा
Ghoḍe Minavaṭ—War.—घोडे मिनवट	Japelī—Srn.—जपेली
Gojolī Rīṭh—Chd.—गोजोली रीठ	Jāpharābād Patch—Srn.—जाफराबाद पॅच
Goṅgavāḍā—Srn.—गोंगवाडा	Jāṭepār—War.—जाटेपार
Goraj—Raj.—गोरज	Jevarā—Raj.—जेवरा
Goṭāḷā—War.—गोटाळा	Jhāparāgaḍ—Gdc.—झापरागड
Goṭelingamapallī—Srn.—गोटेलिंगमपल्ली	Jhoṭiṅg—Raj.—झोटींग
Goṭhanagāṅv—Chd.—गोठनगांव	Jhurrī Masāhat—Srn.—झुर्री मसाहत
Govāradip—War.—गोवारदिप	Jogāpūr Rīṭh—Chd.—जोगापूर रीठ
Govindapūr—Raj.—गोविंदपूर	Junāgāṅv Patch—Gdc.—जुनागांव पॅच
Govindapūr Rīṭh—Chd.—गोविंदपूर रीठ	Junī Lāḍolī—Chd.—जुनी लाडोली
Gujagavhāṇ—War.—गुजगव्हाण	**K**
Guḷagāṅv Tukūm—War.—गुळगांव तुकूम	Kaḷamagāṅv—Gdc.—कळमगांव
Guñjevāhī Mahāl No. II—Bhm.—गुंजेवाही महाल नं. २.	Kamalāpūr—Raj.—कमलापूर
Gurhāḍ Raiyyatavārī—War.—गुऱ्हाड रैय्यतवारी	Kanhāḷagāṅv—Gdc.—कन्हाळगांव
H	Kanhāḷagāṅv—War.—कन्हाळगांव
Hāḍakī Kanhāḷ—Gdc.—हाडकी कन्हाळ	Kanhāḷagāṅv Brāhmaṇ—War.—कन्हाळगांव ब्राम्हण.
Haḷadī Tukūm—Chd.—हळदी तुकूम	Kanhāḷagāṅv Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—कन्हाळगांव रैय्यतवारी.
Hālodaṇḍī—Srn.—हालोदंडी	Kāpā—Gdc.—कापा
Haradāḷā—War.—हरदाळा	Karanelī Masāhat—Srn.—करनेली मसाहत
Haranapāyalī—Chd.—हरनपायली	Kārlī Songāṅv—War.—कार्ली सोनेगांव
Hikāmeṭṭā—Srn.—हिकामेट्टा	Kasabā pipṛī—War.—कसबा पिप्री
Himmat Majarā—War.—हिमत मजरा	Kasaraboḍī—War.—कसरबोडी
Hindahur—Srn.—हिंदहुर	Kasaraboḍī—War.—कसरबोडी
Hiṅgaṇaboḍī—War.—हिंगणबोडी	Kasārīgāṅv—Gdc.—कसारीगांव
Hirāpūr—Gdc.—हिरापूर	Kaṭaṅgadhar—Bhm.—कटंगधर
Huloḍī—Gdc.—हुलोडी	Kaṭārā—War.—कटारा
I	Kāṭavan—Chd.—काटवन
Indāram Masāhat—Srn.—इंदारम मसाहत	Kāṭebāhalī—War.—काटेबाथली

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
K—*cont.*	**K—*cont.***
Kāṭejharī—War.—काटेझरी	Koḍape—Srn.—कोडपे
Kāṭepallī Masāhat—Srn.—काटेपल्ली मसाहत	Koindavarasā—Srn.—कोइंदवरसा
Kavaḍāpūr—War.—कवडापूर	Kokāpāḍī—Srn.—कोकापाडी
Kavaḍasī—War.—कवडसी	Kolamarkā—Srn.—कोलमर्का
Kavaṭhāḷā—Raj.—कवठाळा	Kolār Rīṭh—War.—कोलार रीठ
Kaviṭagāṅv—Raj.—कविटगांव	Koḷasāpūr—Gdc.—कोळसापूर
Keḍamarakā Masāhat—Srn.—केडमरका मसाहत	Kombaḍavāhī Rīṭh—Chd.—कोंबडवाही रीठ
Kehakāvāhī Māl—Gdc.—केहकावाही माल	Koṇḍekhaḷ Rīṭh—Chd.—कोंडेखळ रीठ
Kekāpūr—War.—केकापूर	Koṇḍhānā—Gdc.—कोंढाना
Kekejharī—Raj.—केकेझरी	Koparallī Patch—Gdc.—कोपरअल्ली पॅच
Kem Rīṭh—Chd.—केम रीठ	Korapāraśī Masāhat—Srn.—कोरपारशी मसाहत
Kerāmaboḍī—Raj.—केरामबोडी	Koregāṅv—Bhm.—कोरेगांव
Kesalāpūr—War.—केसलापूर	Kosambī—War.—कोसंम्बी
Khairagāṅv—Raj.—खरगांव	Kosambī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—कोसंबी रैय्यतवारी.
Khairagāṅv—Raj.—खैरगांव	Kosambī Rīṭh—Chd.—कोसंबी रीठ
Khairī—Gdc.—खैरी	Kosekanhāḷ—War.—कोसेकन्हाळ
Khairī Bk.—Bhm.—खैरी बु.	Koṭagāṅv—War.—कोटगांव
Khairī Golakar—Bhm.—खैरी गोलकर	Koṭalapār—Bhm.—कोटलपार
Khairī Kh.—Bhm.—खैरी खु.	Koṭavārā—Srn.—कोटवारा
Khāmataḷodhī—Bhm.—खामतळोधी	Koṭhārā—War.—कोठारा
Khāmaturlā—Chd.—खामतुर्ला	Kottur Patch—Srn.—कोत्तुर पॅच
Khambāḍā—Bhm.—खंबाडा	Kucer Masāhat—Srn.—कुचेर मसाहत
Khaṇḍāḷā—War.—खंडाळा	Kukasī Rīṭh—Bhm.—कुकसी रीठ
Khaṇḍāḷā—War.—खंडाळा	Kumahur Masāhat—Srn.—कुमहुर मसाहत
Khaṇḍāḷā Rīṭh—Chd.—खंडाळा रीठ	Kumbhārī—War.—कुंभारी
Khandīnendavāḍī—Srn.—खंदीनेंदवाडी	Kumbhī Patch—Gdc.—कुंभी पॅच
Khāparī—War.—खापरी	Kunaghaḍā Rīṭh—Bhm.—कुनघडा रीठ
Khāparī Raiyyatavārī—War.—खापरी रैय्यतवारी	Kurāṇḍī—Gdc.—कुरांडी
Khāparī Rīṭh—Chd.—खापरी रीठ	**L**
Khāraḍī—Gdc.—खारडी	Lāḍegāṅv—War.—लाडेगांव
Kharatāṅgaḍī—War.—खरतांगडी	Lagāmahetṭī—Gdc.—लगामहेट्टी
Khekaḍāpūr—War.—खेकडापूर	Lāharī Masāhat—Srn.—लाहरी मसाहत
Khekaḍī—War.—खेकडी	Lakhanaguḍā Masāhat—Srn.—लखनगुडा मसाहत
Khokarlā—War.—खोकर्ला	Lāl Cicaboḍī—Bhm.—लाल चिचबोडी
Khurasāpār—War.—खुरसापार	Lāmborī—Raj.—लाम्बोरी
Khuṭavaṇḍā Marāḷ—War.—खुटवंडा मराळ	Laṅkācen Masāhat—Srn.—लंकाचेन मसाहत
Khuṭavaṇḍā Raiyyatavārī—War.—खुटवंडा रैय्यतवारी.	Likhītavāḍā—Chd.—लिखीतवाडा
Kineboḍī—Raj.—किनेबोडी	Lohārā Kh.—War.—लोहारा खु.
Kiṭāḍī—War.—किटाडी	Loṇakhairī Pāṇḍav—Bhm.—लोणखैरी पांडव

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
L—*cont.*	**M—*cont.***
Loṇār—War.—लोणार	Murāṇḍā—Gdc.—मुरांडा
Loṇī—Chd.—लोणी	Murapār—War.—मुरपार
M	Murapār—War.—मुरपार
Mācavañcā—Srn.—माचवंचा	Murapār Deśapāṇḍe—War.—मुरपार देशपांडे
Machalīghoṭ—Gdc.—मछलीघोट	Murapār Gāṅvagannā—Bhm.—मुरपार गांवगन्ना
Madanagaḍ—War.—मदनगड	Musapāḍī—Srn.—मुसपाडी
Māhāḍāpūr—War.—माहादपूर	Musaramaguṇḍā Masāhat—Srn.—मुसरमगुंडा मसाहत.
Mahāgāṅv Masāhat—Srn.—महागांव मसाहत	Mutenakurī—Srn.—मुत्तेनकुरी
Mahār Majarā—War.—महार मजरा	**N**
Mahodar—Bhm.—महोदर	Nāgāḷā—War.—नागाळा
Majarā Māṭāḍe—War.—मजरा माताडे	Nāgapūr—War.—नागपूर
Mallamapāḍ—Srn.—मल्लमपाड	Nāgapūr Tukūm—War.—नागपूर तुकूम
Mānagāṅv—Raj.—मानगांव	Nāgavelī—Gdc.—नागवेली
Mānajīgaḍ—Srn.—मानजीगड	Nāgepallī—Srn.—नागेपल्ली
Māṅgalaphusī—War.—मांगलफुसी	Nāndapā—Raj.—नांदपा
Māṅgalī—War.—मांगली	Nāndarā—War.—नांदरा
Maṅgaradhokaḍā—Gdc.—मंगरधोकडा	Nandorī Kh.—War.—नंदोरी खु.
Māṅgaruḍ—War.—मांगरुड	Nārāyaṇapūr Urf Yerāgunṭā Metam—Srn.—नारायणपूर उर्फ येरागुंटा मेतम
Maṅger—Gdc.—मंगेर	Navaragāṅv—War.—नवरगांव
Māṅgevāḍā—Gdc.—मांगेवाडा	Navaragāṅv—War.—नवरगांव
Mānikapūr—Bhm.—मानिकपूर	Navegāṅv Doye—War.—नवेगांव डोये
Māraīpāṭan—Raj.—मारईपाटन	Navegāṅv Mālagujārī—Bhm.—नवेगांव मालगुजारी.
Marakalameṭṭā—Raj.—मरकलमेट्टा	Nilajaī—Chd.—निलजई
Māregāṅv—War.—मारेगांव	Nimaḍhelā—War.—निमढेला
Maregāṅv Patch—Gdc.—मरेगांव पॅच	Nimagāṅv Urf Bothalī—Bhm.—निमगांव उर्फ बोथली.
Māsaḷ Kh.—War.—मासळ खु.	Nimagāṭā—Chd.—निमगाटा
Meṇḍhā—Gdc.—मेंढा	Nokevāḍā—Gdc.—नोकेवाडा
Meṭeguḍā—Gdc.—मेटेगुडा	Nulavāḍā—Srn.—नुलवाडा
Mhasāḷā Rīṭh—Chd.—म्हसाळा रीठ	**P**
Mhasamohan—Bhm.—म्हसमोहन	Pācagāṅv Tukūm—War.—पाचगांव तुकूम
Minavaṭ Kalī—War.—मिनवट कली	Paḍajharī—Chd.—पडझरी
Minavaṭ Tukūm—War.—मिनवट तुकूम	Paimā Masāhat—Srn.—पैमा मसाहत
Modumaḍagu—Srn.—मोदुमडगु	Pālāndūr—Gdc.—पालांदूर
Modumaturrā Masāhat—Srn.—मोदुमतुर्रा मसाहत	Palasagāṅv Maktā—Bhm.—पळसगांव मक्ता
Mohadā—Raj.—मोहदा	Palasagāṅv Tukūm—Bhm.—पळसगांव तुकूम
Mohajharī Urf Sākaraboḍī—Gdc.—मोहझरी उर्फ साकरबोडी.	
Moravā—War.—मोरवा	
Mulūr Rīṭh—Gdc.—मूलूर रीठ	
Muṅganer—Srn.—मुंगनेर	

Name of the Village
P—*cont.*
Pāñjarepār—War.—पांजरेपार
Pāñjarepār—War.—पांजरेपार
Pārambā—Raj.—पारंबा
Pārasavihīr—Gdc.—पारसविहीर
Parasoḍī—Bhm.—परसोडी
Patalavāḍā—Chd.—पतलवाडा
Pāṭharagoṭā—Gdc.—पाथरगोटा
Pattīgāṅv (Surveyed)—Srn.—पत्तीगांव (सर्व्हे)
Pāurajhorā—Gdc.—पाऊरझोरा
Peṇḍākoḍo—Gdc.—पेंडाकोडो
Peṇḍharī—Raj.—पेंढरी
Peṇḍharī—War.—पेंढरी
Peṇḍharī Bhāgaḍe—War.—पेंढरी भागडे
Peṇḍharī Tukūm—War.—पेंढरी तुकूम
Pevatī Urf Navegāṅv—Gdc.—पेवती उर्फ नवेगांव
Phoḍevāḍā—Srn.—फोडेवाडा
Phulacer—Srn.—फुलचेर
Phulagondi—Gdc.—फुलगोंदी
Phuṇḍī—Srn.—फुंडी
Phuskī Patch—Gdc.—फुरकी पॅच
Pimpaḷagāṅv—War.—पिपळगांव
Piṭesūr—Gdc.—पिटेसूर
Piṭīcuā—War.—पिटीचुआ
Povanaborī—Bhm.—पोवनबोरी
Prāṇāpūr—Gdc.—प्राणापूर
Pulanār—Srn.—पुलनार
Puṅgāsūr—Srn.—पुंगासूर
Purāṇā Vairāgaḍ—Gdc.—पुराना वैरागड
Pusavārā—Srn.—पुसवारा
R
Rāmagaḍ—Gdc.—रामगड
Rāmānujam Gaṇapatī—Srn.—रामानजम गणपती
Rāmapūr (Dikṣit)—Chd.—रामपूर (दिक्षित)
Rāmapuṣī—War.—रामपुरी
Rāmapūr Jhāḍīkar—Chd.—रामपूर झाडीकर
Rāmapūr Masāhat—Srn.—रामपूर मसाहत
Rāmapūr Rīṭh—Gdc.—रामपूर रीठ
Rāmapūr Tukūm—Gdc.—रामपूर तुकूम
Rānavāhī—Gdc.—रानवाही

Name of the Village
R—*cont.*
Rāṇavāhī Urf Micagāṅv—Gdc.—रानवाही उर्फ मिचगांव.
Raṅgayyāpallī Patch—Srn.—रंगय्यापल्ली पॅच
Raṅgayyāpallī Vaddībhūmi—Srn.—रंगय्यापल्ली वद्दीभूमि.
Ratnāḷā—War.—रत्नाळा
Ratnāpūr—Bhm.—रत्नापूर
Ratnāpūr—War.—रत्नापूर
Regāgāṅv—Gdc.—रेगागांव
Reḍā—Gdc.—रोडा
Rohanā—War.—रोहना
Ropī Rīṭh—Srn.—रोपी रीठ
Rudrāpūr—Bhm.—रुद्रापूर
Ruyāḍ—Raj.—रुयाड
Ruyāḍ—War.—रुयाड
S
Sākharā Rīṭh—Bhm.—साखरा रीठ
Sākhar Ḍoh—War.—साखर डोह
Sākherā—Gdc.—साखेरा
Sālebhaṭṭī Rīṭh—Bhm.—सालेभटटी रीठ
Sālorī—War.—सालोरी
Sanāpūr—Gdc.—सेनापूर
Sāṇḍāḷā—Chd.—सांडाळा
Sandrā—Srn.—संद्रा
Śaṅkarapūr—Bhm.—शंकरपूर
Sāpepār—Bhm.—सापेपार
Sāpepār Rīṭh—Bhm.—सापेपार रीठ
Saraḍapār Rīṭh—Bhm.—सरडपार रीठ
Sārajakheḍā—Chd.—सारजखेडा
Sārajakheḍā Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—सारजखेडा रैय्यतवारी.
Sarāṇḍā Kh.—Gdc.—सरांडा खु.
Sāraṅgagaḍ—Bhm.—सारंगगड
Sāraṅgāpūr—Raj.—सारंगापूर
Sātārā—War.—सातारा
Sāvalī—War.—सावली
Sāvalī Tukūm—Chd.—सावली तुकूम
Savatāḷā—Bhm.—सवताळा
Sāyaḍhākāṇī—Gdc.—सायढाकाणी
Seldā Lāmbe—Gdc.—सेल्दा लांबे

Name of the Village
S—*cont.*
Seldā Tukūm—Gdc.—सेल्दा तुकूम
Sevārī Masāhat—Srn.—सेवारी मसाहत
Silamapallī—Srn.—सिलमपल्ली
Sindesūr—Gdc.—सिदेसूर
Sindolā—Raj.—सिदोला
Siṅgaḍajharī—Bhm.—सिंगडझरी
Siṅgāpūr Rīṭh—Chd.—सिंगापूर रीठ
Siṅgāravāḍi—War.—सिंगारवाडी
Siṅgār Paṭhār—Raj.—सिंगार पठार
Siṅgelā—Gdc.—सिंगेला
Śirapūr—Gdc.—शिरपूर
Sitāśivanī—Gdc.—सिताशिवनी
Śivagāṭā—Gdc.—शिवगाटा
Śivanārāṇḍā—Raj.—शिवनारांडा
Sivanī—War.—सिवनी
Śivapūr Gāṅvagannā—Chd.—शिवपूर गांवगन्ना
Śivapūr Tukūm—Chd.—शिवपूर तुकूम
Śivasāgar Gāṅvagannā—Bhm.—शिवसागर गांवगन्ना.
Somanāḷā—War.—सोमनाळा
Sonāpūr—Chd.—सोनापूर
Sonāpūr—Gdc.—सोनापूर
Sonulī Rīṭh—Chd.—सोनुली रीठ
Surā Bedarī—Bhm.—सुरा बेदरी
Surajapūr—Gdc.—सुरजपूर
Sūryaḍoṅgarī—Gdc.—सूर्यडोंगरी
Susundrī—War.—सुसुंद्री
Susundrī—War.—सुसुंद्री
T
Tāḍāḷā Rīṭh—Chd.—ताडाळा रीठ
Tāḍapār—Srn.—ताडपार
Tāhakāḍaṇḍ—Gdc.—ताहकादंड
Tāmasī—Raj.—तामसी
Tāmasī—War.—तामसी
Tāmbaḍā Masāhat—Srn.—तांबडा मसाहत
Tāṭākohāḍ—Raj.—टाटाकोहाड
Tāṭīkuṇḍam Masāhat—Srn.—ताटिकुंडम मसाहत
Tayāgondī—Bhm.—तयागोंदी
Ṭekaḍī—Bhm.—टेकडी
Ṭekāḍī Mālagujārī—War.—टेकाडी मालगुजारी

Name of the Village
T—*cont.*
Ṭekāḍī Paiku—War.—टेकाडी पैकु
Ṭekāḍī Sulhānī—War.—टेकाडी सुभानी
Ṭekaḍī Urf Antaragāṅv—Bhm.—टेकडी उर्फ अंतरगांव.
Ṭekāarjunī—Raj.—टेकाअर्जुनी
Ṭekepār—War.—टेकेपार
Ṭekoḍā—Chd.—टेकोडा
Telanaḍoṅgarī Rīṭh—Bhm.—तेलनडोंगरी रीठ
Ṭemarun Beḍī—Bhm.—टेमरुन वोडी
Ṭhāṇā—War.—ठाणा
Timaram Masāhat—Srn.—तिमरम मसाहत
Ṭiṭavī—Raj.—टिटवी
Toḍakā Masāhat—Srn.—तोडका मसाहत
Toyanār—Srn.—तोयनार
Tulān Ḍoṅgarī—Bhm.—तुलान डोंगरी
Tumaḍī—Gdc.—तुमडी
Tumaraguḍā Kh.—Srn.—तुमरगुडा खु.
Tumarakoḍī Masāhat—Srn.—तुमरकोडी मसाहत
U
Uḍerā Masāhat—Srn.—उडेरा मसाहत
Umarajharā—Raj.—उमरझरा
Umarajharā—Raj.—उमरझरा
Umarajharī—Gdc.—उमरझरी
Undīragāṅv Urf Kāntāpeṭh—Chd.—उंदीरगांव उर्फ कांतापेठ.
Uparapeṭh—War.—उपरपेठ
Usarāḷā—Bhm.—उसराळा
Uṭī Ratnāpūr—Bhm.—उटी रत्नापूर
V
Vaḍāḷā—War.—वडाळा
Vaḍāḷā—War.—वडाळा
Vaḍāḷā—War.—वडाळा
Vaḍegāṅv—Gdc.—वडेगांव
Vāḍegāṅv—Wr.—वाडेगांव
Vaḍholī Gāṇḍalī—Chd.—वढोली गांडली
Vāgadarā—War.—वागदरा
Vaghaḷapeṭh—War.—वघळपेठ
Vāghoḥarī Masāhat—Srn.—वाघेझरी मसाहत
Vāgholī—War.—वाघोली

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
V—*cont.*	**V—*cont.***
Vāgholī Rīṭh—Bhm.—वाघोली रीठ	Veṅguravāḍā—Srn.—वेंगुरवाडा
Vāladhūr—War.—वालधूर	Veṅkaṭāpūr Masāhat—Srn.—वेंकटापूर मसाहत
Valapī Raiyyatavārī—Chd.—वलणी रैय्यतवारी	Veṅkaṭarāv Peṭā (Surveyed)—Srn.—वेंकटराव पेटा (सर्व्हेड).
Vānerī—War.—वानेरी	Vennelāyā Pach—Srn.—वेन्नेलाया पॅच
Vāṅgī—Raj.—वांगी	Vihīragāṅv—Raj.—विहीरगांव
Vañjārī—Gdc.—वंजारी	Visāpūr—Bhm.—विसापूर
Vāsanavihīrā—War.—वासनविहीरा	Vovālā—War.—वोवाळा
Vaṭarā Kh. Masāhat—Srn.—वटरा खु. मसाहत	**Y**
Veḍī Rīṭh—Chd.—वेडी रीठ	Yādavapallī—Gdc.—यादवपल्ली
Velagur Masāhat—Srn.—वेलगुर मसाहत	Yedāsakul ī Masāhat—Gdc.—येदासकुही मसाहत
Velamāgaḍ—Srn.—वेलमागड	Yekanasūr Masāhat—Srn.—येकनसूर मसाहत
Velatur Rīṭh—Gdc.—वेलतुर रीठ	Yerrāceru—Srn.—येर्राचेरु
Veṅgaḍūr—Srn.—वेंगडूर	

LIST OF FOREST VILLAGES INCLUDING THOSE WHICH ARE DESERTED FOREST VILLAGES, CHANDRAPUR DISTRICT

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Aḍagepallī F. V.—Gdc.—अडगेपल्ली	Kanhālagāṅv F. V.—Chd.—कन्हाळगांव
Aḍegāṅv F. V.—Chd.—अडेगांव	Kāravā F. V.—Chd.—कारव्हा
Aḍyāḷī F. V.—War.—अडयाळी	Karavan F. V.—Chd.—करवण
Agarajharī F. V.—Chd.—अगरझरी	Karnegudam—F. V.—Srn.—कर्नेगुडम
Ahemadalī F. V.—Srn.—अहेमदली	Kemarā F. V.—Chd.—केमरा
Allāpallī F. V.—Srn.—आल्लापल्ली	Khāṭeḍā F. V.—War.—खाटोडा
Āmbelā F. V.—Gdc.—आंबेला	Kolasā F. V.—Chd.—कोळसा
Āsegāṅv F. V.—Chd.—आसेगांव	Kopelā F. V.—Srn.—कोपेला
Basaravāḍā F. V.—Gdc.—बसरवाडा	Macchīgaṭṭā F. V.—Gdc.—मच्छीगट्टा
Bhaṭārī F. V.—Chd.—भटारी	Māḍyā Tukūm F. V.—Gdc.—माड्या तुकूम
Bholakhaṇḍī F. V. Deserted—Gdc.—भोलखंडी (ओसाड).	Maranpallī F. V.—Gdc.—मरपल्ली
Bolelapāḍ F. V. Deserted—Srn.—बोंदेलपाड (ओसाड).	Marrīguḍam F. V.—Srn.—मर्रीगुडम
Bolepallī F. V.—Gdc.—बोलेपल्ली	Muḍāvāhī F. V.—Srn.—मुडावाही
Candan Kheḍī F. V.—Gdc.—चंदन खेडी	Mukaḍī F. V.—Gdc.—मुकडी
Civaṇḍhā F. V.—Chd.—चिवंढा	Mukarīṭolā F. V.—Gdc.—मुकरीटोला
Devāḍā F. V.—Gdc.—देवाडा	Nāgulavāhī F. V.—Gdc.—नागुलवाही
Devāḍā F. V.—War.—देवाडा	Nandagūr F. V.—Chd.—नंदगूर
Devaī F. V.—Chd.—देवई	Navānagar F. V.—Bhm.—नवानगर
Dhāmaṇapeṭh F. V.—Chd.—धामणपेठ	Pahāmī F. V.—Chd.—पहामी
Donī F. V.—Chd.—डोनी	Pāṇḍharapavanī F. V.—War.—पांढरपवनी
Gaṇapūr—F. V.—Chd.—गणपूर	Pāṅgaḍī F. V.—Bhm.—पांगडी
Gaṭṭā F. V.—Gdc.—गट्टा	Pātāgudam F. V.—Srn.—पातागुडम
Ghaṇṭācaukī F. V.—Chd.—घंटाचौकी	Pāṭānil F. V.—Srn.—पाटानिल
Ghoḍājharī F. V.—Bhm.—घोडाझरी	Peṇḍe'āyā F. V.—Srn.—पेंडेलाया
Gorageṭā F. V.—Srn.—गोरगेपेटा	Peṭh F. V.—Chd.—पेठ
Goṭā F. V.—Srn.—गोटा	Phulajharī F. V.—Chd.—फुलझरी
Gujarī F. V.—Chd.—गुजरी	Phuskī F. V.—Gdc.—फुस्की
Heṭāḷakasā F. V.—Gdc.—हेटाळकसा	Pimpalaheṭī F. V.—Bhm.—पिंपळहेटी
Jhimelā F. V.—Srn.—झिमेला	Pulligudam F. V.—Gdc.—पुल्लीगुडम
Junonā F. V.—War.—जुनोना	Pulligudam F. V.—Srn.—पुल्लीगुंडम
	Rāmadegī F. V.—War.—रामदेगी
	Rāmanagar F. V. Deserted—Bhm.—रामनगर (ओसाड).
	Rānataḷodhī F. V.—War.—रानतळोधी
	Rāyagudam F. V.—Srn.—रायगुडम

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Reṅgevāhī F. V.—Gdc.—रेंगेवाही	Terāḍo (Camp) F. V.—Srn.—तेराडो (कँप)
Romapallī F. V.—Srn.—रोमपल्ली	Tigalaguḍam F. V.—Srn.—तिगलगुडम
	Toḍalanākā F. V.—Srn.—तोडलनाका
Siṅgāpallī F. V.—Gdc.—सिंगापल्ली	Vākaḍī F. V.—Gdc.—वाकडी
Sonegāṅv F. V.—War.—सोनेगांव	Velaguraṭ lā F. V.—Srn.—वेलगुरटोला
Suragāṅv F. V.—Gdc.—सुरगांव	Veṅganūr F. V.—Gdc.—वेंगनूर
Tāḍobā F. V.—War.—ताडोबा	Yeḍasilī F. V.—Srn.—येडसिली
Talavāḍā F. V.—Srn.—तलवाडा	Yelacal F. V.—Srn.—येलचल
Taḷodhī F. V.—Bhm.—तळोधी	Yellā F. V.—Gdc.—येल्ला

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APPENDIX

CONVERSION FACTORS

LENGTH :
- 1 inch = 2·54 centimetres
- 1 foot = 30·48 centimetres
- 1 yard = 91·44 centimetres
- 1 mile = 1·61 kilometres
- 1 nautical mile (U. K.) = 1853·18 metres
- 1 nautical mile (International) = 1852 metres

AREA :
- 1 square foot = 0·093 square metre
- 1 square yard = 0·836 square metre
- 1 acre = 0·405 hectare

VOLUME :
- 1 cubic foot = 0·023 cubic metre

CAPACITY :
- 1 gallon (Imperial) = 4·55 litres
- 1 seer (80 tolas) = 0·937 litre
- 1 Madras measure = 1·77 litres

WEIGHT :
- 1 tola = 11·66 grams
- 1 chhatak = 58·32 grams
- 1 seer = 933·10 grams
- 1 maund = 37·32 kilograms
- 1 palam = 34·99 grams
- 1 seer (24 tolas) = 279·93 grams
- 1 viss = 1·40 kilograms
- 1 maund (Madras) = 11·20 kilograms
- 1 candy = 223·94 kilograms
- 1 ounce = 28·35 grams
- 1 pound = 453·59 grams
- 1 hundredweight = 50·80 kilograms
- 1 ton = 1016·05 kilograms

TEMPERATURE :

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° Centigrade) + 32

METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

LENGTH :
- 10 millimetres = 1 centimetre
- 100 centimetres = 1 metre
- 1000 metres = 1 kilometre
- 1852 metres = 1 nautical mile (International)

AREA :
- 100 square millimetres = 1 square centimetre
- 10,000 square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare
- 100 square metres = 1 are
- 100 ares = 1 hectare
- 100 hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre

VOLUME :
- 1,000,000 cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre

CAPACITY :
- 1000 millilitres = 1 litre
- 1000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHT :
- 1000 milligrams = 1 gram
- 1000 grams = 1 kilogram
- 100 kilograms = 1 quintal
- 1000 kilograms = 1 tonne
- 200 milligrams = 1 carat

ABBREVIATIONS FOR METRIC UNITS

(1) DECIMAL MULTIPLES AND SUB-MULTIPLES :

Prefix	Value in terms of Unit	Abbreviation
kilo ..	1000	k
centi ..	0·01 (10^{-2})	c
milli ..	0·001 (10^{-3})	m
micro ..	0·000001 (10^{-6})	u

(2) WEIGHT :

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
tonne	1000 kg	t
quintal	100 kg	q
kilogram ..	1 kg	kg
gram	1 g	g
milligram ..	1 mg	mg
carat	200 mg	c

(3) CAPACITY :

kilolitre	1000 l	kl
litre	1 l	l
millilitre ..	1 ml	ml

(4) VOLUME :

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
cubic centimetre	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	mm^3	mm^3

(5) LENGTH :

kilometre ..	1000 m	km
metre	1 m	m
centimetre ..	1 cm	cm
millimetre ..	1 mm	mm
micron	1/1000 mm or 10^{-3} mm	um

(6) AREA :

square kilometres	1,000,000 m^2	km^2
square metre ..	1 m^2	m^2
square centimetre	1 cm^2	cm^2
square millimetre	1 mm^2	mm^2

(7) LAND MEASURE :

are	100 m^2	a
hectare ..	100 a	ha
centiare ..	m^2	ca



A panoramic view of Tadoba Lake.



Glory of Wild Life, Chandrapur Forests.

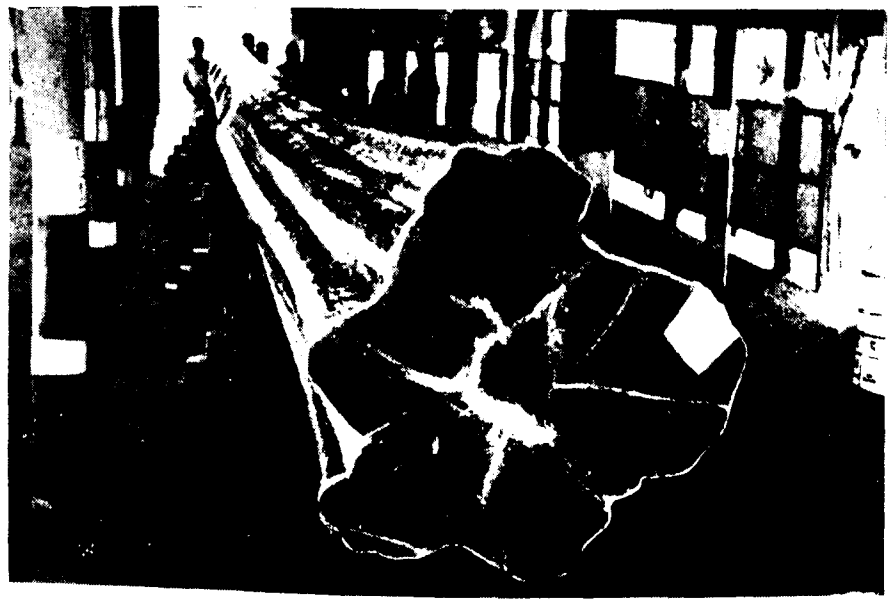


Exhibit of a magnificent Teak tree from Allapalli at Ballarshah.



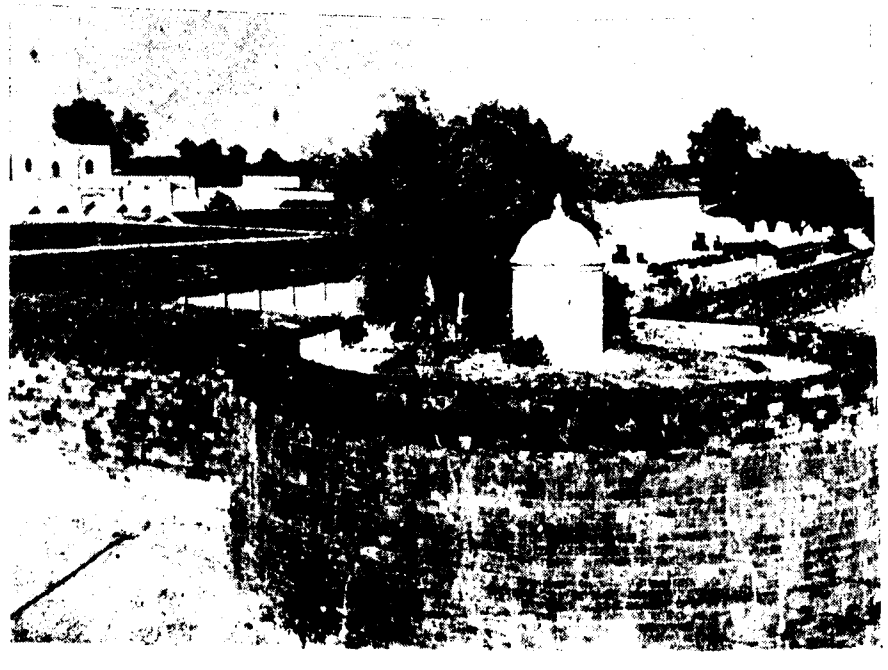
The Glory of Allapalli.



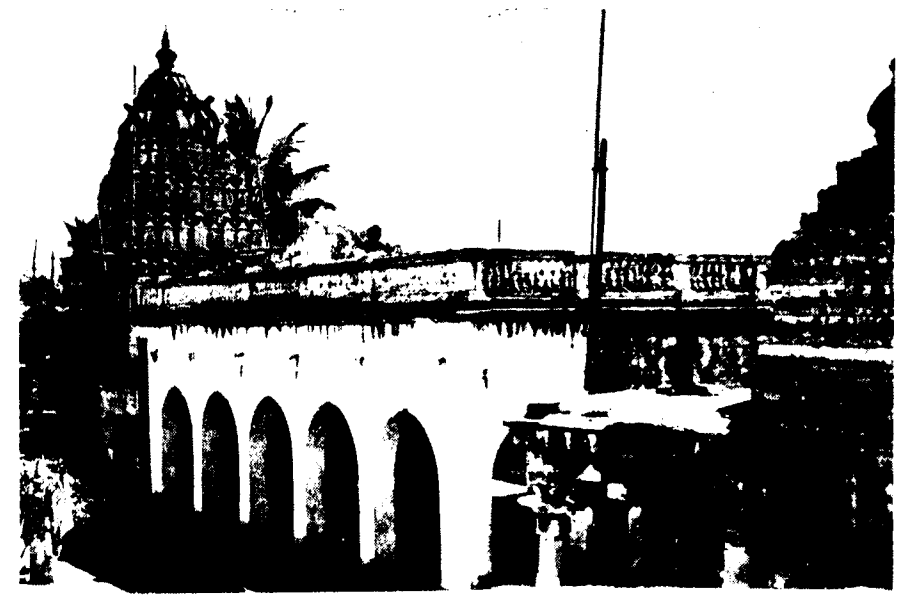
City wall showing Achaleshwar Temple and Gond Raja's Tomb, Chandrapur.



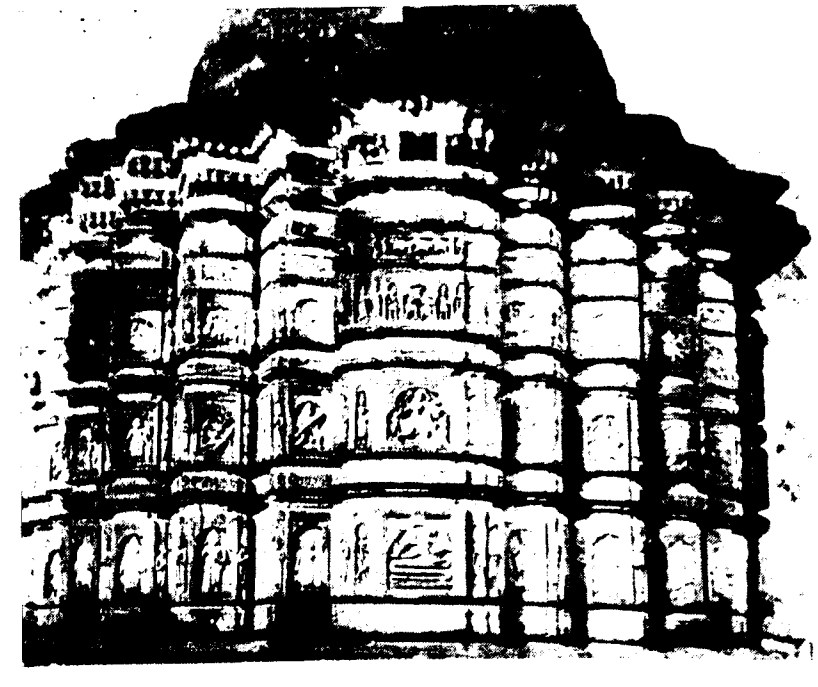
Gond Raja's Tomb, Chandrapur.



Palace of the Gond Raja.



Achaleshwar Temple, Chandrapur.



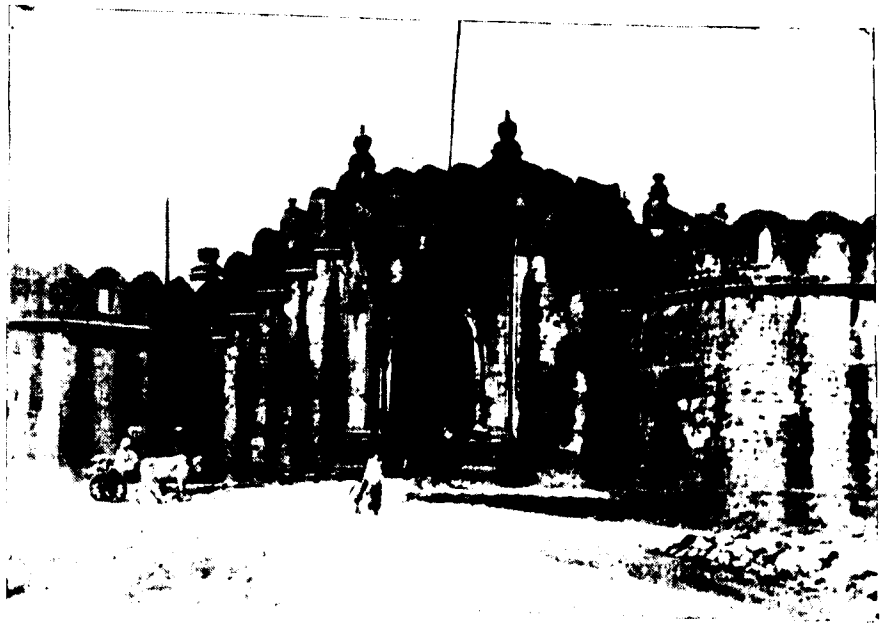
Shri Muralidhar Temple, Chandrapur.



Mahakali Temple, Chandrapur.



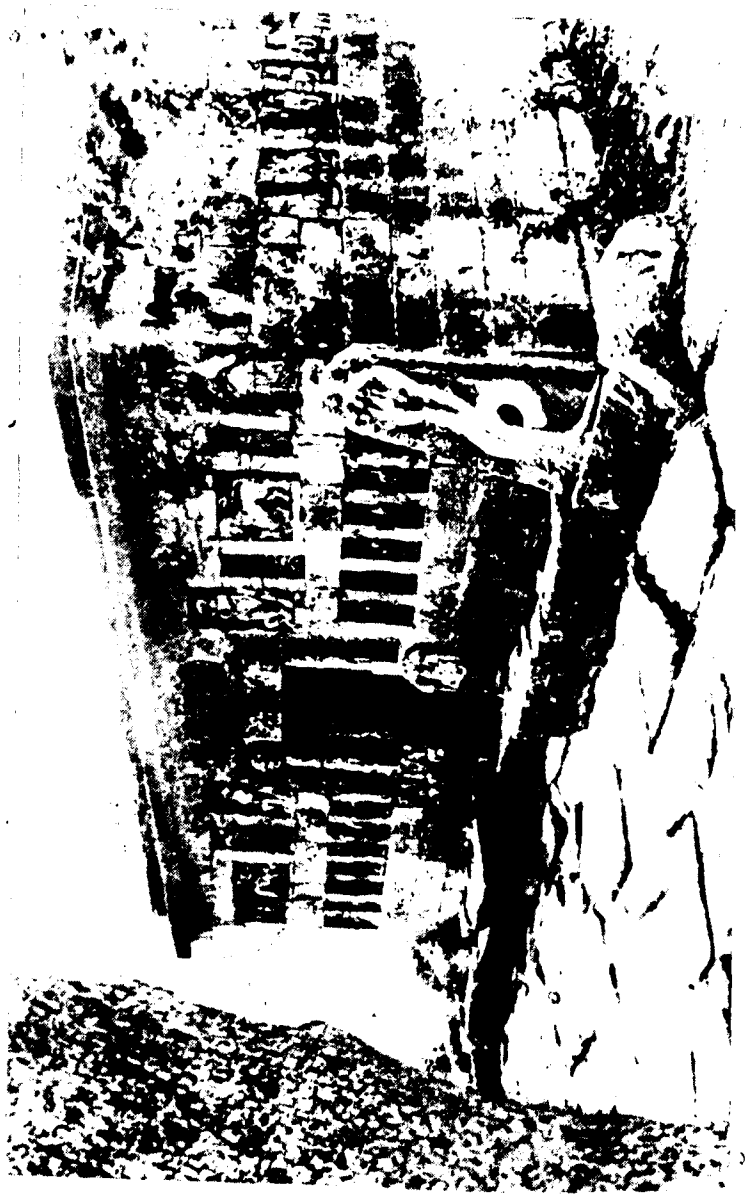
Ancient bridge at Bhadravati.



Pathanpura Gate, Chandrapur.



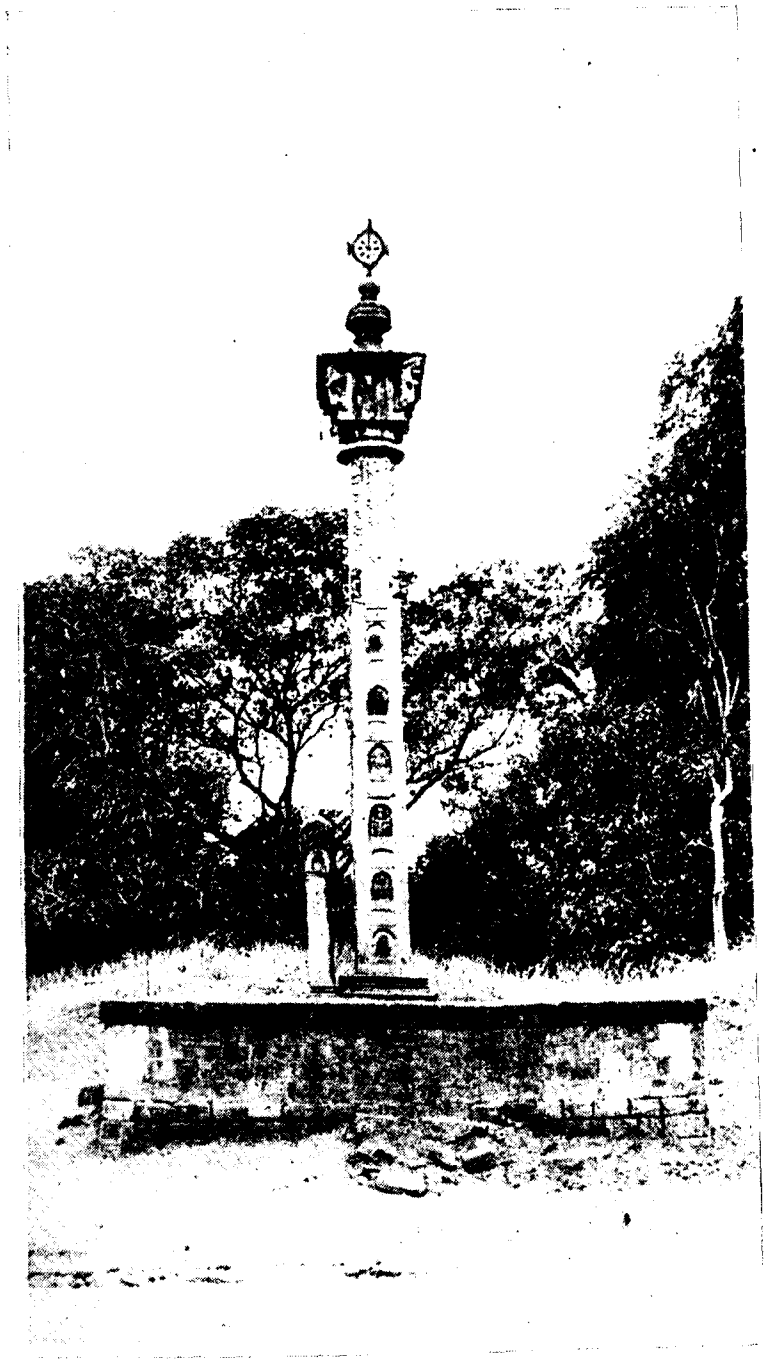
Temple at Markanda.



Front of Small Temple, Bhatala.



Image of Kali, Chandika Temple, Bhandak.



Pillar at Babupeth.

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