DHULIA DISTRICT GAZETTEER

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MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

सत्यमेव जयते

Government of Maharashtra

DHULIA DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

BOMBAY
GAZETTEERS DEPARTMENT, GOVERNMENT OF MAHARASHTRA
1974

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DHULIA DISTRICT

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PREFACE

THE KHANDESH DISTRICT GAZETTEER was first published in 1880. The Volume dealt with the composite Khandesh which comprised the present Dhulia and Jalgaon districts and was edited by Mr. James M. Campbell, I.C.S. This revised edition of the Dhulia District Gazetteer 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 :—

Chief Secretary to the Government of Maharashtra (Shri D. D. Sathe, I.C.S.), Chairman.

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

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 on 21st June 1968 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., Superintendent; Shri P. N. Narkhede, M.Com.; Smt. N. S. Alwani, B.A.; Shri S. K. Khilare, B.Com., LL.B.; Smt. M. S. Modikhane, M.A.; and Shri N. R. Patil, M.Com. (Research Assistants) for their assistance in the publication of this Volume. I am also thankful to the members of the other staff 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 Unit,

Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi, as also the editorial staff of the Unit 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 Central Press, Bombay, 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.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

Bombay :
25th October 1974.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As Early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts of the Bombay Presidency. The Government called for reports from the Collectors giving the fullest available information regarding their districts. In obedience to these orders, reports containing much interesting information were received from the Collectors of Khandesh, Thana, Ahmedabad, Broach and Kaira districts. The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further. It was in 1867 that 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 the 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 of these volumes was, however, spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index Volume was published.

The Khandesh District Gazetteer was published in this series in 1880 and dealt with the area now comprising the Dhulia and Jalgaon districts. The Volume was compiled by the Officers belonging to the Civil Services and edited by James M. Campbell. The Khandesh district was subsequently divided, in 1906, into two districts called West Khandesh and East Khandesh which were renamed after the district headquarters as Dhulia and Jalgaon districts.

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

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Volume I, Part I (History of Gujarat), page vii.

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 ante-dating 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.

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 published, 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 advice of that Editorial Board.

In the nature of things after a lapse of over many decades after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteers 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 Gazetteers have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably a 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. The latest statistics on various subjects have, therefore, been furnished in the form of tabulated data in the Appendix III in this volume. It has also been decided to issue Statistical Supplementaries to the parent volume from time to time. The Supple-

mentaries will furnish tabulated statistics pertaining to the important subjects during the subsequent years.

An important addition to 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.

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names and words in Indian languages have been used in Chapters 2 and 3 and the Directory of Villages and Towns but not in Chapter 19 as was done in the Volumes previously published. However, the names of places and words in Indian languages which occur in Chapter 19 have been given in Appendix II with their current spelling and diacritical spelling. A key to diacritical marks used is also given in Appendix II.

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 planned at present, 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 Volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all the districts.

B. G. KUNTE,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

Bombay :
25th October 1974.

DHULIA

CHAPTER 1—GENERAL

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.*

Situation.

THE DISTRICT OF DHULIA, FORMERLY KNOWN AS WEST KHANDESH and known after the district headquarters since 1960, lies between 20°38′ and 22°3′ north latitude and 73°47′ and 75°11′ east of longitude. It covers an area of 13,143 square kilometres and has as per the 1971 Census a population of 16,62,181 with 7 towns and 1,402 villages of which 23 are uninhabited. Administratively it is divided into two revenue divisions with headquarters at Dhulia and Nandurbar, respectively. It is the western-most of the districts on the northern border of Maharashtra State. It is bounded on the west by Dang, Surat and Broach districts of Gujarat State, on the north by Baroda district of Gujarat and Jhabua and West Nimar districts of Madhya Pradesh, and on the east and south by Jalgaon and Nasik districts, respectively of the Maharashtra State.

Boundaries.

The river Narmada forms the boundary in the western part of the northern border and it deviates from the river south-eastwards along the Jharkal, one of its tributaries. Then it runs first southwards and then eastwards crossing the Gomai river. When it again meets the Gomai it pursues its course up the river and then runs in the midst of the Satpuda ranges as far as Golanghati Choki on the Bombay-Agra road. Here it turns and runs south-eastwards to join the Arunavati river. After following the course of this river for two kilometres, it crosses another range of the Satpudas and runs south-eastwards to join the Aner river. Thenceforth the boundary runs south-west along the Aner river and after the latter's confluence with the Tapi, it follows the Tapi as far as Mudavad at Panjhra Sangam. From here it runs up the course of the Panjhra as far as Tamaswadi. Here it deviates due eastwards and then southwards in a zigzag manner and after crossing the Bori river, runs on the low hills south-eastwards and westwards. A couple of kilometres after crossing the Bombay-Agra road it turns northwards, crosses the

* The section on Geography is contributed by Prof. K. Ramamurthy of the University of Poona, Poona.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Boundaries.

Bori again and runs along the Galna hills to the south of the Panjhra valley and then along the Sahyadris. Just east of Songad, it runs due eastwards and after bending outward so as to include Nawapur, runs due northwards to join the Nesu river. This river forms the boundary up to a point about half a kilometre north of Marod. From here it runs due northwards crossing the Devmogra hills and then runs along the foot of their northern slopes. The boundary hereafter behaves like a contour re-entrant crossing the Tapi about five kilometres west of Prakasha-Korit and runs westwards passing just south of Khapar. After Porambi it runs in a north-north-westerly course and enters the Satpudas along the upper course of a minor tributary of the Tapi. Crossing the Satpudas, it follows the Devganga river up to its confluence with the Narmada and then with the latter river.

The entire area now comprising the two districts of Dhulia and Jalgaon and the three talukas of Malegaon, Nandgaon and Baglan of Nasik district was previously administered as one district of Khandesh with headquarters at Dhulia. In 1869 the three talukas above referred to were transferred to the newly formed district of Nasik. In the year 1906 the district was broken into two districts known as West Khandesh and East Khandesh, the West Khandesh retaining Dhulia, Nandurbar, Navapur Peta, Pimpalner, Shahada, Shirpur, Sindkheda and Taloda talukas of the old Khandesh district. The headquarters of Pimpalner taluka was transferred to Sakri in 1887 and the name was also changed to Sakri taluka in 1908. The new taluka of Akkalkuva was created in 1950. In the same year five villages four from Nasik district and one from Broach district were added to this district. At the same time two villages from this district were transferred to Broach district. Subsequent to the reorganisation of States in 1960, 38 villages each from Navapur and Nandurbar talukas, 43 from Taloda taluka and 37 from Akkalkuva taluka were transferred to Gujarat State.

The details of the administrative sub-divisions, with their area, number of villages and towns, population and density of population in 1971 are given in the statement below :—

Sub-divisions	Name of the Taluka	Area in square kilometres	Number of Villages		Number of Towns	Population	Density of population per square kilometre
			Inhabited	Uninhabited			
Nandurbar ..	Nandurbar ..	1,100·0	123	4	1	182,558	166
	Navapur ..	919·8	88	5	1	131,438	143
	Akrani ..	600·9	155	..	..	45,619	76
	Akkalkuva ..	846·0	170	2	..	78,707	93

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Administrative sub-divisions.

Sub-divisions	Name of the Taluka	Area in square kilometres	Number of Villages		Number of Towns	Population	Density of population per square kilometre
			Inhabited	Uninhabited			
Nandurbar—*contd.* ..	Taloda ..	355·2	82	1	1	70,463	198
	Shahada ..	1,112·4	175	4	1	183,682	165
Dhulia ..	Dhulia ..	1,946·8	153	5	1	380,841	196
	Shirpur ..	2,002·3	135	2	1	153,824	77
	Sindkheda ..	1,280·2	142	..	1	201,730	158
	Sakri ..	2,398·9	155	..	..	233,319	97
	District Total	13,143·0	1,379	23	7	1,662,181	126

Relief and drainage.

Except for a small area in the extreme north-west which drains into the Narmada, the district as a whole lies in the drainage basin of the Tapi. Parallel with the Tapi are three well marked belts of country running east to west; in the centre the rich Tapi valley, in the north the high and wild Satpudas, and the south and south-west bare ridges and well watered valleys separated by spurs of the Sahyadri ranges and innumerable dykes.

Hills.

Within the district are included the several ranges of Satpudas in the north and the Sahyadris and their off-shoots including several dykes in the west and south. The Satpudas, a broad belt of mountain land stretching in a wall-like manner on the northern side of the Tapi, rise from the first range of hills, ridge behind ridge, to the central ridge to a height of about 600 metres above sea level, and then slope down rather steeply towards the Narmada. Amongst these, two ranges of relatively higher elevation than the rest are discernible. In the more northerly one of these two, there are several peaks which are over 1,000 metres high such as the one to the east of the river Khai rising to 1,017 metres and the Toranmal rising to 1,155 metres in the Toranmal plateau. The southern range is even a higher range, the height of whose crest line is generally over 1,000 metres, with peaks rising over 1,200 metres (Boksa Dongar 1,208 metres lying north of Guliamba, two peaks lying east and west of Nandvan rising to heights of 1,233 and 1,200 metres respectively and Ashtamba Dongar 1,325 metres). The Ashtamba Dongar associated with Ashwathama and hence held sacred, is perhaps the highest peak in the district. Towards the east of the district these two ranges are united by the Toranmal plateau.

Toranmal: The Toranmal plateau, once the seat of the rulers of Mandu, a long narrow table-land 1,000 metres high and about 41 square kilometres in area, lies in north latitude 21°52′ and east

CHAPTER 1.

General.

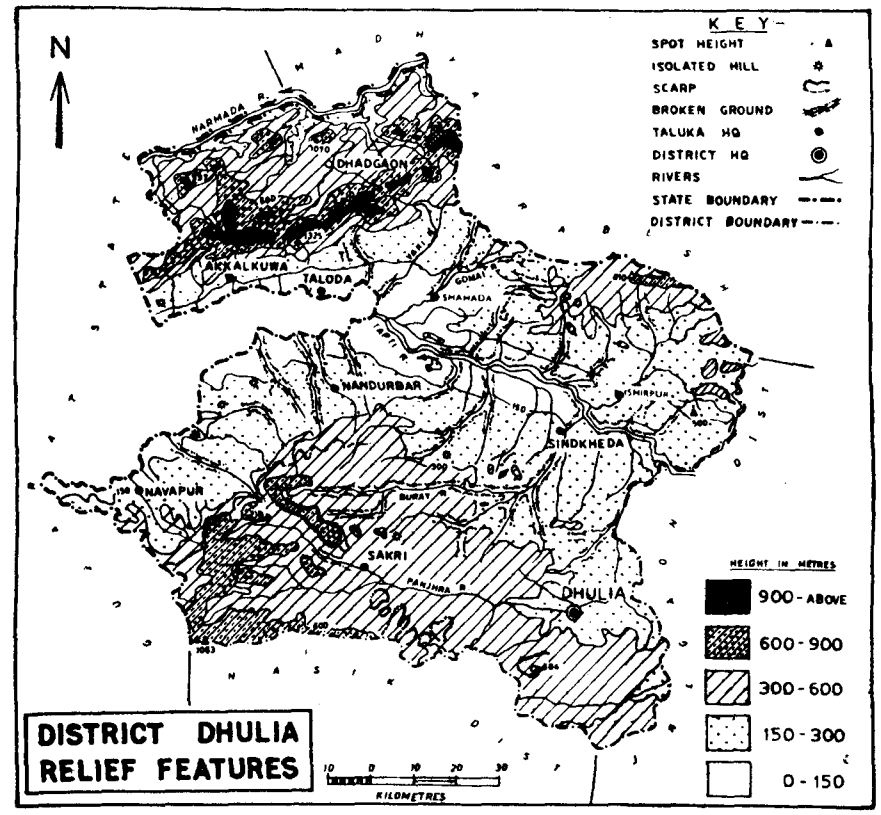
GEOGRAPHY.

Hills.

longitude 74°30′ about 130 kilometres from Dhulia. The hill top stretches in small flat plateaus broken by irregular lines of hills of relative heights varying from 30 to 45 metres. Near the south-west corner, a large lake, about 2·8 kilometres in circumference, 600 metres broad and 10 metres deep in the centre, partly formed by stopping a gorge between two small hills, is flanked by a much fissured range about 120 metres high. The top of the dam, with room for a small house or tent, is a delightful spot, much of it shaded by trees and cooled by the west wind which blows strong and steady across the lake during the hot months. At one side the surplus waters are taken through a rock-cut passage some 365 metres to a smaller lake about 9 metres lower, and then carried to a precipice with a clean drop of 74 metres. There are also the remains of a few temples and walls. Except the Bhils and Pavras, who live in some scattered villages, the hill is mostly uninhabited. In the wet season (July-October), the rain is incessant, and sometimes so heavy as to offer very poor visibility. In the cold weather frosts are common. In the hot season (March-June), the lake, the neighbouring forests, and a strong steady south-west wind combine to make the climate delightful, with a mean temperature of 25° C. during May.

Sahyadris : The Sahyadri hills bound the south-western corner of the district. Here, in their northern extremities, they turn sharply towards the north-east leaving the broad Tapi plain between them and the Satpudas. Without any well marked peaks many of the Sahyadri ridges have curious and picturesque outlines. They are scattered one behind the other, chiefly running from south-west to north-east, but with many spurs starting eastwards from the main ranges. Except during the hot season, the climate is harmful. Even with a good rainfall and in places with deep forests yielding valuable timber, the slopes of the Sahyadris, especially towards the east have suffered from illicit forest clearings, and over large areas are bare, or have a little more than a covering of brushwood. Of the two roads that cross the Sahyadri hills from the Navapur taluka to the rest of the district, one runs through the Kondaibari pass, about 25 kilometres west of Nizampur and the other through the pass north of Kalamba near the south-west corner of the district.

Galna : The Galna hills and their continuations eastwards along the southern border of the district are but off-shoot spurs of the Sahyadris. South of Pimpalner, they reach their maximum heights in Mangitungi in three peaks with elevations of 1,291, 1,324 and 1,331 metres, the last two having caves cut in them. To the east of these hills is the Selbari pass through which runs the road from Pimpalner to Satana and Nasik. The hills gradually decrease in height eastward and are only just over 600 metres south of Dhulia town. Here they are relatively more barren with flat plateau tops, which increase in extent eastwards. North of the Galna hills are several minor spurs of the Sahyadris and these along with innumerable dykes separate the valleys of different tributary streams of the Tapi.



Hills.

Dykes.—An interesting feature in the topography of the district is the occurrence of chains of dykes running nearly in west-south-west to east-north-east direction to the south of the Tapi. The area of their dominance is in the southern part of the Nandurbar taluka, western part of Sindkheda taluka, with a few but very long ones in Sakri and Dhulia talukas. A very long dyke some 80 kilometres in length, runs parallel to the course of the Panjhra river on its northern side. This dyke has been responsible for determining the course the river has. It runs almost straight with a strike of S 34° E from a point a little north of Tamaswadi with some breaks as far as a point 2·5 kilometres north of Parola and probably continues further eastwards as far as the Girna river as evidenced by a number of isolated peaks in this line. The tank, three kilometres north-east of Parola, owes its origin to the damming of the Chikli river where it crosses through a break in this dyke near its eastern extremity. A few parallel dykes are also found north of the Tapi river to the west of Khapar in the Akkalkuva taluka, whose strike runs with a strike of N 25° E, roughly parallel to the slope of the Satpudas. It is quite likely that dykes exist in the midst of the Satpudas themselves, but these intrusive features might be lying buried under the cover of high hills. Still it is possible to identify a few of them west of Dhadgaon in Akrani taluka and in southern Shahada and western Shirpur.

Rivers.

Narmada.—The Narmada forms the boundary for about 70 kilometres on the western part of the northern border of the district. The course of the river exhibits a remarkable parallelism with the changing strike of the northern high range of the Satpudas. As the banks of the river rise rather steeply through the slopes of the Satpudas, the river has little value for the district.

In the district, the river receives a number of tributary streams draining the northern slopes of the Satpudas and making their way through steep and narrow winding valleys through the hills. Rising from the springs on the northern slopes of the main ranges, these streams have an abundant supply of water. However, it is difficult to take full advantage of this for developing agriculture due to the very rugged nature of the country. The chief tributaries of the Narmada are from east to west, the Jharkal, the Udai, the Khai, the Sambar and the Devganga. There are two trend lines repeated in general in the direction of the flow of streams, one parallel and the other nearly perpendicular to the direction of the Narmada. These trend lines become more and more pronounced from west to east, becoming very distinctive east of the Jharkal beyond the confines of the district.

Jharkal.—The Jharkal, rising outside the district, flows along the boundary of the district in a deeply trenched valley to join the Narmada. On its left bank it receives the drainage of streams running down the Toranmal plateau.

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Udai.—The river Udai takes its source near Valamba village in the springs just north of the southern high range of the Satpudas and has a fairly long course (35 kilometres) eastwards, between this range and the one to the north of it. It makes an abrupt turn and flows northwards, continuing the trend of its tributary stream from Chandseli. After passing by Dhadgaon, it flows in a tortuous course trending generally to the north-east and joins the Narmada. The road from Taloda to Dhadgaon through the Chandseli pass in the southern range of the Satpudas has the advantage of the comparatively easy gradients provided by the northerly course of the tributary and the principal stream.

Devnand or Khai.—The Devnand takes its source very near to that of the Udai, north of Valamba village and has a similar but shorter easterly course beyond a further range of the Satpudas and turns northwards and then north-eastwards, and after being joined by the Katri which flows by Kathi, continues in its north-easterly course under the name of the Khai to join the Narmada.

Sambar.—The Sambar, of a shorter length, flows in a general westerly course to join the Narmada.

Devganga.—The Devganga, the westernmost tributary of the Narmada in the district, rises on the southern slopes of the Rahuvala Dongar and has an initial southerly course till it is joined by the Dahel river, after which it flows first in a westerly course and then forms the district boundary with a general north-westerly course before it joins the Narmada. Its affluent Dahel rises near Valamba village and has a general north-westerly course till it joins the Devganga. Thus on the slopes of the peak rising to about 1,000 metres to the west of Valamba village, three streams viz., the Udai, the Devnand, and the Dahel originate and though follow different directions, ultimately flow into the Narmada.

Tapi.—Barring the relatively small area of the Narmada drainage of northern part outlined above, the rest of the district is completely drained by the Tapi and its tributaries. The Tapi takes its source in the highlands of central India and flows in a westerly course of 725 kilometres including its windings, and falls into the Gulf of Cambay, about 20 kilometres west of Surat. About 100 kilometres of this course lie within the limits of Dhulia district. Almost throughout its entire course within the district, the Tapi banks, except where they are scarred by courses or open to tributaries, rise high and bare. Each is a double bank, a lower of yellow earth much cut into by ravines, and further back a high upper bank rising to the level of the country round. During the rains, the floods in the river bed, setting with force along the outer banks and carrying sand and gravel, pile them at the points where the course of the river changes. In the dry season, when the water is low, these sand heaps act as dams enclosing reaches of still water up to 15 kilometres

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in length. Except where the bed is crossed by rocky barriers, after the floods of the rainy season are spent, the streams flow over gravel shoals in numerous channels with a general breadth varying from 45 to 90 metres, a depth under 50 centimetres and a speed ranging from 3 to 5 kilometres per hour.

The tributary streams of the Tapi may be broadly divided into three groups (*i*) the northern tributaries draining the southern slopes of the Satpudas, (*ii*) the southern tributaries which rise in the eastern face of the Sahyadris and their spurs and have long easterly courses before they turn northwards to join the Tapi and (*iii*) those other southern tributaries draining the western and northern slopes of the Sahyadris and flow either northwards or north-westwards towards the Tapi.

The northern tributaries of the Tapi, on account of the proximity of the high ranges of the Satpudas, are relatively small in length. Rising from innumerable springs they have been put to use for irrigation. Their peculiarity is that near the hills and again for several kilometres before they fall into the Tapi, their streams flow throughout the year; but in the middle belt where the coarse piedmont debris-slopes attain their maximum depth, their waters sink below, leaving the bed perfectly dry in the dry season. Among these innumerable and nearly parallel streams are included the Aner, the Dharamkhuli, the Dahivad, the Arunavati, the Kordi, the Lendi, the Kasari, the Sukti, the Mhais, the Gomai, the Vaki, the Vatskhai, the Varoli, the Utkhadi, the Dehli and the Kanji. Of these the Aner, the Arunavati, the Gomai and the Vaki are relatively more important.

Aner.—The Aner, after a long westerly course outside the district, forms the boundary of the district in its lower course till it joins the Tapi.

Arunavati.—The Arunavati rises in the slopes of the inner Satpuda ranges a few kilometres beyond the district and after forming its boundary for about 2 kilometres, enters the district and flows in a general south-westerly direction. Further making its way through the outer ranges of the Satpudas, and after passing by Shirpur, it joins the Tapi. The Jhirbavi formed by the union of the Titwa and another stream is an important left bank tributary of the Arunavati. The Titwa drains the northern slopes of the Satpudas and has a northerly or north-westerly course. The Arunavati receives a number of right bank tributaries, such as the Ghul, the Chondi and the Ambad.

Gomai.—Rising just outside the district, the river Gomai flows in its upper course along the boundary of the district and then after flowing in a north-westerly direction outside the district enters the district about five kilometres below Pansemal. It is the largest of the northern tributaries, itself receiving innumerable affluents—the Tipria (passing by Mandane), the Umri, the Sukhi and the Susri

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(passing by Sultanpur). The river Gomai is crossed by a number of dams, and canals taking off from them are used for irrigation. One of its left bank tributaries, the Bharmer, flows westwards and north westward parallel to the Tapi receiving the drainage of the residual hills and dykes to its north and joins the Gomai about two kilometres above Prakasha.

Vaki.—The Vaki, also a fairly large sized stream, receives a number of Satpuda streams on its right, and joins the Tapi just west of the district. The hot spring of Anakdev is situated just where it emerges from the Satpudas.

The Southern Tributaries.—The left bank tributaries of the Tapi belonging to the second group mentioned above, rise on the eastern slopes of the Sahyadris and their spurs and flow eastwards hemmed in by spurs or dykes at right-angles to the main Sahyadris, until these sink down into the plain or give rise to breaks or gaps, where streams make an abrupt northward turn and flow towards the Tapi. Except in the vicinity of the Tapi, where they get incised into the plain, throughout their middle and upper reaches, these streams have been crossed by small dams (bandharas) and are widely used for irrigation. The chief among them are Bori, the Panjhra, the Borai, the Amravati and the Bhad.

Bori.—The Bori, taking its rise in the southern slopes of the Galna hills and with two fifths of its entire course of 100 m. falling within the district, is the southernmost of such streams in the district. It is joined by the Kanoli river, a tributary from the south, at Vinchur, where the Chalisgaon road crosses it by a bridge. The Bori runs dry before the hot season, and even during the remaining months has very little water.

Panjhra.—The Panjhra rising in the Sahyadris, bounding the south-west corner of the district and passing by Pimpalner, has a fairly long easterly course hemmed in by the long dyke referred to already, on its north. About eight kilometres below Dhulia, where there is a major gap in the dyke, the river abruptly turns northwards and flows towards the Tapi and joins it three kilometres below Thalner at Mudavad. Its water supply lasts throughout the year.

Kan.—The Kan, an important tributary of the Panjhra, rising in the Sahyadris, a few kilometres further north, first flows eastwards and then south-eastwards in conformity with the trend of the Kondaibari spur from the Sahyadris to its north and flows into the Panjhra five kilometres below Sakri. Both these rivers, except in the lower course of the Panjhra below Betawad, have a succession of dams and canals and are greatly used for irrigation. There are in fact about 360 dams across the Panjhra river.

Burai.—The Burai river has its source north of the Kondaibari pass in the Sahyadris and has a long easterly course. It is joined by the

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Pan below Arava, where it turns north-eastwards continuing the course of the Pan. The Pan river rises just east of Nizampur and runs eastwards as far as Lonkheda, where it turns north-eastwards to join the Burai. The Rodi which has an easterly course as far as Nizampur turns abruptly northwards to join the Burai through a break in the dyke line at Nizampur. The fact that the Pan appears to be a continuation eastwards of the same valley axis as that of the Rodi, suggests that this may be an instance of river capture by a tributary flowing from Nizampur to the Burai by its active head-ward erosion across a fractured section of the dyke. Continuing further westwards in the same valley axis, a similar beheading of the headwaters of the Rodi by the stream flowing into the Burai opposite to Brahmanvel is also evident. Below the Pan confluence, the Burai receives a number of tributaries from the south and passes by Chimthana towards the Tapi. This river also has many dams and canals throughout its upper course.

Amravati.—Rising near the northern end of the Sahyadri spur, the Amravati has a similar easterly course determined by dykes to its north, well used for canal irrigation, after which it turns northwards to the Tapi. It has a similar system of tributaries from the south and south-west such as the Nai joining at Malpur, the Bhogavati joining it at Dondaicha and the Kanan opposite to Daul. There is a hot spring at Indve where the Nai changes from an easterly to a north-easterly course.

Madari.—The Madari river draining the northern slopes of the low hills west of Chimthana flows past Virdel with a northerly course, but near the Tapi it turns abruptly and flows in west-north-west direction parallel to the river to join it at the confluence of Amravati.

Bhad.—The last of the rivers of this group of considerable size is the Amravati-Bhad or simply Bhad, flowing by Ranala, which has similar characteristics exhibited on a smaller scale. Even the diminutive stream of the Kasad, the westernmost one of this series, exhibits the features of the group, an initial easterly course, northward turn at the gap or end of the dyke, etc.

Other Southern Tributaries.—Among the tributaries of the Tapi of the third group are the Sukhar, the Patalganga, the Nagan and the Rangavalli. The more easterly of these streams rise in the region of dykes and residual hills, and the dyke barriers are responsible for the convergence of their tributaries at the gap points, where they are able to make their way northwards. These points offer convenient places for the construction of dams for irrigation canals.

Nagan.—The Nagan is the largest of the more westerly streams, and is joined by several important tributaries, the Nesu, the Kordi, the Vandriaval and the Sanpan. The last one has its source near the Kondaibari pass and appears to flow between two parallel off-shoot spurs of the Sahyadris, which seem to be divided by this stream, for they join into a single spur east of the source of this river. As

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a matter of fact the Sahyadris here trending in a south-west to north-east direction represent as elsewhere the steeply rising scarp of the Deccan plateau from the western coastal lowland. Due to the active headward erosion of the Sanpan along a structural line of weakness at right angles to this scarp edge, the Sahyadris have been able to cut back into the plateau providing comparatively easy gradients for the route across the Kondaibari pass from the south-east. The valley slopes, on either side of this river in this portion, rise remarkably steeply to the general plateau levels, appearing to resemble, for a person looking up from the valley, two off-shoot spurs from the Sahyadris running in a south-easterly direction.

Geographical Aspects.

Geographical Aspects.—The district may be broadly divided into the following natural regions :—

(*i*) the Satpuda region, (*ii*) the Tapi valley proper, (*iii*) the region of dykes and residual hills of the Sahyadri spurs with eastward trending streams in between and (*iv*) Navapur and western Nandurbar region with a westerly aspect below the Sahyadri scarps.

Satpuda Region.

The Satpuda region.—North of the Tapi, the whole length of the rich alluvial plain is bounded by the steep southern face of the Satpudas, a belt of mountain land about 30 kilometres broad. Much of this hilly country, now with only a few scattered Bhil hamlets, was once peopled. In the wide valleys of Aner and Arunavati are the brushwood covered ruins of temples, mosques, wells and single storeyed houses of what once had been considerable towns. Though much is deserted, in the north and north-west the Akrani uplands are well tilled and prosperous, peopled by Pavras, skilful and hard-working peasants, whose homesteads, each in its plot of fields, are sheltered by well-kept mango and *moha* groves.

West of Toranmal, the Satpudas break into two ranges of hills, which between their north and south faces, enclose an irregular table-land about 50 kilometres long and 25 kilometres broad. In this area are situated most of the scattered hamlets of the Satpuda region, barring the area up to about 12·5 kilometres west of the Toranmal plateau, which is devoid of any hamlet. Outside this table-land only a few hamlets are to be seen on the banks of the Narmada and some of the streams flowing into it. The whole surface of the plateau region is very rugged ranging in height from 300 to 600 metres above the sea level. The highest parts are the north and south ridges, which enclose between them a succession of parallel ranges of low hills. Between the hills are many rich valleys and table-lands watered by unfailing streams. The lower hills are undulating and the soil of rich, decomposed ironstones, yields abundant crops of millets and other grains. The higher ranges are covered up to their summits with thick brushwood, which besides supplying fuel and timber, furnishes many valuable drugs and dyes. The valleys and plateaus are parcelled into fields, divided into strips of grass. The river banks are always green, the landscape

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Satpuda Region.

is broken by means of date palms (*shindi*) and on all the sides the view is bounded by broken rugged hill tops. The hills are believed to contain veins of silver, copper and tin.

The water supply is abundant. It is obtained from wells, rivers and streams and during the hot season from springs and holes dug in the river beds. Though not lacking in rich alluvial patches, the soil is on the whole rocky and poor, yielding very small quantities of wheat and gram.

As the country is at considerable elevation, the heat is moderate all the year round. During the winter months, the cold is severe.

Unlike the rest of the Satpudas, much of Akrani mahal teems with an active, hard working and increasing population. They mostly belong to the two tribes of Varlis and Pavras, of whom the Pavras, who are probably of Rajput descent, are distinguished from the Varlis and other Bhils by their skill as husbandmen. Like most mountainous tribes, they are keenly attached to their hills and never leave them. Many of them have large herds of cows and buffaloes, pasture being abundant along the banks of the streams. They have no sheep or pigs, but a large stock of goats and poultry. Dhadgaon, the headquarters of Akrani mahal, is situated in the midst of a relatively flat area near the western bank of the Udai.

Passes.—Four passes lead through the Satpudas to Akrani from the rest of the district. The easternmost is on the road leading from Shahada to Toranmal *via* Mhasvad, Ranata valley (a tributary of the Vaki) or Sursi valley. The second route, the best and most used, leads from Shahada through Mhasvad following the upper course of the Vaki river, through Mandvi, and continues on the top of the ridge to Dhadgaon. The State Transport services continue this route through Kathi to Mulgi. The next route, hardly passable except on foot proceeds from Taloda through Pratappur, Ranipur, Bhandara over the Dhoda hill through Chinalkua, Palka to Dhadgaon. Another one from Taloda through Rojhva, Kothar, following the course of the Vaiskhai crosses the high range by the Chandseli pass and then continues northwards, first along the course of a tributary of the Udai and then the Udai itself, passing by Kakarpati, Gauria, Kamod and Palka. The Vanjaris from Shahada and Gujarat use these passes, supplying the people with salt and groceries and buying their surplus field and forest produce. The export of grain from Akrani is considerable. There is also a large trade in Charoli, *Buchania latifolia* seed, *moha* flowers, honey, bees' wax, lac, gums and resin. The westernmost route is the one from Akkalkuva through Nulsibari along the upper course of the Utkhadi river, west of Bavahiria Dongar through the Amlibari pass northwards to Kathi.

Tapi Valley.

The soils of this region are extremely fertile except in some portions near the main river and its tributaries, which have cut down the land very badly and removed the top soil. Otherwise

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Tapi Valley.

the soils grade from the deep fertile soils to coarse shallow to stony soils away from the river either northwards towards the Satpudas or southwards towards the residual hills and dykes. On account of the fact that the river and its tributaries have cut down their beds far below the general level leaving in places almost vertical walls, these are of little use for irrigational purposes. Due to the same cause even the water table has been lowered considerably close to the Tapi and wells are consequently very deep, even as much as 30 metres below the ground level. It may be mentioned here that the water table is fairly close to the surface near the foot of the Satpudas, where the coarse debris slope begins and is only of shallow depth and bed-rock near the surface, *e.g.*, at Hadamba, the water table is two metres below during the monsoon and four metres in the dry season, at Boradi, water is found within six metres and the wells actually overflow in the rainy season. Away from the Satpudas, the depth of the water table increases *e.g.*, at Rojhva 25 metres, with increasing thickness of the debris slopes, while still further off where the latter thin out the water table again comes near the surface *e.g.*, at Taloda about five metres. In the deep black soils towards the Tapi river, the water table again sinks below the surface to more than 12 metres and sometimes even to 30 metres. These changes in the levels of the water table on account of the variation in the thickness of the debris slopes explain also the variations in the amount of water at the different reaches of the Satpuda tributaries referred to previously.

To the south of the Tapi the depth of the water table becomes steadily less and less away from the river and wells become more numerous especially in the valleys of tributary streams. Though this valley is densely settled, a strip of land 3 to 5 kilometres from the river on either side of it seems to have been avoided except for a few ones on the banks of the river due to badly cut up land and the great depth of the water table making well sinking arduous and futile. The road connecting a series of villages, Padhavad, Pashta, Varshi, Virdel and Nimgul seems to define exactly the limit of the strip on the south side. There is a second line of even larger villages south of the first, Betavad, Nardhana, Sindkheda, Dondaicha, Ranala and Nandurbar on the margin of this region; the last three may be even considered as belonging to the region of dykes and residual hills.

In the western part of the Tapi valley at least the larger villages show a preference to the eastern banks of streams. In the northern part of this region, the Gomai river has been dammed and canal water made available in Shahada taluka. Many of the Satpuda streams are utilised for irrigation by raising water from the beds of the streams, flowing rather deep below the ground level, by installation of pumps. There are also wells fitted with pumps used for irrigation. The crops which are grown under irrigation are invariably sugarcane and chillis sometimes but rarely wheat and Cambodia cotton. The *kharif* crops grown in this area are groundnut, cotton

(Virnar) white jowar and sesamum. *Tur* and a little *ambadi* are grown in lines in the midst of jowar or cotton fields. On account of the deep black soils of the area, the principal cropping season is the *rabi*, when *dadar*, a superior variety of jowar, and wheat are the chief crops.

The various taluka headquarters on the north, Shirpur, Shahada, Taloda, and Akkalkuva are all situated on the outer bends of tributary streams, a few kilometres away from the main river and are linked by road somewhat parallel to the course of the Tapi. There are a few large sized villages on the north banks of the Tapi such as Thalner, Sarangkheda and Prakasha. These happens to be either of historic or religious importance. Prakasha is situated on the raised triangular ground between the Gomai and the Tapi, where the former joins the latter. There is a smaller twin settlement of Korit on the opposite bank of the Tapi connected by a ferry service to Prakasha. Sindkheda, the headquarters of the taluka of the same name, on the western bank of the Burai river, is connected by a ford to its twin, Patan, on the opposite bank on the way to Shirpur. Dondaicha, situated on the raised ground in the angle formed by the confluence of Amravati and Bhogavati, has a more pleasing look with fine brick houses with sloping roofs developed in recent times on account of the railway connection. Thus all the large sized settlements are situated well away from the main river on the margin of this sub-region near or in the fringes, of the region of dykes and residual hills.

Region of dykes and residual hills.

This comprises the southern part of Nandurbar and Sindkheda and the whole of Sakri and Dhulia talukas. This region consists of residual hills and dykes of poor dry and stony soils intervened by well watered valleys of the eastward trending upper courses of streams with somewhat better soils and intense agricultural activity based on canal and well irrigation. This region is one of the few regions in Maharashtra with well developed canal irrigation even in pre-British times, probably on account of the rivers flowing in a region of light soils derived from the slow weathering of the dykes. On account of the general inferiority of the soils, the predominant crop is *kharif bajri*; cotton and groundnut are also widely grown. In the irrigated valley sections, especially in the Panjhra valley, sugarcane, Cambodia cotton and wheat are raised. In the western section with higher rainfall, along with the above crops, ragi and rice and a little gram are also grown.

Navapur and western Nandurbar region.

This region with a westerly aspect below the Sahyadrian scarps, is full of steep hill ranges covered with forests, broken here and there by casual tillage which surrounds the Bhil hamlets. The Sahyadris come to an end in the north-east corner of this sub-region and though they gradually fall away towards the Tapi they form a noticeable feature from the plain lands to the east. The westerly aspect accounts for the higher rainfall of this area (75 to 100 cms.) as compared to the rest of the district. The rivers afford a good supply of

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Navapur and western Nandurbar region.

water throughout the year. In the *kharif* season rice, *tur* and jowar are sown in mixtures; after the dry rice is harvested, jowar and tur continue to grow to be harvested later. Ragi (locally known as *nagali*) is a fourth crop of this region. In the *rabi* season irrigated and unirrigated wheat and Bengal gram are grown. No groundnut is grown in this sub-region.

Taking the district as a whole, groundnut, cotton and jowar are the important crops, with some sugarcane and chillis under irrigation. Flat mud topped houses are the rule in the rural parts and in the eastern parts of drier climate. However, out of the 15 talukas of Maharashtra sharing the highest proportion of dwellings with walls of grass, leaves etc., three are in Dhulia district, *viz.*, Akrani, Akkalkuva and Navapur. These talukas are well-known hilly habitats of scheduled tribes and have large areas under forests.

Throughout the district the neem trees have been planted as avenue trees on roadsides; less common is the tamarind and other trees are seldom to be found.

CLIMATE*

Seasons.

The climate of this district is on the whole dry except during the south-west monsoon season. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from December to February is followed by the hot season from March to May. The south-west monsoon season which follows thereafter lasts till September. October and November constitute the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district are available for 9 raingauge stations for periods ranging from 58 to 93 years. Tables 1 and 2 give the details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole. The average annual rainfall in the district is 674·0 mm. (26·53″). The rainfall is heavier in the hilly regions of the western ghats and the Satpuda ranges. Navapur near the western border has an annual rainfall of 1097·1 mm (43·19″). The rainfall during the south-west monsoon constitutes about 88 per cent of the annual rainfall, July being the rainiest month. Some rainfall is received mostly as thunder-showers in the post-monsoon season. There are variations in the rainfall from year to year. In the fifty year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall in the district amounting to 156 per cent of the normal occurred in 1944 while the lowest annual rainfall which was only 44 per cent of the normal occurred in 1918. In the same fifty year period the rainfall in the district as a whole was less than 80 per cent of the normal in six years, two of which were consecutive. But at some of the stations, two or three consecutive years of such low rainfall have occurred twice or thrice in the fifty year period. The rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal for four consecutive years from 1904 to 1907 at Navapur and for 9 consecutive years from 1901 to 1909 at Nandurbar.

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

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Rainfall.

It will be seen from table 2 that the annual rainfall in the district was between 500 and 800 mm. (19·69″ and 31·50″) in 36 years out of fifty.

On an average there are about 42 rainy days (*i.e.*, days with rainfall of 2·5 mm. – 10 cents – or more) in a year in the district. This number varies from 31 at Sakri to 58 at Navapur.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 324·6 mm. (12·78″) at Navapur on July 26, 1896.

Temperature.

There is one meteorological observatory in the district located at Nandurbar. The records of this observatory may be taken as fairly representative of the meteorological conditions in the district as a whole. From about the latter half of February, temperatures increase steadily till May which is the hottest part of the year with the mean daily maximum temperature at 40·7° C (105·3° F) and the mean daily minimum at 25·8° C (78·4° F). Hot, dry winds blow during April and May and the heat is intense with the maximum temperatures going above 45° C (113·0° F) on some days. Thunder-showers occur during the afternoons and bring welcome relief from the heat on some days. With the onset of the south-west monsoon by about the second week of June there is an appreciable drop in day temperatures and the weather is pleasant in the south-west monsoon season. By about the beginning of October when the south-west monsoon withdraws, day temperatures begin to rise and a secondary maximum in day temperature is reached in October. The night temperatures, however, steadily decrease. From November, both day and night temperatures drop rapidly till January which is the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 30·3° C (86·5° F) and the mean daily minimum at 16·2° C (61·2° F). During the cold season, cold waves which sometimes affect the district in association with western disturbances which pass across north India the minimum temperature may drop down to about 8° to 9° C (46·4° to 48·2° F).

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Nandurbar was 46·1° C (115·0° F) on May 19, 1955. The lowest minimum was 8·9° C (48·0° F) on January 10, 1954.

Humidity.

Except during the south-west monsoon season when the humidity is above 70 per cent, the air is rather dry over the district during the rest of the year. The driest part of the year is the summer season when the relative humidity is only 20 to 25 per cent in the afternoons.

Cloudiness.

During the south-west monsoon season the skies are heavily clouded to overcast. For the rest of the year skies are mostly clear or lightly clouded. During the afternoons in the latter half of summer the cloudiness is more than in the mornings.

Winds.

Winds are generally light to moderate with some strengthening in force during the summer and monsoon seasons. During the south-west monsoon season, winds are mainly south-westerly to westerly.

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Winds.

In the post-monsoon season winds are light and variable in directions in the mornings and north-easterly to easterly in the afternoon. In the winter and summer seasons winds are mostly from directions between south-west and north-west, with northerly or north-easterly winds blowing on some afternoons.

Special Whether Phenomena.

In association with the westward passage of depressions from the Bay of Bengal in the south-west monsoon season and storms or depressions from the Arabian sea in the post-monsoon season, the district gets wide-spread heavy rains and strong winds. Thunderstorms occur in the summer and post-monsoon seasons. Even in the south-west monsoon season rainfall is sometimes associated with thunder.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and special weather phenomena for Nandurbar.

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Special Weather Phenomena.

TABLE No. 1

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL

Station	No. of years of data		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest *annual rainfall as % of normal year†	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal year†	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Amount (mm.)	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Date
Dhulia ..	50	(a)	7·6	3·1	2·5	2·3	10·4	125·0	149·3	97·0	144·3	38·9	23·6	4·8	698·8	223 (1949)	33 (1911)	152·4	1944, August 17.
		(b)	0·6	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·9	6·7	9·6	7·0	7·1	2·2	1·4	0·4	36·6	172 (1946)	32 (1920)	236·2	1896, July 26
Sakri ..	50	(a)	5·3	1·8	1·8	3·8	9·9	99·8	120·9	71·1	110·0	38·1	23·9	6·6	493·0				
		(b)	0·4	0·2	0·2	0·4	0·7	5·7	8·3	5·2	6·2	2·3	1·4	0·4	31·4	178 (1944)	49 (1918)	209·5	1944, August 16
Pimpalner ..	48	(a)	4·1	2·5	3·6	2·8	11·4	102·6	174·2	105·9	116·8	34·5	22·3	5·3	586·0				
		(b)	0·3	0·2	0·3	0·3	0·6	6·2	12·2	8·7	7·0	2·5	1·2	0·5	40·0	195 (1944)	31 (1918)	168·4	1910, July 5
Nandurbar ..	50	(a)	7·4	1·3	1·5	1·3	6·6	117·3	205·5	126·5	117·3	36·8	17·5	4·1	643·1				
		(b)	0·4	0·2	0·2	0·2	0·4	5·9	14·9	11·0	6·8	1·9	0·9	0·3	43·1	174 (1946)	57 (1941)	324·6	1896, July 26
Navapur ..	50	(a)	5·6	2·0	1·8	2·3	6·1	142·5	421·9	273·1	180·3	40·4	12·7	8·4	1097·1				
		(b)	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·2	0·6	7·0	19·4	17·1	10·1	2·0	0·7	0·3	58·1	165 (1931)	34 (1918)	164·9	1954 September 30.
Taloda ..	50	(a)	6·9	1·8	1·0	1·0	7·6	132·3	271·3	172·2	147·3	30·2	13·5	4·6	789·7				
		(b)	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·2	0·7	7·0	17·2	14·5	8·1	1·7	0·8	0·3	51·2	161 (1933)	36 (1918)	158·2	1954 September 30.
Shahada ..	50	(a)	6·9	0·8	1·3	1·5	7·1	126·0	203·2	127·5	135·1	32·3	10·9	6·1	658·7				
		(b)	0·4	0·1	0·1	0·2	0·7	6·2	14·3	10·9	7·4	2·1	0·8	0·3	43·5	158 (1931)	44 (1911)	208·3	1920, July 16
Shirpur ..	50	(a)	5·6	2·0	1·8	1·3	8·9	116·6	195·6	124·2	115·3	27·7	13·2	3·6	615·8				
		(b)	0·4	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·9	6·4	12·6	8·9	6·4	1·7	1·0	0·5	39·5	173 (1931)	34 (1918)	203·2	1944, August 17
Sindkheda ..	50	(a)	5·3	2·5	1·5	2·0	8·6	121·7	159·0	102·4	113·5	33·0	18·3	5·6	573·4				
		(b)	0·4	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·7	5·8	10·8	7·3	6·6	2·0	1·1	0·5	35·9	156 (1944)	44 (1918)		
Dhulia (District).		(a)	6·1	2·0	1·9	2·0	8·5	120·4	211·2	133·3	131·1	34·7	17·3	5·5	674·0				
		(b)	0·4	0·2	0·2	0·2	0·7	6·3	13·3	10·1	7·3	2·0	1·0	0·4	42·1				

(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 1959. †Years given in brackets.

TABLE No. 2

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE DISTRICT

(Data 1901–'50)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
201—300	1	701-800	8
301-400	1	801-900	5
401-500	2	901-1,000	3
501-600	14	1,001-1,100	2
601-700	14		

TABLE No. 3

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY

(Nandurbar)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity	
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	0830	1730‡
January ..	30·3	16·2	35·9	1958 Jan. 6	8·9	1954 Jan. 10	54	33
February ..	33·5	18·1	40·6	1955 Feb. 22	12·3	1957 Feb. 10	42	24
March ..	37·5	22·0	43·3	1956 Mar. 31	14·2	1960 Mar. 23	48	21
April ..	40·4	25·5	45·6	1958 Apr. 25	18·9	1955 Apr. 1	47	19
May ..	40·7	25·8	46·1	1955 May 19	15·1	1957 May 10	62	26
June ..	36·6	25·0	42·8	1953 June 13	14·5	1957 June 24	74	48
July ..	30·7	23·2	38·2	1960 July 23	14·8	1957 July 27	87	77
August ..	29·7	20·7	38·9	1954 Aug. 9	21·1	1956 Aug. 5	90	80
September ..	31·0	20·5	36·1	1960 Sep. 22	20·6	1952 Sep. 26	85	74
October ..	34·4	19·4	38·9	1952 Oct. 5	16·2	1958 Oct. 31	62	44
November ..	32·9	16·1	37·2	1957 Nov. 19	11·7	1956 Nov. 30	46	36
December ..	31·4	16·3	35·0	1953 Dec. 2	10·6	1954 Dec. 30	47	35
Annual ..	34·1	20·7					62	43

‡ Hours I. S.T.

TABLE No. 4

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR

(Nandurbar)

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
5·5	6·0	6·8	8·7	12·5	13·8	11·3	10·1	9·1	5·0	5·1	5·0	8·2

TABLE No. 5

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA

(Nandurbar)

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder ..	0·3	0·0	0·5	1·3	0·3	1·0	1·0	0·0	0·5	0·5	0·7	0·0	6·1
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	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0
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	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0

FORESTS.

The forests in the district cover an area of 4,732·199 km² (1,827·188 sq. miles) of which 4,413·423 km² (1,704·028 sq. miles) and 318·776 km² (123·080 sq. miles) are under Forest and Revenue departments respectively. Of the total area 3,937·435 km² (1520·248 sq. miles) constitute reserve forests and 794·764 km² (306·86 sq. miles) private forests.

Forests in Dhulia comprise two divisions *viz.*, North Dhulia division and West Dhulia division, consisting of five and seven ranges respectively. Whereas the former includes the ranges of Sangvi, Shirpur, Shahada, Taloda and Akrani, the latter those of Dhulia, Sakri, Pimpalner, Chinchpada, Navapur, Nandurbar and Laling. At Laling a fodder bank scheme has been set up.

Two forest research stations and a garden have been established in order to study the silvicultural character of the exotic species and to determine the land suitable for its introduction. Experiments are also carried out to evolve suitable techniques to raise the various indigenous species.

The distribution of forests and the types of vegetation are mainly governed by the rainfall, climate and the geological formation of the tract. Rainfall over the major forest area of this district ranges from 889 to 1016 mm (35″ to 40″) which combined with the soil factor is just sufficient to sustain teak, the major produce of the district, and other species to only pole size. However, the rainfall in what are known as Taloda reserves, Devmogra block (Nandurbar

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range), Hill block (Navapur, Chinchpada and Nandurbar ranges), and Umarpata block (Chinchpada range) ranges from 1,016 to 1,270 mm (40″ to 50″) and hence teak in these areas attains much better size.

The forests of this tract are chiefly of tropical dry deciduous type. Various sub-types chiefly depending upon climatic and edaphic variations are also met with. The careless and unsystematic cutting of sleepers, during the making of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, now the Central Railway, coupled with the illegal cuttings by the Bhils, did much to lessen the value of these forests. Still almost every tree known in Western India is found in Satpuda hills. In recent years better means of communications and conservancy have secured a fresh growth. It is a peculiarity of the Satpudas that the nature of the forest varies greatly every 30 or 45 kilometres. In the east, *anjan, Hardwickia binata* and *salai, Boswellia serrata* predominate, in Shirpur *anjan* has almost disappeared, and teak, *Tectona grandis,* in good quantity, though of no great size, is found in all the valleys. The Shahada forests are chiefly of *khair, Acacia catechu,* though other varieties are also found, and lastly in Akrani *anjan* reappears on the banks of the Narmada. Elsewhere teak is the leading tree. Though, as has been already stated, Dhulia forests contain very many different species of trees, the most important from the point of view of forest economy are teak, *sadada, khair* and *shisam.*

Description.

The following is a brief description of the forests broadly met within the district :—

(1) *Teak High Forests.*—Teak, *Tectona grandis,* chiefly occurs in the eastern and western plains felling series of Taloda range and Devmogra block of Nandurbar range. Taloda though much cut into by tillage, is a splendid mixed forest with good teak. It is one of the largest timber marts in the district and ensures a ready sale for the timber. Devmogra close by the Tapi is a fine compact block of dense forest. A most valuable and promising reserve, it has a good stock of teak rafters and saplings. These correspond to Champion's type 5 AC, b, *i.e.,* dry teak forests and are some of the most valuable forests of the tract. Teak trees in these tracts attain heights ranging from 18·29 to 21·34 metres (60′ to 70′). In some cases these trees grow upto 27·43 metres (90′). Besides teak, these forests also contain many other valuable hard wood species in high proportions, the prominent among them being *ain* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *dhavda* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *shisam* (*Dalbergia latifolia*), *bia* or *bibla* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *kalamb* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*) and *khair* (*Acacia catechu*). Those occurring in small proportions are *kusum* (*Sehleichera trijuga*), *tembru* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), *nana* (*Lagerstroemia lanccolata, shirus* (*Albizzia lebbeck*), *palas* (*Butea monosperma*) and *aal* (*Morinda tinctoria*).

(2) *Teak Coppice Forests.*—This type is chiefly noticed in Sangvi, Shahada and Shirpur ranges. Shahada is a fine, compact block of forest, yielding much *khair* mixed with teak and the

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commoner woods. Shirpur, a continuation of Shahada reserve has plenty of nature *anjan* and *khair* in parts. The easiest to get at and the simplest to work of the Satpuda reserves, it has suffered greatly from former years' careless cutting. The south-east is watered by the Aner and its tributaries and the west by the numerous streams that unite to form the Arunavati. Both the Aner and the Arunavati can in flood float timber. However, the species found in these ranges are of an inferior quality than those noticed above and teak here grows only upto 12·19 to 15·24 metres (40′ to 50′). These forests correspond to 5 AC, a, and 5 AC, b, sub-types of Champion's classification. The other associates of teak are : *dhavda, khair, modal* (*Lannea carmandelica*), *kakad* (*Garuga pinnata*), *ain, anjan,* etc. *Bia, shisam, bondara* (*Lagerstroemia parvifloria*), *kalamb, rohin* (*Soymida fabrifuga*), *palas, ghat bor* (*Zizyphus Xlopyra*), *tembru* etc., are other associates occurring in comparatively smaller proportions. *Salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) also occurs in fairly high proportion in murum soil on small hillocks and plateaus.

(3) *Hill Forests.*—These forests are chiefly found in the hilly areas of Akrani, north of Taloda and Sangvi ranges and hilly areas of Navapur, Nandurbar and Chinchpada ranges. In the mountainous territory of Akrani and Toranmal is one of the finest forests in Dhulia. Within its boundaries tillage is carried on a limited extent. Its very lonely position saved it from destruction when the railway was being laid. The Narmada on the north offers such a cheap water carriage, that even the poorer woods can be exported at a profit. The experiment of floating rafters was first tried in 1877 and has since been repeated time without number with fairly successful financial results. The Navapur hills are fairly wooded chiefly with *khair,* the finest in Dhulia, mixed with teak and a sprinkling of black wood, *shisam.* The forests found under this head correspond to Champion's 5 AC, b, and 5 AC, 3 *i.e.,* dry teak forests and dry deciduous forests. The topography is mountainous, interspersed by numerous *nalas.* Except along *nala* banks and in patches in depressions the soil is poor and shallow. Its composition varies with the elevation. On the lower slopes of all these hilly regions the soil is fertile and hence the main species are teak, *dhavda, kakad, bia, ain, bondara, rohin, kadhai* (*Sterculia ureus*), *moha* (*Madhuca latifolia*) etc. In the northern parts of Akrani range *anjan* is found fairly in large proportions. Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) practically occur over the entire area. In these ranges the proportion of teak and such other important species like *ain, khair, kalamb etc.,* rapidly decreases as we descend the slopes. Teak is practically absent at elevations of over 609·60 metres (2000′), but *dhavda* and *salai* predominate. On Toranmal plateau *tiwas* (*Ougenia dalbergioides*) occurs in abundance with a mixture of *kakad, modal, avla* or *awla* (*Phyllanthus emblica*), *rohin* and many other varieties in open patches. Bushes of *karvand* (*Carrisa carandus*) and *toran* (*Carrisa spinarium*) are also not uncommon.

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(4) *Anjan Forests.*—Forests of this type predominate in the south-eastern parts of Shirpur range and in comparatively flatter areas of Dhulia, Pimpalner and Sakri ranges. They correspond to Champion's subsidiary edaphic type dry deciduous E 4. The trees seldom attain height of over 15·24 metres (50′). *Anjan* in these areas occurs gregariously almost to the exclusion of other species. *Khair, hivar* (*Acacia leucophlea*), *ghat bor, hinganbet* (*Balanites roxberghi*), *henkal* (*Gymnosporia emarginata*) are also occasionally met with.

(5) *Miscellaneous Forests.*—These are chiefly the areas covering southern portions of Shirpur, Shahada and Nandurbar ranges and western parts of Pimpalner and Sakri ranges. The main species occurring in these areas are *ain, dhavda, modal, khair, kansar* (*Albizzia amara*), *salai, kakad, ghat bor* and occasionally teak. These generally correspond to Champion's type 5 AC/3, *i.e.*, dry deciduous forests. The growth in these areas is poor and large areas of understocked and blank patches are not an uncommon sight. In wetter areas *tembru, palas, aal* etc., occur in association with *ain*. Being situated adjacent to the highly cultivable areas there is heavy demand for fuel, fodder and grazing. Thus these forests have deteriorated to mere scrublands.

(6) *Pasture Lands.*—Pasture lands are generally found in the ranges of Dhulia, Sakri and Pimpalner. They correspond to Champion's type 6 AC *i.e.*, southern cutch thorny forests. These ranges have extensive grass-lands dotted at places with stunted and thorny trees and bushes of *khair hivar, ghat bor, henkal* etc. Scattered here and there are seen *dhavda kansar, neem, modal* and *salai* trees. Due to heavy grazing the growth of grass is generally stunted excepting in those pasture lands which are closed for grazing. The common species of grass occurring in the district are: *Aristida puniculota, Polytoca barbata, Andropogon contortus, Ischæmum rugosun, Anthistiria ciliata, Andropogon pumilus* and *Cymbopogon martini*. The last of these locally known as *rosha* is used in the manufacture of certain medicines and perfumes. It is highly in demand.

Minor Forest Produce.

The most important article is the flower of the *moha* tree (*Madhuca latifolia*), which is largely used in the manufacture of liquor. At present the trees are auctioned to the private persons from whom the flowers are purchased by distillers from other States. *Rosha* (*cymbopogon martini*) grass oil is another article of importance. Except these two articles, other minor forest produce of Dhulia forests is of little importance. Gums, myrobalans and *charoli* are among other minor produce.

Trees.

The planting of roadside trees during the last three four decades has received the greatest attention. The trees most commonly used are *neem* (*Melia azadirachta*), tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), and the *babhul* (*Acacia arabica*). The most successful plan is to form nurseries and plant out the seedlings when two years old, cracking

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but not removing the pot. Of late in addition to the roadside trees, at intervals of from 10 to 15 kilometres along the chief lines of traffic, sites for camping grounds have been marked and planted with groves of mango (*Mangifera indica*) and fig (*ficusbengalensis*) trees.

The following is a list of the chief Dhulia trees: *Apta, Bauhinia racemosa,* one of the large class of very various growth, is of little value. It is held sacred at the time of the *Dasara* festival (September-October). The leaves are sometimes used for *bidis. Avla, Phyllanthus emblica,* not very common or of very large growth, is a hard and somewhat brittle, but little used for wood. The fruit is like a large hard gooseberry, very sour and astringent, but eatable when cooked or preserved. It is also used in making ink. The bark is very astringent and used in tanning. *Aal, Morinda tinctoria,* though, if allowed, it grows into a tree, is chiefly cultivated as a plant for its dye. It is left for three years in the ground, and then dug out at considerable expense. Both the roots and the bark yield an excellent dye. The wood is useful, but cannot easily be found of any size. *Anjan, Hardwickia binata,* a leguminous tree, with a very rough black bark and small pale green leaves, grows to a great size. It abounds in parts of the Satpudas and in the hills to the south of Dhulia. The timber is excellent, of a dark red colour, and takes a good polish. The bark yields a strong fibre, which, without any preparation, can be twisted into rope. Cattle are very fond of the leaves. *Babhul* or *babhal, Acacia arabica,* the commonest and most generally useful tree in Dhulia, is very hardy, and grows rapidly in black soil. As a shrub it used to cover all the waste lands of Dhulia. It grows to a considerable size and has an excellent hard wood; but the timber is generally crooked, and long straight pieces can seldom be obtained. The wood is used for every imaginable house and field purpose, as well as for fuel. The bark is valuable in tanning, and yields a good yellow dye, and its sap is a useful gum. The leaves are the chief food of goats, and the long seed pods are eagerly devoured by sheep, goats, and cattle. Bamboo, *Dendrocalamus strictus* abounds all over the Satpudas and in the Western forests. It is chiefly used in the manufacture of paper as also of battens and rafters for house-building. *Bel, Aegle marmelos,* a highly ornamental tree, is found in small number all over the district. It has an excellent hard wood, but is seldom cut by the people, as it is considered to be sacred to Shiv. Its fruit makes a pleasant preserve, and has valuable medicinal properties. Prepared in some ways it acts as an aperient, in others as an astringent, and is useful in cases of dysentery or diarrhoea. The root, bark, and leaves are also used in making cooling remedies. The leaves are used as an offering to Shiv, and the seeds yield a varnish. The Banyan, *vat* or *vad, Ficus bengalensis,* one of the commonest of Dhulia trees, grows readily in light soil. It is held sacred by the Hindus and never cut or turned to any use save for shelter and shade. It grows readily from cuttings, and is well suited for road-sides. Its juice is sometimes used to reduce inflammation. The timber is of little value. The fruit, said

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to be poisonous for horses, is much eaten by birds. From the leaves, leaf-plates, *patravalis*, are made. *Bawa* or *Bawla*, *Cassia fistula*, not common in Dhulia, is one of the most ornamental of forest trees, throwing out in the hot weather tassels of beautiful hanging yellow flowers much like laburnum. Its long hanging pods are easily recognised. The wood, though close-grained and hard, is not much used. The bark serves in tanning, the root yields a purge, and the seeds are surrounded by a pulp which is used in the manufacture of certain drugs. *Bherda* or *behda*, *Terminalia bellerica*, a large forest tree, is rare in Dhulia. The wood is soft and sappy, and not of much value, being readily destroyed by insects. Its fruit forms one of the myrobalans, having dyeing and tanning properties. The wood is said to be used in parts of India for house purposes, after having been long soaked in water to season it. *Bor*, *zizyphus jujuba* of several varieties, is found everywhere, but in size seldom more than a bush. It is very thorny. The fruit is largely eaten and the bark is used in tanning. It is much liked by the lac insect. The fruit can be greatly improved by grafting. *Bakam*, *Melia sempervirens*, a highly ornamental tree, with excellent wood, grows chiefly in the open country. Its pretty lilac-like flowers make it very suitable for road-sides and gardens. *Charoli*, *Buchanania latifolia*, is very common, but seldom of any size. The wood is not much used. The stone of its cherrylike fruit, *charoli*, is eaten roasted or pounded, and used in confectionery and other cooking, especially in making curries. *Dudhi*, *Wrightia tinctoria*, is a small, rather rare tree, whose white, soft wood is useful for fancy work. *Dhaman*, *Grewia tiliæfolia*, flourishing near the sea, is rare in Dhulia. The wood is tough and elastic, and good for bows and carriage shafts. *Dhavda*, *Anogeissus latifolia*, one of the commonest and most useful of timber trees is found occurring along with teak. It has an excellent tough wood, useful for almost any purposes, and specially valuable for cart axles. *Hinganbet*, *Balanites roxberghi*, is a thorny bush of little value. The fruit is eaten and the bark yields a juice with which fish are poisoned. *Hivar*, *Acacia leucophlea*, not very common and seldom of any size, has a hard but somewhat brittle wood. It makes good posts but not planks. The bark supplies a tough and very valuable fibre for fishing nets or ropes. *Jambul* or *Jambhal*, *Eugenia jambolana*, is a very common tree, with a much eaten plum-like fruit. The wood, hard and of a reddish colour, is not much used. The Tamarisk or *Bastard Cypress*, *jhau*, *Tamarix dioica*, is common on all river banks or islands. It grows no larger than a bush and is of no value. *Katsawar*, *Eriodendron unfructuosum*, sometimes called a bombax and confounded with the *simal*, has a white soft wood of no use, save for making toys or fancy articles. The down round its seeds is used for stuffing pillows. It is not common anywhere in Dhulia. *Kadhai*, *Sterculia urens*, a large soft tree with a very peculiar pink bark, is of no value for timber. The seeds are roasted and eaten, and from its bark the hill people make cups and platters. The tree yields a gum. *Khair*, *Acacia catechu*, is plentiful in some parts of Dhulia, but never of any size. It has a dark red wood, somewhat brittle

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but of a great strength, and taking a good polish. It is useful for all house and field purposes. The wood, by boiling, yields the astringent juice *catechu*, *kat*, so much used with betel leaf and in medicine. The manufacture is the work of a special hill tribe called from their occupation *Katkaris* or *kat* makers. *Kalamb*, *Slephegyne parvifolia*, yields good timber. It is not plentiful in Dhulia. *Kahu*, *Terminalia arjuna*, one of the finest of forest trees, grows to a great size generally on the banks and in the beds of rivers. Its wood is of excellent quality, but from the amount of sap is hard to work. Large trunks are often sawn into single solid cartwheels. The wood grows harder by seasoning. *Kusum*, *Schleichera trijuga*, a large forest tree, with an excellent tough wood used for sugar mills and oil presses, is a favourite tree with the lac insect. Mango, *amba*, *Mangifera indica*, one of the best known of Indian trees, is excellent, hard, and deep coloured, and as it takes a bright polish, is well suited for furniture and carriage building. The wood yields an excellent charcoal. Mango groves are most freely scattered over some of the northern parts. The soil there is remarkably suited to the growth of the tree. After planting the seed at the beginning of the rainy season no care or trouble is bestowed on it except placing a few thorns round the young plant. Watering in the hot months is unnecessary. *Moha*, *Madhuca latifolia*, is found all over Dhulia. Its chief value lies in the pulpy bell-shaped flower, which, when dried, is eaten by the people, and is distilled into the common spirit of the country. Almost every animal, wild or domestic, eats the fresh flowers. It is an important article of trade, and during the hot months is the chief means of subsistence to Bhils and other hill tribes. The wood is hard and lasting, but the tree is too valuable to be cut for timber. The seed when allowed to form, is enclosed in a thick walnutlike pod. It yields an excellent oil, good for food and burning, and also for skin diseases. The leaves and bark make useful embrocations. Altogether the *moha* is one of the most valuable of Dhulia trees, but as it grows in the wildest forests, most of the produce is lost or supports wild animals only. In the open country a few good *moha* trees are a small fortune. *Mohan*, *Odina wodier*, is a very common, but according to general opinion, valueless tree. In Burma, it is said to grow to a great size, and yield a close-grained dark red wood useful for cabinet work. In Bombay its timber is utterly despised. The trunk is said to yield a medicinal gum. *Moka*, *Schrebera swietenioides* not common in Dhulia has a hard, tough, box-like wood, used by weavers for their looms and beams. *Nana*, *Lagerstroemia lanceolata*, a straightgrowing rather rare tree, yields good timber. *Neem*, *Melia azadirachta*, the Indian lilac, one of the commonest of garden and road-side trees, is chiefly ornamental and useful for shade. The wood is sometimes used for building. From its boiled leaves and fruit, a cooling drink useful in fevers is made. *Pangara*, *Erythrina indica*, is a rather rare leguminous tree of no size and of little value. *Pimpal*, *Ficus religiosa*, is held sacred by Hindus, and never cut by them. It readily fastens itself in walls and destroys them in the end, as no one

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will remove it. Its leaves are a favourite food for camels and elephants, and are much liked by the lac insect. Growing rapidly, it is suitable for road sides. Except as fuel, the wood is of no value. *Rohin, Soymida febrifuga,* grows in Satpuda hills; the wood is said to be of excellent quality for all in-door work, but not to stand exposure. The bark yields a cooling drink. Sandalwood, *chandan. Santalum aloum,* the well known tree yielding the sweet smelling wood and oil, is very scarce in Dhulia and never grows to any size. *Salai, Boswellia serrata,* a very common tree on all trap hills, conspicuous by its white and scaly bark, is supposed to have yielded the frankincense of the ancients, but in Dhulia no such substance is now extracted from it. The wood, full of gum, and burning readily, is used for torches. The flowers and seed nut are eaten by the Bhils. The gum exudes in abundance, but no use seems to be made of it. *Bhokar, Cordia latifolia,* is a rare tree in Dhulia. Elsewhere it grows to some size, and has an excellent whitish wood. It bears an edible plum whose soft pulp is a valuable remedy in lung diseases. *Shirus, Albizza lebbeck,* a species of *acacia,* is very ornamental with large leaves and light-coloured bark. This and other allied varieties are found all over India, but are not common in the Dhulia forests. It is much planted along road-sides and in gardens. The wood, of excellent quality, is used for all purposes. *Sadola, saj,* or *ain, Terminalia tomentosa,* is a fine, straight, and high-growing forest tree. Sheltered from the sun, the wood is excellent for house-building, yielding better planks and longer rafters than perhaps any tree but teak. *Sawar, Bombax malabaricum,* is a large and thorny tree with bright red flowers and a soft down used for stuffing pillows. The wood though soft is said to make good packing cases. It is also largely used in match-industries. It yields a useful resin, and the roots, when boiled, give a gummy substance used as a tonic in medicine. Wild Date, *shindi, Phoenix silvestris,* preferring the sea coast is not common anywhere in Dhulia. Neither its fermented nor its distilled juice is much drunk. Mats are made of the leaves and the stem can be used as a water trough. Blackwood, *sisu* or *shisam. Dalbergia latifolia,* is very scarce in Dhulia, and grows to no size. *Saundad, Prosopis spicigera,* a thorny tree, is not common in Dhulia The timber is said to be good for all ordinary purposes. Its pods contain an edible fruit. Tamarind *chinch* or *amli, Tamarindus indica,* a large slow-growing and very handsome tree, is found near all villages in gardens and fields. Its excellent hard wood makes the best crushers for oil or sugar mills, and is useful in a variety of ways. The fruit is sometimes eaten raw but generally cooked. The Palmyra Palm, *tad, Borassus flabelliformis,* thriving best near the coast, is very rare in Dhulia. Teak, *sag* or *sagvan, Tectona grandis,* in large or small quantities covers the entire district forests. It is the chief produce of Dhulia forests. The large leaves of the teak are much used for lining roofs under thatch. It yields excellent timber. The wood also yields a very good oil somewhat similar to that of linseed. *Tilavadi,* a species of *Albizzia,* common in some parts of Dhulia has a good wood for ordinary purposes. *Tembru, Diospyros melanoxylon,*

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the well-known ebony, is pretty common in Dhulia, but as it grows crooked and hardly ever of any great size, its wood is little used. It bears a large sweetish plum, very pleasant to eat. Its leaves are used in the manufacture of *bidis. Tivas, Ougenia dalbergeoides,* one of the most generally useful trees, yields a beautiful timber serving for field tools of all kinds. In Dhulia, probably from its having been so much cut before the days of conservancy, it is not very common and seldom grows to any great size. *Ubmar, Ficus glomerata,* a very common but valueless tree, bears bunches of flavourless figs on its stem and boughs. The wood withstands the action of water, and though, like most of the fig species, generally sacred, it is in some places used for shoring wells. *Varul* or *maharukh, Ailanthus excelsa* a tall and showy tree, grows near villages. Its wood is accounted of no value. *Palas, Butea monosperma* one of the commonest Dhulia trees, is at the beginning of the hot season, a mass of bright scarlet flowers. The leaves are much used as plates, and as the young shoots are eaten by camels and other animals, the tree seldom grows to any size. In Dhulia though the wood is not much used it is said to be strong and tough. It makes excellent charcoal. From the stem is extracted kino gum; the flowers yield a valuable dye; and the root and bark an excellent tough fibre. The juice is also used medicinally. It is a favourite with the lac insect, and the choicest lac is found upon it. The seed nut is useful as a purgative and as a vermifuge to horses.

ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Domestic Animals.

The old Khandesh Gazetteer has to say the following about domestic animals, wild animals and birds :—

"None of the breeds of Khandesh domestic animals are of any special excellence. Of HORSES, mares and foals the 1878-79 returns show a total of 14,087 head. Though the local breed is now poor and small, Dhulia horses were once esteemed the best and strongest in the Deccan. At present, the only animals of much value are a small but hardy breed of ponies raised by Thilaris, a tribe of wandering herdsmen, chiefly inhabiting the Khandesh. Some of these go excellently in the small curricles, tongas, used in the district. Of late years, Arab stud horses placed at most mamlatdars' head-quarters have done something to improve the breed. But as a rule the Khandesh people pay little attention to horse-breeding, and are far behind their neighbours in Nagar and Poona.

BULLOCKS, returned at 314,400, are not as a rule of any great value. There is a very good breed known as the Thilari, somewhat small but strong and hardy, fast-trotting and very teachable. It has suffered much from injudicious crossing. Weak and stunted bulls are allowed to roam at large with the village herds, and even where, as at the Government farm, a good bull is at hand, little care seems to be taken to obtain his services. Want of fodder in the hot dry weather goes far to injure the breed; only the more wealthy cultivators give their cattle anything like proper sustenance. A pair of good bullocks costs from £1 to £10 (Rs. 10—Rs. 100).

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COWS, returned at 222, 215, are poor and ill-fed. Little care is taken of the breed. Khandesh suffers terribly from cattle disease, apparently of many types, and showing various symptoms. Most forms of the disease may probably be traced to the want of proper food and clean water, and to exposure to the cold at night and the heat in the day. The price of a cow varies from 8s. to £ 1 (Rs. 4–Rs. 10).

BUFFALOES, returned at 108, 428, are on the whole much better than the other cattle. The people prefer their milk to cow's milk, and take more care of them, feeding and tending them better. The young males are usually sold into other districts as they are not much used for carriage or pack purposes. The finest buffaloes are found in the wilder parts where grazing is plentiful, especially near rivers. But there is not a hamlet where buffaloes, sometimes in considerable numbers, are not found. Female buffaloes cost from £ 1 10s. to £ 3 (Rs. 15–Rs. 30).

The roving Vanjaris sometimes bring fine cattle for sale from Nemad and Malwa, and thus enable the local farmers to improve their stock.

DONKEYS, returned at 7,852, are found nearly all over the district. They are used chiefly by potters in carrying clay or bricks, and by Bhois and others in carrying grain. They are a hardy breed of animals, picking up their food as best they can.

Herds of SHEEP and GOATS, returned at 198, 625, chiefly belonging to Dhangars, are found throughout the district. The breeds are very poor and stunted. Coarse blankets are woven from the wool.

The monthly cost of keeping a horse varies from 16s to £ 2 (Rs. 8–Rs. 20); of a bullock from 8s. to £1 (Rs. 4–Rs. 10); of a cow from 4s. to 10s. (Rs. 2–Rs. 5); and of a sheep or goat from 6d. to 2s. (annas 4–Re 1). Except milkmen whose she-buffaloes cost them from 4s. to £1 (Rs. 2–Rs. 10) each a month, cultivators seldom spend more than 4s. (Rs. 2) on a horse, and 2s. (Re. 1) on a pair of bullocks. The poorer classes spend little or nothing on their cattle, grazing them on village lands and hills free or on paying a nominal fee. Though sometimes kept by bankers for carrying bullion, camels are almost unknown.

Dogs, and sometimes cats, abound in every village generally without any recognised owners.

FOWLS are reared in large quantities everywhere by the lower castes, and especially by the hill tribes. There are no special varieties, and no trouble is taken to prevent promiscuous breeding. Cock-fighting, once a favourite amusement, has of late years died out. In former days a Mhar was proud of his pet fighting cock, and looked well after the breed. Eggs are the chief value of a poultry yard. But Khandesh has not as yet begun to supply the Bombay market.

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Wild Animals.

Up to the seventeeth century, the hilly tracts to the north of Dhulia were a great breeding place for wild ELEPHANTS. But probably from the frequent passage of armed bodies during the Moghal conquest of the Deccan, from the increase of traffic down the Tapi valley to Surat, and from the spread of tillage in Dhulia they were during the eighteenth century, frightened off[1]. The chief wild animal still found in the district is the TIGER, *vagh, Felis tigris*. In the disturbed times at the beginning of the present century, large tracts passed from tillage into forest, and tigers roamed and destroyed in the very heart of the district. In 1822 wild beasts killed 500 human beings and 20,000 head of cattle. Their destruction was one of the most pressing necessities, and in May, June and July of that year (1822) as many as sixty tigers were killed[2]. In spite of the efforts of Sir James Outram and his successors, tigers and other large beasts of prey continued to be so numerous that the fear of them kept waste and desolate some of the richest tracts in Khandesh. Even as late as the mutinies (1857-59) Khandesh, more than almost any part of Western India, continued a strong-hold for wild beasts. So dangerous and destructive were they that a special division of the Bhil Corps were, as tiger hunters, set apart to aid the Superintendent of Police. Since 1862, under the Superintendent of Police, Major O. Probyn, the destruction of tigers has gone on apace. Of late years, to the efforts of the district officers have been added a rapid spread of tillage and increase of population. The tiger is no longer found in the plains. Among the Satpudas in the north, along the Nemad frontier and the Hatti hills in the east and the south-east, in the Satmalas in the south, and in the Dangs and other wild western tracts he still roams. Even there his number is declining. The loss of cattle is inconsiderable and the loss of human life trifling. In the five years ending 1879, sixteen human beings and 391 heads of cattle were killed by them. The returns show a fall in the number of tigers slain from an average of nearly fifteen in the five years ending 1870 to ten in the nine years ending 1879[3].

1. Finch (1610) in Kerr's Voyages, VIII. 277. In 1630, Jamal Khan Karawal came to the Gujarat-Khandesh frontier and captured 130 elephants in the Sultanpur forests, of which seventy were sent to Delhi (Watson's Gujarat, 71). Whether lions were formerly found in Khandesh seems doubtful. The Ajanta paintings contain some well painted lions, and the Oriental Sporting Magazine (II. 44) has a song on Lion-Hunting from Khandesh. The same magazine (II. 195, Compare *Asiatic Intelligence*, 184, in *Asiatic Journal*, New Series, VII) has also a paper headed "Lion-Hunting in Khandesh", giving an account of the destruction, in three days (15th-18th May 1831), of three lions and a lioness near the old town of Patan. The article is signed "*An Old Khandeshi*", but from references in it to Abu and Sidhapur there is no doubt that the old town of Patan is not Patan near Chalisgaon, but the ancient capital of Gujarat about sixty miles north-west of Ahmedabad. Special inquiries have been made, but there would seem to be no record of lion-shooting in Khandesh since the beginning of British rule.

2. Mr. Chaplin's Report, 20th August 1822.

3. The details are: 1865, 28; 1866, 24; 1867 6; 1868, 12; 1869, 9; 1870, 23; 1871, 8; 1872, 20; 1873, 11; 1874, 6; 1875, 9; 1876, 7; 1877, 2; 1878, 16 and 1879, 14.

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The PANTHER, *bibla or bimta, Felis pardus,* is generally said to be of three distinct species, two large and one small. Of the two large kinds, one rivals the tigress in size, and as he will attack unprovoked, is equally or even more dangerous to man; the other smaller, stouter, and with a round bull-dog's head, has a looser, darker, and longer fur, with spots much more crowded and quite black along the ridge of the back and up the legs about as high as the shoulders and thighs. The third variety is a very different animal, much smaller and darker. As it lives chiefly on dogs, it is known among the natives as the dogslayer, *kuttemar.* In the fifteen years ending 1879, 658 panthers were killed, the yearly number varying from seventy-eight in 1878 to nineteen in 1870[1]. The HUNTING LEOPARD, *chitta, Felis jubata,* quite a different animal from the panther, has like a dog claws that do not draw in. In form like a greyhound, it has a short mane, bushy black-spotted fur, and a black tail. It is very rare in Khandesh, found in the Satpuda hills only. The WILD CAT, *ran manjar, Felis chaus,* met all over the district, is comparatively harmless, and differs in size, colour, and length of tail, only slightly from the house cat. The LYNX, *Felis caracal,* a rare animal, is occasionally found among rocky hills. It is very shy, and is seldom abroad after daybreak.

The HYENA, *taras, Hyaena striata,* once very common, is now rarely seen. The WOLF, *landga, Canis pallipes,* formerly caused much havoc among sheep and goats, and is even known to have carried off young children. Like the other flesh-eaters, he has been forced to give way before the spread of tillage. Still he is very destructive, and though he seldom attacks human beings, kills an immense number of sheep and goats, and two or three together will often pull down a good-sized young buffalo or heifer. During the fourteen years ending 1879, 4,138 wolves were killed, the yearly number varying from 603 in 1874 to seventy-one in 1879[2]. Besides the above, the JACKAL, *Kolha, Canis aureus,* and the FOX, *khokad, Vulpes bengalensis,* abound in the open country. The WILD DOG, *kolsunda, Cuon rutilans,* is also found in the Satpuda hills, hunting in packs.

The INDIAN BLACK BEAR, *asval, Ursus labiatus,* is found in all the forest-clad hills of Khandesh. Formerly abounding in the rocky hill tops of Pimpalner and Baglan in the south-west, the number of black bears has during the past twenty years been much reduced. Though not generally dangerous to life, he is at times very mischievous. Sugarcane, when he can get it, is one of his favourite articles of food, and he destroys much more than he eats. The flower of the *moha, Bassia latifolia,* tree is his chief sustenance at

1. The details are: 1865, 22; 1866, 73; 1867, 50; 1868, 31; 1869, 30; 1870, 19; 1871, 28; 1872, 36; 1873, 36; 1874, 68; 1875, 52; 1876, 46; 1877, 69; 1878, 78; and 1879, 20.

2. The details are: 1865, 195; 1866, 360; 1867, 531; 1868, 267; 1869, 255; 1870, 180; 1871, 282; 1872, 360; 1873, 345; 1874, 603; 1875, 125; 1876, 252; 1877, 209; 1878, 103; and 1879, 71.

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the beginning of the hot season. This flower, which produces the common spirit of the country, seems to affect the bear with a kind of intoxication, as he is known to be most dangerous at that season, and apt to attack man unprovoked. A vegetarian, except as regards ants and some other insects, he does no injury to flocks or herds.

The HOG, *dukkar, Sus indicus,* of all wild animals, causes most loss to the cultivator. Though, save in the set of his tail, much like the domestic village pig, he differs from him widely in habits. A pure vegetable eater, he is most dainty in his tastes. He must have the very best the land affords, and while choosing the daintiest morsels, destroys much more than he eats. Sugarcane, sweet potato and other roots, and juicy millet and Indian corn stalks are his favourite food. A few years ago herds of wild pig were found everywhere, but their numbers are now much smaller. From the border hills they still sally at night to ravage the crops in the neighbourhood, but they are no longer so destructive as they once were. With the aid of their dogs and spears, the Bhils hunt and kill them for food, and the clearing of the forests has made their destruction comparatively easy. Twenty years ago in the country east of the Purna river, then belonging to His Highness Sindia, herds of some hundreds might be seen marauding in open day. Night and day the cultivator had to watch his fields. Though comparatively few are left, herds of fifty and upwards are still occasionally seen.

The BISON, *gava, Gavaeus gaurus,* is found only in the Satpuda and Hatti hills. The shyest and wariest of forest animals, its chief food is grass and young bamboo shoots. The STAG, *sambar, Rusa aristotelis,* is found in all the hill country on the borders of the district. It feeds in the plains and fields at night, and seeks the hill tops at early dawn. It seldom, if ever, lies in the plain country. The SPOTTED DEER, *chital, Axis maculatus,* is now rare. He is never found far from water, and generally in thick forests. In the country east of the Purna spotted deer were formerly found in immense numbers, but most of them were shot or driven away while the railway was in the making. They are still in small numbers near rivers in the Satpuda hills, and in the western forests along the Tapti. The BARKING DEER, *bhekre, Cervulus aureus,* and the FOUR-HORNED ANTELOPE, also called *bhekre, Tetraceros quadricornis,* are occasionally met with in the Satpuda hills. The BLUE BULL, *nilgay, Portax pictus,* was once common everywhere, but is now confined to the few strips of forest land left between the Satpuda and other hills and the open plains, and to the low country on the west. He seldom enters the hills or dense forests, feeding chiefly on *palas, Butea frondosa,* or other trees in the flat country. The INDIAN ANTELOPE, *kalvit, Antilope bezoartica,* frequents the open fields and devours the corn. Disliking forest country they were never so plentiful in Khandesh as in the Deccan and Gujarat plains. Very few of them are left. The INDIAN GAZELLE, *chinkara, Gazells bennettii,* loving the shrub brushwood and rocky eminences of Khandesh are still comparatively plentiful. The

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COMMON HARE, *sasa, Lepus ruficaudatus,* found in considerable numbers all over the district, completes the list of four-footed game animals.

Of Game Birds there are among Rasores, PEAFOWL, *Pavo cristatus,* living in all woods and shady gardens, GREY JUNGLE FOWL, *Gallus sonnerati,* and SPUR FOWL, *Galloperdix spadiceus,* found only in forests.

Of PARTRIDGES there are two kinds: the GREY, *Ortygornis ponticeriana,* found over the whole district, and the PAINTED, *Francolinus pictus,* widely distributed but less common.

Of QUAIL there are several sorts, both the Bush Quails, *Perdicula asiatica* and *argoondah,* found in brushwood all the year round; the Common Grey Quail, *Coturnix communis,* a cold weather visitor; and the Rain Quail, *Coturnix coromandelica,* a resident. The Bustard, *Turnix taigoor,* and both Button Quails, *T. Joudera* and *dussumierii,* are also occasionally seen.

Sand Grouse, both the Common and Painted, *Pterocles exustus* and *Pterockes fasciatus,* are common.

The GRALLATORES are well represented. Among them are the Bustard, *Eupodotis edwardsi,* and the Florican, *Sypheotides aurita,* a bird of passage visiting the district during the rainy months and not widely distributed.

Of PLOVERS are, the Golden Plover, *Charadrius fulvus,* a rare bird; the Oxeyed Plover, *Aedikemas scolopax,* or false florican; and the Lapwings, *Lobivanellus indious* and *Lobipluvia malabarica.*

Of SNIPE the Common, *Gallinago gallinaria,* the Jack, *Gallinago gallinula,* and the Painted Snipe, *Rhynchaea bengalensis,* are found, but in no great numbers.

Of CRANES the *karkocha* or *kalam, Anthropoides virgo,* visit the district during the cold months in large flocks. The *Saras, Grus antigone,* or large crane, is almost unknown.

Though most ordinary kinds occur, the number of Duck and Teal is small. The chief Khandesh Ducks are the Ruddy shieldrake or Brahmani Duck, *Casarca rutila,* the Whistling Teal, *Dendrocygna javanica,* the Shoveller, *Spatula clypeata,* the Pintail, *Dafila acuta,* the Spotted Billed Duck, *Anas poecilorhyncha,* the Gadwal, *Chaulelasmus streperus,* the *Widgeon, Mareca penelope,* the White eyed Duck *Fuligula nyroca,* the Common Teal, *Querquedula crecca,* the Bluewinged Teal, *Querquedula circia,* the Redheaded Pochard *Fuligula ferina,* and the Mallard *Anas boschas.* The Little Grebe, *Podiceps minor,* if it can be called a duck, is found in all the ponds.

Of GEESE the only one observed is the Blackbacked Goose, *Sarcidiornis melanonotus.* The Grey Pelican, *Pelecanus philippensis,* and the Flamingo are rare. The Indian Snake Bird, *Plotus melanogaster,* is common in the west.

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Of birds not recognised as game the following have been identified:

Among RAPTORES, of Vultures, the Black Vulture, *Otogyps calvus,* a handsome not very common bird with bare head and red neck; the Whitebacked Vulture, *Gyps bengalensis;* a Cliff Vulture, either *Gyps indicus* or *Gyps pallescens;* and the White or Scavenger Vulture, *Neophron ginginianus.* The Eagles include *Aquila Mogilnik* noticed in the cold weather at the base of the Satpudas; *Aquila vindhiana,* a common resident; *Hieraetus pennatus,* seen occasionally everywhere; Limnaetus cirrhatus, fairly common all along the Satpudas, and recognisable by its musical cry which can be heard a mile off. *Circætus gallicus,* and one of the *Spilornidæ* have also been noticed. The three well known Kites, the Common, *Milvus govinda;* the Brahmani, *Haliastur indus;* and the Blackwinged, *Elanus melanopterus* are all found, the Brahmani being much the rarest. The White-eyed Buzzard, *Poliornis teesa,* is very common, and the Honey Buzzard *Pernis ptilorhyncus or cristata,* is occasionally seen.

Of FALCONS, a large class, there are the Peregrine, *Falco peregrinus,* rare; the Kestrel *Tinnunculus alaudarius,* much more common, and the Shaheen, *Falco peregrinator,* the Laggar *Falso jugger,* and the beautiful Turmmti, *Falco chiquera,* common. Of HARRIERS, there are two or three kinds with marked light grey plumage. Two HAWKS, the Shikra, *Astur badius,* and the Sparrow Hawk, *Accipiter nisus,* are well known.

There are many *OWLS* in the forests. The Brown Fish Owl, *Kotupa ceylononsis,* and the Dusky horned Owl, *Bubo Coromandus,* are both found. Rock horned owl, *Bubo bengalensis,* is also found along all the rivers. The beautiful Spotted Owl, *Syrnium ocellatum,* is very common among mango groves, and the Shorteared Owl, *Otus brachyotus,* is a winter visitant. The Screech Owl, *Strix javanica,* is rare. Both the little Owlets, *Carine brama,* and *Glaucidium radiatum,* are found, the latter only in forest districts.

Of SWALLOWS, in the cold weather the Common Swallow, *Hirundo rustica,* is everywhere, and one or two Martins, the Bank, Cotyle Sinensis, and the Cliff, *Cotylo concolor,* are found all the year round. The pretty *Redbacked* or Mosque Swallow, Hirundo *erythropygia,* is not uncommon. But its smaller congener, *Hirundo fluvicola,* is very rare. The Common Swift, *Cypsellusaffinis,* is widely distributed. The Alpine Swift, *C. melba,* is rare, as is the Palm Swift, C. *batassiensis.* The beautiful Crested Swift, *Dendrochelidon coronatus,* is common among the Satpudas.

Of NIGHT-JARS the chief are, the Common Night-jar *Caprimulgus asiaticus,* called the Ice Bird from its quickly repeated note, like a stone bounding across ice. It is purely a night bird, feeding on moths and beetles. Especially when seen early in the

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morning or when starting on a journey, the natives consider it a bird of ill omen. *C. marathensis* and *C. monticolus* are also found.

Of BEE-EATERS, *Merops viridis,* is in every field, and *M. philippinus* is an October visitant.

Of ROLLERS there is the Indian Roller, *Coracias indica,* called by Europeans the Blue Jay.

There are several KINGFISHERS. The White breasted, *Haloyen smyrnensis,* with bright skyblue back, is commonest; the smaller Blue Kingfisher, *Alcedo bengalensis,* is also found. The large Alexandrine or Stork-billed Kingfisher, *Pelargopsis gurial,* lives in some of the larger rivers. The Pied Kingfisher, *Ceryle rudis,* is very common, and may be seen hovering over every pond and stream.

Of HORNBILLS, *Bucerotidæ,* the Common Grey, *Ocyceros birostris,* a grotesque bird with a huge bill and slow wavering flights, is found in the plains.

Next to these are grouped the SCANSORES or Climbers, mainly represented by the Parrots, Woodpeckers, and Cuckoos. Of PARROTS the best known is the Roseringed Paroquet, *Palæornis torquatus,* seen everywhere; the Roseheaded Paroquet, *Palæornis purpureus,* a most beautiful bird, generally found in woodlands, and the Large Paroquet, *Palæornis magnirostris,* found in the Satpuda forests.

Of WOODPECKERS, *Picidæ,* the most notable is the Goldenbacked Woodpeckers, *Chrysocolaptes sultaneous,* his back a mass of crimson and gold. He is generally found in forests, where his loud tapping may often be heard. Not quite so brilliant, but still very beautiful, are the Blackbacked, *Chrysocolaptes festivus,* and the Smaller Goldenbacked, *Brachypternus aurantius.* Two other varieties, *Picus marathensis,* and a small spotted one, *Yungipicus nanus,* are seen in the plains. Their food is almost entirely insects picked out of the bark of trees and rotten wood.

Barbets, Megalæmidæ, approaching woodpeckers in structure, are mostly of a greenish colour with strong bills and feet. They feed on fruit. Two kinds are common in Khandesh; the Large Green Barbet, *Megalæma caniceps,* found in all forests, and the Small Redcrested Barbet, *Xantholæma hæmacephala,* which from its incessant metallic note, is known as the coppersmith. The Smaller Green Barbet, *Megalæma viridis,* found in the Satpudas in Central India, has not yet been recorded from Khandesh.

Of CUCKOOS the best known is the Indian Koel, *Eudynamys honorata,* a hot season visitor; the male is nearly black, and the female light and speckled. The Common Indian Cuckoo, *Cuculus micropterus,* an ashy coloured bird, is also met with, and the cry of the English Cuckoo, *Cuculus canorus,* is occasionally heard in the Satpuda hills. The Emerald Cuckoo, *Chrysococyx hodgsoni,* dark green with light breast, is rare. The well known Indian Coucal,

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ANIMALS AND BIRDS.
Birds.

Centrococcyx rufipennis, by some classed among the cuckoos, but more properly of the Conirostres or crow class, is well known as the Malabar Pheasant.

TENUIROSTRES, including the brilliant plumaged Honeysuckers and Hoopoes, are a most interesting family. Of the former the Purple Honeysucker, *Cinnyris asiatica,* and the Large Purple Honeysucker, *Cinnyris lotenia,* are perhaps commonest. Both the European and Indian Hoopoes, *Upupa epops* and *U. ceylonensis,* are found, the European only in the cold weather.

Of DENTIROSTRES there are, of Shrikes, *Laniadae,* the Grey Shrike, *Lanius lahtora,* the Rufousbacked Shrike, *Lanius erythronotus,* and the Baybacked Shrike, *Lanius vittatus,* all of them common. The Minivets, *Pericrocotus flammeus, peregrinus, and erythropygius,* are rare. They live chiefly on insects, impaling them on thorns before eating them. A well marked variety of shrike is the Drongo or Dicrurus. The king Crow, *Buchangaatra* bluish black with a forked tail, is common over the whole district, and the White breasted, *B. coerulescns,* in the hills. The Racket-tailed Drongo, *Dissemurus paradiseus,* is probably found in the Satpuda and western forests.

Of the same tribe are the three well known families of Thrushes, Bulbuls, and Babblers. Of Thrushes, Merulidæ, several kinds are common. Allied to them are the Orioles found in almost every mango grove. The Common Bulbul, *Molpastes hæmorrhous,* and the Green, *Phyllornis jerdoni,* and *Iora tiphiak,* are less widely distributed. The Babblers, Malacocirci, known as the Seven Sisters, are a well marked dusky-feathered family, very noisy and generally in groups.

To the same tribe (DENTIROSTRES) belong the Flycatchers and Warblers, a very large family. Of Flycatchers the most remarkable is the Paradise Flycatcher, *Muscipeta paradisi,* a small bird with a black crested head and very long dark chestnut or snow-white central tail feathers. It is sometimes called the Widow Bird. The Whitebrowed Fantail, *Leucocerca aureola,* is found in every grove uttering a few clear quick note, as if whistling part of the scale. The Whitespotted Fantail, *Leucocerca leucogaste* a smaller variety, is also very common. The Blue, *Cyornis tickelli,* and the Robin, *Erythrosterna parva, Flycatchers* are rarer.

The Warblers, an immense family, include Robins, Redstarts, and Wagtails. The North Indian Robin, *Thamnobia fulicata,* and the Redstart, *Ruticilla rufiventris,* very tame birds, are seen everywhere; the Tailor Bird, *Orthotomus sutorius,* with its lovely nest of two or three hanging leaves, sewn together as with a needle and thread, and lined with cotton, hair, or wire, is also common. Of Wren Warblers, *Drymoicæ,* there are several kinds. The Large Pied Wagtail, *Motacilla maderaspatensis,* and the Indian Field Wagtail, *Budytes cinereocapilla,* are common near water.

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ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Birds.

Of Crows, the Common Crow, *Corvus splendens,* and the Black, *Corvus culminatus,* are well known. Of Magpies two kinds occur, *Dendrocitta rufa,* in the plains, and *Dendrocitta leucogastra,* in the forests.

The STURNIDE or Starlings are represented by several species. The Common Myna, *Acridotheres tristis,* is universal, and a Wattled Myna, probably *Eulabes religiosa,* though rare, is also found. During the cold season, the Jvari Bird, *Pastor reseus,* may be seen in large flocks in every grain field.

Of FINCHES, Fringillidæ, are the Common Sparrow, *Passer domesticus,* and the Weaver Bird, *Ploceus philippinus,* with its well known hanging bottleshaped nest. Several Larks, Alaudæ, belong to this family, as also the well known Amadavat, *Estrelda amandava.*

Allied to some of the game birds mentioned above are the Pigeons and Doves. Of these the Blue Rock Pigeon, *Columba intermedia,* much like its European namesake, is seen everywhere. The beautiful Bronzewinged Pigeon, *Chalcophaps indica,* is rare, seen only .in forests alone or in pairs. The Common Green Pigeon *Crocopus chlorigaster,* is found wherever banyan trees are plentiful.

Of Doves proper four varieties are pretty generally distributed, the Common Ringdove, *Turtur risorius,* the Spotted Dove. The *suratensis,* the Small Brown Dove, *T. senegalensis,* and the Red Dove, *T. tranquebaricus.*

WATER BIRDS are divided into two orders, GRALLATORES or waders, and NATATORES or swimmers. Among waders, besides the snipe and plover mentioned among game birds, are several Sandpipers. Allied to the cranes already mentioned are the Storks. Two kinds, *Ciconia alba* and *Melanopelargus episcopus,* are occasionally found as also the Great Stork or Adjutant, *Leptoptilus argalus,* and a smaller variety, *Leptoptilus, javanicus.* Of Herons and Egrets there are several varying in size and colour, such as *Ardeola grayi,* and *Ardea cinerea,* the commonest. Most of the larger rivers have three kinds of Ibis, the Wartyheaded Ibis, *Iconotis papillosus,* the Pelican Ibis, *Tantalus leucocephalus,* and the White Ibis, *Ibis melanocephala.* The NATATORE include Duck and Teal, and some Terns and freshwater Gulls. There are so few ponds in Khandesh, that waders and swimmers are very scantily represented".

Most of the species of domestic and wild animals and birds described above are still extant in many parts of Dhulia district, especially the forest regions, though the circumstances of their rearing and their economic use have undergone a considerable change. Excluding, therefore, these aspects of the animals and birds as given in the old Khandesh Gazetteer, the rest of their description holds good even today.

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GEOLOGY.*

The principal hill ranges are the Satpudas, runing east-west. dividing the valleys of Tapi and Narmada. These include the plateau near Toranmal, called Chincholi, which is about 914 metres above mean sea level and about 41 km.^{2} in area. Between Dhulia and Gujarat on the west is the northern extremity of the Sahyadri range. Spurs rise from the plain for the most part at right angle to the main ranges. The Arva and Galna hills divide Dhulia from Nasik.

The chief drainage system is river Tapi, entering at the south eastern corner of the district, flowing through a broad fertile plain in a westerly direction dividing the district into two unequal parts. The larger part lies in the south and is drained by the tributaries Bori, Panjhra, Buray, Amaravati and Siva. The tributaries of Tapi to north are Aner, Baler, Arunavati and Gomai. Towards north and west, the plain rises into difficult, rugged and quickly wooded country. During rainy season Tapi is not fordable. The river Narmada skirts the north-west corner of the district. The tributaries of Narmada, in the district, are Udai and Khat draining the northern slopes of the Satpudas.

Geological Formations.

The Geological formations met with in the district are :

Name of the formation			Age
Alluvium	..	..	Recent.
Deccan Basalt	..	..	Eocene.
Bagh Beds	..	..	Upper Cretaceous.

The oldest geological formation met with in the north-western portion of the district are the Bagh Beds of upper Cretaceous age. They are conspicuously exposed on the banks of the Devaganga and its tributaries, along which sections of great thickness are seen. The hills east of the river, towards Attior Arithi, are entirely composed of sandstone, with shale beds appearing at places near the summits. Here the thickness is more than 300 metres. The beds have a quaquavarsal dip, sloping away in every direction. The sandstones are much hardened and frequently cut up by dykes and large irregular intrusions of trap. East of Devaganga, near Surpan, a small area is occupied by the cretaceous beds, the top of the high range called 'Bawagupnyo' being trap. Near Warwee or Vami, shale with limestone and oyster beds occur, and in the calcareous shale, just below the trap, on the western spur of Bawagupnyo hill, shark's teeth abound in calcareous (limestone) black rock, containing irregular siliceous masses. To the west, the Cretaceous rocks go beneath the traps, whereas the north and south boundaries are faulted. The eastern boundary shows an abruptly denuded termination, as if the lower lava flows had been consolidated against a pre-existing sandstone cliff, which is apparent north of Babasiraj hill,

* The section on Geology is contributed by the Geological Survey of India, Government of India, Calcutta.

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General.

GEOLOGY.

Geological Formations.

where it is suddenly over-lapped by the trap. Looking westwards from the top of the Babasiraj hill, the general anticlinal feature of the rocks with an east-west axis may be inferred, the trap of the hills dipping to north and south. To the east of the hill, the rocks dip to the south and south-east, which explains the absence of cretaceous rocks in Akrani. Between the overlying Traps and the Baga Beds there is a slight but distinct unconformity.

Trap Rocks.

The close of the mesozoic era was marked by the outpouring of voluminous lava flows which spread over vast areas. The flows are called 'traps' because of the steplike or terraced appearance of their outcrops, the term being of Scandinavian origin. The traps or the Deccan Basalts have plagioclase felspar labrodorite and pyroxene augite as the main minerals. They are grouped into vesicular and non-vesicular varieties. The amygdoloidal traps are characterised by vesicles filled with quarts, chalcedony and zeolites. A major part of the district is occupied by these trap flows. Contrary to the general rule in the case of the traphills, the ridges lying west of Toranmal are rarely flat topped, and frequently extremely craggy. The traps of the hills along the northern boundary of the district have generally a low northerly dip, but it is not very regular. The traps of Toranmal itself are nearly horizontal. Spheroidal exfoliation is a characteristic feature of weathering in trap. It produces thin concentric shells or layers which become soft and fall off gradually, the weathering starting along well developed joints. The interior of the spheroidal masses however, remain quite fresh.

South of Hamp or Hap, as in the hills north of the river Narmada, ash breccias are very abundant amongst the rocks exposed in the river section. Some of these rocks have evidently originally been pymice, the vesicles now being, in some cases at least, filled with agate.

A few trap dykes occur in Akrani. Around Durgam, however, there are several parallel dykes of small size. They occur every 180 to 270 metres and strike North 60-75 East. Some of these dykes are coarse grained and composed of felspar and granular greenish augite.

Alluvium and soils.

The alluvium along the Tapi thins out westwards. It is not more than 50 metres thick towards east, near Savalda. The soil derived from the trap is black cotton soil and is very fertile as it is rich in plant nutrients such as lime, magnesia, iron and alkalies.

Ground Water.

The traps being massive and fine grained, are unsuitable for groundwater storage. It is through joints and fissures in them, that the rain water percolates and accumulates in the weathered portions which are the most reliable sources of groundwater in traps. However, the baked and/or highly vesicular portions between trap flows also provide passage or channel ways for percolating rain water. As it is un-economical to put down tubewells in these hard rocks, the alluvial tract of the Tapi was explored for groundwater utilisation during the All-India Exploratory Tubewell drilling programme.

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GEOLOGY.

Ground Water.

In all four boreholes were drilled at Torkhed, Jhiribeda, Taloda and Savalda. All the boreholes ended at shallow depth in trap, the deepest hole being at Savalda, where the alluvium is about 50 metres thick. All the boreholes proved unproductive as no aquifer was encountered. However, small scale groundwater development is possible around Taloda and Savalda. The quality of groundwater is suitable for irrigation. The content of dissolved solids and chlorides are low and the percentage of sodium, although a little high, is not likely to produce soil alkalinisation. The hardness mostly due to bicarbonates is not detrimental to soil or crops. To augment groundwater supply over trap country, the existing dug wells should be deepened and small diameter bores drilled from the bottom of the well.

Earthquakes.

The district lies in the stable peninsular shield area, but occasionally receives minor tremors due to earthquakes originating in the extra peninsular region of India which is more vulnerable to frequent earthquakes. The recorded tremors felt in the district were of the Kutch earthquakes on 16th June, 1819 and 31st December, 1858 and that of the Bihar-Nepal earthquake on 15th January, 1934. The last tremor had the acceleration of 10-25 km. per sec.

Economic Geology.

No minerals of economic importance, are so far recorded in the district. Being dense, hard, and durable the trap is used fairly extensively, as building stone, road metal, railway ballast and as aggregate in cement concrete.

FISH.

Sources and prospects.

The district is not richly endowed with impounded water resources. Although the district is drained by 770 kilometres of fluvial waters, the riverine fishery is poor as majority of the catch comprises mainly catfishes, murrels and minor varieties of carps. In some of the streams connecting the Tapi river good catches of *Tor-tor*, the Mahaseer of India which is locally known as *Vadis* are reported. From sandy beds loaches are also collected by Bhil women for sale to the public.

The major river draining the district is Tapi, while the great river Narmada merely passes through the northern boundaries of the district. The Tapi has a course of nearly 86 kilometres and receives many tributaries *viz.*, Aner, Baler, Arunavati and Gomai from the northern region of the district and Bori, Panjhara, Burai, Amravati, Shiva, Rangwal and Nesu from the southern region of the district. Besides there are 13 tanks which together provide waterspread area of about 2,000 acres, of which the most important ones are Dedargaon (249 acres), Mukti (509 acres), Gondur (277 acres), Toranmal (200 acres), Shanimandal (219 acres), Purampada (66 acres) and Goathe (56 acres). The tanks built under developmental plan have greatly enhanced the prospects of fisheries in the district.

However, efforts are being made by Fisheries Department to exploit the available water resources. Although no separate officer has been appointed for the district for undertaking the fisheries

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developmental activities, the Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries, Nasik, looks after the fisheries activities in this district.

FISH.

Sources and prospects.

With a view to undertake piscicultural programme in the district, water resources are surveyed to determine the suitability for stocking with fast growing varieties of fish such as *Labeo rohita, Catla catla Cirrhina mrigalc.* There has been considerable increase in the stocking intensity in recent years in relation to the potentiality of water resources, available in the district. Progressive efforts are made to bring as much waterspread under pisciculture as possible.

Fishing Communities.

Fishermen in the district mainly belong to the Bhoi community. Few Bhils, Kolis and other Adivasi communities also take to fishing. As there is a limited scope for fishing in the district, some of the fishermen take to agriculture. They particularly take to the cultivation of water melons during summer on the exposed flat stretches in the courses of rivers and streams.

Fishing Gear.

The fishing in tanks and rivers is done by means of cast nets (*Sikadi, Botaki* or *Dahya*), gill nets (*Tangada*) and drag nets (*Bichori*).

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

Cast net.

Locally known as *Sikadi* or *Botaki* or *Dahya* it is the commonest gear used in the district. This net when cast in water becomes conical. The periphery of the bottom is provided with heavy beads, used as sinkers, whereby the net sinks quickly and traps the fish. When the net is pulled with the string provided at the top, the peripheral margin forms a series of pockets, and it is in these pockets that the fish get entangled. The Mesh size of this net is 1·27 cm. (½ inch) to 2·54 cm. (1 inch) depending upon the size of the fish to be caught.

Gill nets.

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

Drag net.

It is locally known as *Bichori.* Drag net is made of many pieces of nets joined together, depending upon the width of the water sheet. The net when cast, forms a semi-circle around certain area. It is then drawn on the opposite bank and the fish caught in the net is collected.

Co-operatives.

There are as many as three co-operative societies of fishermen in the district and the fourth one is under registration with a total membership of 215 and a share capital of Rs. 4,000.

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FISH.

Co-operatives.

Financial assistance is given to the societies in the form of loan and subsidy for purchasing fishery requisites and stocking of tanks with carp-fry. They are also helped to secure tanks and ponds for purposes of pisciculture and leases of fishing rights are given on the basis of average of past three years, thus avoiding unhealthy competition by private contractors. The financial assistance is motivated to encourage the fishermen to organise themselves into co-operatives in order to improve their productive capacity and to make them less dependant on middlemen for marketing.

List of Fishes.

Following is a list of common fishes of commercial importance found in Dhulia district :—

Scientific Name		Local Name (Barbs, Carps and Stone Suckers)
Family—CYPRINIDAE		
Oxygaster clupeoides (Bl.)	..	*Salpe.*
Rasbora daniconius (Ham.)	..	*Dandaonya.*
Puntius sarana (Ham.)	..	*Bodhad.*
Cirrhina mrigala (Ham.)	..	*Mrigal.*
Labeo calbasu (Ham.)	..	*Kalti.*
Labeo rohita (Ham.)	..	*Rohu.*
Catla catla (Ham.)	..	*Katla.*
Garra mullya (Sykes)	..	*Malya.*
Family—COBITIDAE (Loaches)		
Noemacheilus botia (Ham.)	..	*Mura, Muri.*
Family—HETEROPNEUSTIDAE (Catfishes)		
Heteropneustes fossilis (Bloch)	..	*Nar-Shingali.*
Family—SILURIDAE (Catfishes)		
Wallago attu (Schn.)	..	*Daku, Padin.*
Family—BAGARIDAE (Catfishes)		
Mystus vittatus (Bl.)	..	*Tengra.*
Mystus cavasius (Ham.)	..	*Shingti.*
Family—OPHIOCEPHALIDAE (Snake headed fishes)		
Channa striatus (Bl.)	..	*Murral.*
Family—GOBIIDAE (Gobies)		
Glossogobius giuris (Ham.)	..	*Kharbi.*
Family—CYPRINODONIIDAE		
Panchax lineatus dayi (Steindachnev).		*Piku.*

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SNAKES.*

Non-poisonous.

The following snakes found in the district have been classified in two groups *viz.*, non-poisonous and poisonous :—

Family—TYPHLOPIDAE

Typhlops sp.—These are found in loose soil having decaying material. They are brownish and glossy in texture and are generally mistaken for earthworms. They grow to about one foot in length while the scales are imbicate. Local people call them *Kadu*. They are harmless.

Family—BOIDAE

Python molurus.—Pythons are reported from the rocky places in river beds. Sometimes they come near human habitations. They are large, growing to 15 feet and are powerful constrictors. The colour is brown and the body has a mottled design. Young ones of pythons are sometimes mistaken for vipers which are poisonous. Pythons are locally known as *Ajgar*.

Eryx conicus.—Locally called as *Mati Khavre* is a short snake with a very short and blunt tail, and as such is sometimes called a double-headed snake. The body is blackish red with mottled yellow spots. It prefers to live buried in soil and feeds on frogs, insects and small mammals.

Family—COLUBRIDAE

Ptyas mucosus.—It is a long snake reaching a length of from six to eight feet. This is common in fields and is locally called *Dhaman*. The colour is yellowish with black spots particularly in hind region.

Lycodon aulicus.—This is a slender snake with a greyish brown colour and white cross-bars. It is common in bushes and gardens, and attains a length of 1½ feet. Oligodon and these snakes are often mistaken to be the young of a Krait.

Sibynophis sagittarius.—This snake is found rarely. It is brownish in colour with black dots on the back and greyish brown on sides. The head is more dark with a yellow patch on both the sides. The border of the mouth is yellow, spotted with black. It measures from two to three feet in length. The tail is much longer as compared to the body.

Oligodon arnensis.—This is a slender snake reaching to 1·5′ in length. Colour is pale brown with deep brown cross-bars. Near the neck there is a broad, characteristic reddish black band. It is locally called as *Gawatya Sap*. It lives in gardens and is sometimes mistaken to be a Krait.

Ahætulla ahætulla.—It is a long greenish yellow slender snake with a middle scale row modified and hexagonal. On the belly are small

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

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SNAKES.

Non-poisonous.

black spots. Tail is slender, long and pointed. It grows to 1½ feet. It is harmless.

Boiga trigonata.—It is a slender long snake with a flat head. It is yellowish or greyish brown with "V" shaped deep brown bands and stripes on the body. It grows to 2½ feet and is known to be very vicious.

Natrix piscator.—It is a common snake found in ponds, ditches and water accumulations. It is locally called as *Pandivad*. It grows to four feet and is olive-coloured with checkered black spots all over the body particularly in the hind region. This is very vicious and strikes when provoked. It forms a part of many snake charmers' kit.

Dryophis nasutus.—This parrot green snake is generally found in rainy season. Locally called as *Sarptol*, it reaches upto four to five feet in length. The pointed head is held aloft when the snake peeps out of green foliage. It strikes and is known to kill sparrows.

Family—ELAPIDAE

Poisonous.

Bungarus caeruleus.—This poisonous snake is not very common. It is steel blue with white cross-bars on the body and a dorsal row of hexagonal scales. Locally known as *Kavdya*, this snake is seen in crevices and is very poisonous. It grows up to 2½ feet.

Naja naja.—Cobras are of black and brownish yellow colour in this region. They reach up to five feet in length, and very rarely up to six feet. They have a beautiful spectacle mark on the head. Black ones have generally no mark. This snake is worshipped in the region and is also dreaded for its poison. These are commonly found in the district and cause a number of deaths.

Family—VIPERIDAE

Russell's viper.—This snake is not found in abundance like cobras. Colour is slight brown with three rows of distinct black circles on the back and oval spots on sides. It is generally found in wooded fields. Locally called as *Kabrya Chitra*, it hisses loudly and the poison causes a lot of pain and oozing.

Echis carinatus.—Locally called as *Landi*, this saw-scaled viper is a different variety from that found in Konkan. The colour of the snake is sandy, pale brown, and is also thicker than the Ratnagiri variety. This snake is seen frequently during rainy season and because of its colour is difficult to make out. It strikes without provocation and makes a noise by rubbing the body scales. The bite is painful and though may not result in immediate death the secondary complications are often very painful and sometimes fatal. It measures about 20 inches in length.

Trimeresurus malabaricus.—This green tree viper is found in dense woody places. Locally called as *Udat Wel*, it reaches from one and half to two feet in length. The head is triangular and has small scales on it.

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY

CHAPTER 2.

History.

ANCIENT PERIOD.

Early History.

THE DISTRICT OF DHULIA WAS PREVIOUSLY KNOWN as the West Khāndeś district. The ancient name of this region was Ṛṣika. Varāhamihira places Ṛṣika in the southern division. In the Rāmāyaṇa Ṛṣika is coupled with Vidarbha and Mahiṣaka. Vidarbha is the ancient name of modern Berār, while Mahiṣaka was the name of the southern portion of the former Hyderābād State with the adjoining Kanarese districts of Rāicūr and Bijāpūr. In the Rāmāyaṇa Sugrīva asked the monkeys to go in search of Sītā in the countries of the south such as those of Ṛṣika, Vidarbha and Mahiṣaka. In the *Mahābhārata* also Ṛṣika is coupled with Vidarbha.

Another verse of the *Mahābhārata* connects Ṛṣika with the western Anupa country. Anupa is known to be the country of which the capital was Mahiṣmatī, modern Maheśvar on the Narmadā. Elsewhere the *Mahābhārata* couples Ṛṣika with Aśmaka while mentioning the countries conquered by Karṇa. The Nāśik cave inscription of Puḷumāvī mentions Aśika (Sanskṛt—Ṛṣika) with Aśaka (Sanskṛt—Aśmaka) among the countries which were under the rule of his father Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī. In the *Daśakumāracarita* the ruler of Ṛṣika, like that of Aśmaka, was shown a feudatory of the king of Vidarbha. All these references show that Ṛṣika was contiguous to Aśmaka, Vidarbha and Anupa. The only country which answers to this geographical position is Khāndeś; for it is bounded on the east by Berār (ancient Vidarbha), on the north by the Nemāḍ district (ancient Anupa) and on the south by the Auraṅgābād (ancient Mulaka) and Bhīr (ancient Aśmaka) districts. Later, the country came to be called as Seunadeśa after king Seunacandra of the Early Yādava dynasty, who ruled over it. Subsequently, its name was changed to Khāndeś to suit the title Khān given to the Fāruqī kings by Ahmad I of Gujarāt.[1]

From the excavations made by Mr. B. K. Thapar at Prakāśe at the confluence of the rivers Tāpī and Gomāī, it appears that the

* The section on Ancient Period is contributed by Dr. V. V. Mirashi, Nagpur.

The sections on Mediæval Period onwards have been contributed by Dr. B. G. Kunte, M.A., Ph.D. (Economics), Ph.D. (History), Executive Editor and Secretary.

[1] *A.B.O.R.I.*, Vol. XXI, p. 167 f.

"earliest settlers of this region belonged to the microlithic period. The use of copper, though known, was extremely rare. The principal ceramic industry of this people comprised a distinctive red ware with designs executed in black on red-slipped surface; the designs consisted mainly of hatched diamonds, horizontal or oblique bands, criss-cross and wavy lines, ladder-pattern and also animal-motifs. In association with this industry was found a burnished grey ware of thinner fabric, occasionally having faint linear designs in white. Some of the sherds with thicker and coarser fabric in dull grey ware seemed to be treated with an ochre-paint mainly on the rim portions. Beads of shell-paste and semi-precious stones were also obtained from this period."[1]

The characteristic features of this period as brought to light during excavations at Nāśik, Nevāsā and other places in the Deccan may be described as follows[2] :—

"The earliest habitations of the people of this period must have been in the river valleys. The thick forests which must have covered them were first cut down with their stone and copper tools. The elevated sites on the banks of rivers were chosen for a settlement. Each settlement may have consisted of about 50 to 100 huts. The huts were small, measuring about 10 ft. × 9 ft., and were either rectangular or round. They were constructed with wooden posts, the walls being of mud and the roof of bamboo matting, dry leaves etc., covered with a layer of mud. The houses were furnished with large and small storage jars, bowls (*vāṭīs*) and vessels (*loṭās*) with long spouts. Their red surface was painted in black with geometric designs or figures of animals. They wore garments of cotton and probably also of silk. For their ornaments they used beads of semi-precious stones, crystal, terracotta and rarely of copper and even of gold. Silver was unknown. Bangles were made of copper, burnt clay or bones, rarely of ivory.

For weapons they used products of chalcedony blade industry, flat copper axes and slings with round balls of various sizes. Their tools were made of dolerite and copper. They pounded their grains with plano-convex rubber stones. Besides, they ate beef, mutton, pork, venison and river fish. Hunting and animal grazing formed their main occupations.

They buried their dead either within the house floor or outside. The children were buried in wide-mouthed jars. The dead were provided with bowls, spouted vessels and necklaces of copper and carnelian.

Economically these people were in a pastoral-*cum*-hunting-*cum*-agricultural stage and lived in small villages on river banks. They still used stone for various purposes, the use of copper being rare. This kind of life continued until it was changed by a fresh influx

[1] *Indian archaeology*, 1954-55, p. 13

[2] Summarised from H. D. Sankalia's *Indian Archæology Today*, p. 88 f.

of people who came with a knowledge of iron, agriculture and town-planning in about the fourth century B. C.

Who these people were is not definitely known, but one plausible conjecture is that they belonged to some of the Aryan tribes. This theory, however, needs confirmation by stronger evidence."

The above gleanings are from the excavations at such places as Nāśik, Jorve and Nevāsā in the Deccan. The duration of this Early Bronze Age is surmised by archaeologists to be from 1500-1000 B. C. to 500 B. C.

We shall next see what light is thrown on this period by literary sources. According to literary tradition, when the Aryans penetrated to the Deccan, the whole region was covered by a thick jungle, which extended southward from Central India. Agastya was the first Aryan who crossed the Vindhya and fixed his residence on the bank of the Godāvarī. This memorable event is commemorated by the mythical story which represents Vindhya as bending before his *guru* Agastya when the latter approached him. The sage asked the mountain to remain in that position 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. The cluster of hermitages on the bank of the Godāvarī was called *Jana-sthāna* to distinguish it from the surrounding forest country. The region to the south of the Godāvarī was inhabited by the aborigines, who are called *Rākṣasas* in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. The sages living in the *Janasthāna* were constantly harassed by these *Rākṣasas*. "These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify to their abominable character by various cruel and terrific displays. They implicate the hermits in impure practices and perform great outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees; they cast away their sacrificial ladles and vessels ; they pollute 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 and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men.[1]"

We learn from the *Rāmāyaṇa* that Rāma, accompanied by his brother Lakṣmaṇa and wife Sītā, met Agastya on the bank of the Godāvarī. The sage presented him with a bow and two quivers and advised him to settle down at a place called Pañcavatī from the five great banyan trees which grew there. Even now there are some caves near Pañcavatī on the Godāvarī, which go by the name of *Sītāgumphā* 'Sītā's Cave', and which have in a large niche in the back wall the images of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa and Sītā. Here Rāma is said to have lived for some time and killed many *Rākṣasas* who were harassing the sages. From here Sītā was abducted by the demon king Rāvaṇa, which ultimately led to the invasion of Laṅkā by Rāma with the help of the monkey hosts.

[1] *Muir's Original Sanskrit Texts*, Vol. V.

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Janā sthāna and Pañcavaṭī were situated on the fringe of the great forest country called Daṇḍakāraṇya, the story of which is narrated in the *Uttarakāṇḍa* of the *Rāmāyaṇa*. We are told that a large country was founded north of the *Godāvarī* by Vidarbha, the son of Ṛṣabhadeva. His capital was Kuṇḍinapura in the Amrāvati district. Agastya married a princess of this country, Lopāmudrā by name. Agastya is the seer of some hymns of the *Ṛgveda*. His wife Lopāmudrā is mentioned in the *Ṛgveda* I, 179, 4. The *Rāmāyaṇa* states that Daṇḍa or Daṇḍaka, the son of Ikṣvāku and grandson of Manu, ruled over the country between the Vindhya and Śaivala mountains with his capital at Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time he violated the daughter of the sage Bhārgava. The sage then cursed the king that his whole kingdom between the Vindhya and Śaivala mountains, extending over a thousand *yojanas*, would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country was consequently turned into a great forest, which since then, came to be known as Dandakaranya. It was in this forest that the Śudra ascetic Śambuka was practising penance. According to the notions of those days, this was an irreligious act and so Rāma beheaded him and revived the life of a Brāhmaṇa boy who had died prematurely. The place where Śambuka was beheaded is still shown on the hill of Rāmṭek, about 28 miles from Nāgpūr. In the *Uttararāmacarita* Bhavabhūti tells us that the Daṇḍaka forest extended southwards from this place up to *Janā sthāna* on the Godāvarī.

The central part of the Deccan was divided into several countries known by different names. The region on the north of the Godāvarī, west of Vidarbha, now included in the Auraṅgābād district was known by the name of Mulaka. This country together with its capital Pratiṣṭhāṇa (modern Paiṭhaṇ) is mentioned in the Pālī literature. To the north of it lay the country of Ṛṣika, now called Khāndeś as shown above. Along the southern bank of the Godāvarī extended the country of Aśmaka (Pālī—Assaka), which comprised the modern Ahmadnagar and Bhīr districts. Later, this region was included in the country of Kuntala, which extended far to the south. It included what is now known as the Southern Marāṭhā Country as well as Northern Karnāṭaka and the Shmogā and Chaldurg districts of the old Mysore State. In an inscriptional passage the upper valley of he Kṛṣṇā is said to be included in the country of Kuntala.[1] In the *Udayasundarikathā* of Soddhala (11th cen. A.D.) Pratiṣṭhāṇa on the Godāvarī is said to be the capital of the Kuntala country. In early times Kuntala was probably included in the larger country called Mahārāṣṭra. The Aihole inscription (7th cen. A. D.) speaks of three Mahārāṣṭras which probably included Vidarbha, western Mahārāṣṭra and Kuntala. In later times Kuntala came to denote the predominantly Kanarese-speaking country included in the Mysore State. The Early Cālukyas of Badāmī and the Later Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī were known

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Col. XII, p. 153, *See* Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. 1, p. 9, n. 4.

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as Kuntaleśa. In early times, however, the districts of Kolhāpūr, Sātārā, Śolāpūr, Ahmednagar and Bhir, which are now Marāṭhī-speaking, were included in Kuntala. As we shall see later, the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas, who were ruling over this territory were known as *Kuntaleśvaras* (Lords of Kuntala).

The modern districts of Osmānābād, Bidar, Gulbargā, Medak and Rāicūr, now included in the States of Mahārāṣṭra, Mysore and Āndhra Pradeś, were probably comprised in the country of Mahiṣaka. The references to this country occurring in the *Purāṇas* and the Epics suggest that it was situated in the Deccan. The *Rāmāyaṇa* couples the Mahiṣaka country with Vidarbha and Ṛṣika (Khāndeś), as countries of the south to which Sugrīva directed the monkeys to go in search of Sītā. Other references to this country in the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purāṇas* also indicate its situation in this region. As we shall see later, a Śaka family which was ruling in this region as shown by the finds of its coins, was known as Mahiṣa.

Historical Times. *Mauryas.*

Coming to historical times, we find that all this territory was included in the empire of Aśoka. An inscription issued by the *Dharmamahāmātra* of Aśoka has been found at Devṭek in the Candrapūr district of Vidarbha. It was issued in the fourteenth regnal year of Aśoka and interdicts the capture and killing of animals.[1] Again, the fifth and thirteenth rock-edicts of Aśoka mention the Rāṣṭrika Peṭenikas and the Bhoja-Peṭenikas. According to many scholars, the Peṭenikas were the inhabitants of Pratiṣṭhāṇa, the Rāṣṭrikas ruled as Mahārathīs, while the Bhojas held Vidarbha.

Shungas.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in *circa* 184 B.C. the imperial throne in Pāṭaliputra was occupied by *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty. His son Agnimitra was appointed Viceroy of Māḷvā and ruled from Vidiśa, 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 Māḷva and got admission to the royal harem as a handmaid to the queen Dhāriṇī under the name of Mālavikā. 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 Māḷava 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). The story of Mālavikā forms the theme of the Sanskṛt play *Mālavikāgnimitram* of Kālīdāsa.

Kālīdāsa does not state to what royal family Yajñasena and Mādhavasena belonged and these names do not occur anywhere else. Still, it is possible to conjecture that they may have been the feudatories of the Sātavāhanas, who rose to power in the Deccan soon after the death of Aśoka. From the Hāthīgumphā inscription

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

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at Udayagirī near Bhuvaneśvar, we learn that Khāravela, the king of Kaliṅga, who was a contemporary of Puṣyamitra, sent an army to the western region, not minding Sātakarṇī. 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 Kanhabennā and struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣika. The Kanhabennā is evidently the river Kanhān, which flows about 10 miles from Nāgpūr[1] and not the river Kṛṣṇā as supposed by some scholars; for the latter flows not west but south-west of Udayagirī. Khāravela's army thus invaded Vidarbha. He knew that as the ruler of Vidarbha was a feudatory of king Sātakarṇī, the latter would rush to his aid. When Vidarbha was thus invaded, the people of Ṛṣika (Khāndeś), which bordered Vidarbha on the west, were naturally terror-stricken. No actual engagement seems, however, to have taken place and the army returned to Kaliṅga perhaps at the approach of the Sātavāhana forces. Two years later, Khāravela penetrated further west as he claims to have received submission from the Rathikas and the Bhojakas, who were probably ruling in the Deccan as feudatories of the Sātavāhanas.

Satavahanas.

Sātakarṇī belonged to the Sātavāhana family. This family derived its name from king Sātavāhana[2], who rose to power soon after the death of Aśoka and had his capital at Pratiṣṭhāna (modern Paiṭhaṇ in the Auraṅgābād district). It received support from the local rulers called Mahārathīs, with whom it formed matrimonial alliances. This family is called Āndhra in the *Purāṇas*, but that it originally hailed from Western Mahārāṣṭra is indicated by its earliest inscriptions which are found in the caves at Nāṇeghāṭ near Junnar and at Nāśik. Its earliest coins issued by the founder Sātavāhana have been found at Auraṅgābād and in Vidarbha. In later times it extended its rule to Āndhra as shown by its later inscriptions and coins found in that region. The *Purāṇas* call it Āndhra evidently because it was ruling in that country when the *Purāṇa* account was compiled in the early centuries of the Christian era.

Though Sātavāhana was the founder of this family, his name does not occur in the *Purāṇas*. The first king of the Āndhra (*i.e.* Sātavāhana) family mentioned in the *Purāṇas* is Śimukha (Śrimukha), who is also known from a relievo statue of his in a cave at Nāṇeghāṭ. We do not know the extent of his kingdom, but it must have comprised at least Pooṇā, Nāśik, Khāndeś, Ahmadnagar and Auraṅgābād districts. When he ended his rule, his son Sātakarṇī was a minor and so his brother Kṛṣṇa ascended the throne. He has left an inscription in the cave which he got excavated for Buddhist monks at Nāśik. Kṛṣṇa is described in a record in this cave as belonging to the Sātavāhana family. This indicates that he was not a son of Sātavāhana, but a grandson or some lower descendant.

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology* Vol. III, p. 46.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 1 f.

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The next ruler of the family was Sātakarṇī I, who also is known from a relievo figure now mutilated in the aforementioned cave at Nāṇeghāṭ. He seems to have extended his rule over the whole of the Deccan and even carried his arms north of the Narmadā. As stated before king Khāravela of Kaliṅga, who was his contemporary, sent an army to the west, not minding him. When the army reached the Kanhabennā, which as shown above is probably identical with the river Kanhān flowing near Nāgpūr, it struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣika (Khāndeś).[1]

Sātakarṇī performed the *Rājasuya* and *Aśvamedha* sacrifices (the latter twice), which probably commemorated his important victories or supremacy in the Deccan and had political significance. He performed also several other *Srauta* sacrifices such as *Agnyadheya, Aptoryāma, Daśarātra, Trayodaśarātra, Angirasatrirātra, Śatarātra, Gavamayana* etc., all of which were marked by munificent gifts of horses, elephants and Karṣapaṇas. They are recorded in a large but now badly mutilated inscription in a cave at Nāṇeghāṭ.

Sātakarṇī left behind two sons, Vediśri and Śaktiśri who are mentioned in the aforementioned Nāṇeghāṭ inscription. It was believed for a long time that this record was incised during the minority of the former prince when his mother Nāganikā was acting as a regent; but this view is now shown to be incorrect. The inscription describes her as one who fasted during a whole month, who, even in her house, lived like an ascetic, who led a self-restrained life and was well acquainted with initiatory ceremonies, vows and offerings. She had evidently lost all interest in worldy life and was devoting herself to religious practices. Such a lady is hardly likely to busy herself with the governance of an extensive kingdom like that of the Sātavāhanas. As a matter of fact, the inscription describes Vediśrī as a very brave prince who was a unique warrior on the earth and was the lord of the Dakṣiṇapatha (Deccan).[2]

Vediśrī was followed by a number of princes who are named in the *Purāṇas*, but about whom they furnish little information except their reign-periods which also vary in different *Purānas* and even in the manuscript of the same *Purāṇa*. But one name among them is noteworthy. It is that of king Hāla, the reputed author of the *Gāthāsaptaśatī*, a unique collection of seven hundred Prakṛt verses, descriptive of the social, religious and economic life of the period. Hāla flourished in the first century A.D.[3]

Shaka Interregnum.

Some years after Hāla's reign Mahārāṣṭra was conquered by the Śaka Kṣatrapas. Nahapāna, a Śaka Kṣatrapa probably appointed by the contemporary Kuśāna Emperor, was ruling over Koṅkaṇ, Pooṇā, Nāśik and some other districts of Mahārāṣṭra as well as some portion of Central India as far north as Ajmer. Several

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XX, p. 79.
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 76 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 76 f.

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inscriptions of his son-in-law Uṣavadāta (Sanskṛt-Ṛṣabhadatta) have been incised in the Pāṇḍu-leṇā caves near Nāśik. Uṣavadāta was the son of Dinika and had married Dakṣamitrā, the daughter of Nahapāna. These records in the Nāśik caves describe the charities and conquests of Uṣavadāta, who was evidently governing Northern Mahārāṣṭra and Koṅkaṇ on behalf of his father-in-law. We learn from these inscriptions that Uṣavadāta gave away three hundred thousand cows, constructed ghats at the river Barnasa, gifted sixteen villages to gods and Brāhmaṇas, fed a hundred thousand Brāhmaṇas every year, got eight Brāhmaṇas of Prabhāsa or Somnāth Pāṭaṇ married at his expense, constructed rest-houses, made gardens and tanks at Bharukachha (Broac), Daśapura (Mandasor), Govardhana (near Nāśik) and Sorpāraga (Sopārā in the Ṭhāṇā district), provided ferry-boats at the rivers Ibā, Paradā, Damana, Tāpī, Karabenā and Dahānukā and founded some benefactions in the village Nānangolā for Brāhmaṇas residing in Piṇḍītakavāḍa, Govardhan, Sorpāraga and Rāmatīrtha. The same inscription further tells as that he marched to the north at the command of Nahapāna and rescued the Uttamabhadras who had been attacked by the Mālayas (Mālavas) and then proceeded to the holy *tīrtha* Puṣkara near Ajmer and there he bathed and gave three thousand cows and a village in charity. He got a cave excavated in the Triraśmī hill near Nāśik and assigned it to the Buddhist monks. He invested large sums of Karṣapaṇas with the trade-guilds at Govardhana and assigned the yearly interest on them for the maintenance and well-being of the monks living in the cave excavated by him.[1] In another inscription in the cave-tample at Kārle he is said to have assigned the village Kārajika for the maintenance of the Bhikṣūs living in the cave at Vāluraka (Kārle).[2] Another inscription at Nāśik records the gift made by his wife Dakṣamitrā. In an inscription at Junnar, Ayama, the Amātya of Nahapāna, has recorded his gifts of a *maṇḍapa* and a cistern evidently for the benefit of the monks living there. These inscriptions range in date from the year 41 to 46, which are usually referred to the *Śaka* era. Nahapāna therefore flourished in the first quarter of the second century A.D.

Vidarbha also was under the rule of another Mahākṣatrapa named Rupiamma, whose pillar inscription was recently discovered at Pavnī in the Bhaṇḍārā district.[3] It records the erection of a *chāyā-stambha* or sculptured pillar at the place. The Sātavāhanas had therefore to leave Western Mahārāṣṭra and Vidarbha. They seem to have retired to their capital Pratiṣṭhāṇa where they continued to abide, waiting for a favourable opportunity to oust the Śaka invaders.

Satavahanas.

Later, Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī retrieved the fortune of his family. He made a daring dash into Vidarbha and occupied the Benākaṭa (or the Waingaṅgā district). Thereafter he invaded the Western

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VIII, p. 82 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 57 f.
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. IV, p. 109 f.

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Mahārāṣṭra and defeated Nahapāna somewhere in the Nāśik district. This is shown by his inscription in one of the Nāśik caves, wherein he is called Benākaṭaka-svāmī or the lord of Benākaṭa (Waingaṅgā district). He extended his rule to a large part of the peninsula, as his chargers are said to have drunk the waters, of the three oceans. The following provinces are specifically mentioned as comprised in his dominion—Ṛṣika (Khāndeś), Aśmaka (Ahmadnagar and Bhīr districts), Akara and Avanti (Eastern and Western Māḷvā), Suratha (Kāthiāvāḍ) and Aparānta (North Koṅkaṇ). That his empire extended much farther is shown by the description that the mountains Setāgirī (near Nāgārjunikoṇḍā), Śristāna (in the Karnul district) and Mahendra (between the Godāvarī and the Kṛṣṇā) were situated in his kingdom.

After defeating Nahapāna, Gautamiputra called back the silver coins of Nahapāna and restruck them. The hoard discovered at Jogaltembhī contained more than 10,000 silver coins so restruck. He himself issued a large number of potin coins with the figure of an elephant with uplifted trunk on the obverse and the Ujjain symbol on the reverse.[1] In the hoard of potin coins found at Tarhālā in the Akolā district of Vidarbha, out of nearly 1200 decipherable coins, as many as 575 were of Gautamiputra.

Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī was succeeded by his son Vasiṣṭhīputra Puḷumāvī, who also ruled over a large kingdom, but seems to have lost some northern provinces like Akaravanti (Māḷvā) and Saurāṣṭra (Kāthiāvāḍ) to the Kṣatrapas. He is mentioned by Ptolemy as ruling at Pratiṣṭhāṇa. He was succeeded by his brother Vasiṣṭhjīputra Sātakarṇī, who married a daughter of the Śaka Kṣatrapa Rudradaman I. Among his successors the most noteworthy was Yajñaśrī Sātakarṇī, whose inscriptions and coins have been found over a large area. They show that he ruled over a large kingdom extending from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Āndhradeśa in the east. He issued among other types the ship-type lead coins indicative of his rule over the maritime province of the Coromandel coast.[2]

Within fifty years after Yajña Sātakarṇī the rule of the Sātavāhanas came to an end. The Sātavāhanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early kings of the family performed *Vedic* sacrifices and lavished gifts on the Brāhmaṇas. Kṛṣṇa, Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī, Puḷumāvī, and Yajñaśrī excavated caves and donated villages to provide for the maintenance, clothing and medicines of the Buddhist monks. As stated above, the *Gāthāsaptaśatī* or *Sattasāī*, an anthology of 700 Prākṛt verses, is, by tradition, ascribed to king Hāla of this family. Another Prākṛt work of the age was the *Bṛhatkathā* of Guṇāḍhya. It was written in the *Paiśācī* Prākṛt. The original Prākṛt work is not extant now, but two Sanskṛt versions of it viz., the *Kathāsaritsāgara* of Somadeva and the *Bṛhatkathāmañjarī* of Kṣemendra, are well-known. Guṇāḍhya was

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. III, p. 38 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. III. p. 17 f.

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a native of the town Supratiṣṭhā, which from references in some grants of the Vākāṭakas, is known to have been situated in the Hiṅgaṇghāṭ tahsil of the Wardhā district.[1] It may be identified with the modern village Pothra, situated on a small river of the same name, which joins the Wardhā.

Trade flourished during the age of the Sātavāhanas. Nāśik, Pratiṣṭhāṇa and Tagara were famous trading centres. Tagara, modern Ter, is mentioned in the *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea* as one of the two famous trading centres, the other being Pratiṣṭhāṇa (modern Paiṭhaṇ in the Auraṅgābād district). From there various kinds of merchandise were taken to Barygaza (Broac). From Pratiṣṭhāṇa a great quantity of onyxstone and from Tagara a plentiful supply of fine linen cloth and all kinds of muslins and mallow-coloured stuffs and several other kinds of merchandise were carried by wagons to the ports on the western coast.

Abhiras.

About A.D. 250 the Sātavāhanas were supplanted by the Abhīras in Western Mahārāṣṭra and by the Vākāṭakas in Vidarbha. The founder of the Abhīra dynasty was *Rājan* Iśvarasena, the son of Śivadatta, who has left an inscription in Cave IX at Nāśik. It records the investment of hundreds of Karṣapaṇas in certain guilds at Nāśik for providing medicines for the sick among the Buddhist mendicants residing in the *vihāras* of Trirāśmī.

Iśvarasena started an era commencing in A.D. 250 which later became known as the Kalacurī-Cedī era. The earlier dates of this era come from Northern Mahārāṣṭra, Gujarāt, Central India and Vidarbha. Judging by the expansion of this era, Iśvarasena and his descendants seem to have ruled over a large territory, comprising Koṅkaṇ, Gujarat and Northern Mahārāṣṭra.[2] Iśvarasena was followed by nine other kings of the family, whose names unfortunately do not occur in the *Purāṇas.* They only state that they ruled for 167 years. From the inscription on a casket recently discovered during excavations at Devnī Morī in Gujarāt, we have come to know the name of one more king *viz.*, Rudrasena. The name Kathika of this Abhira family has also become known from the same source. Rudrasena was ruling in the year 127 of the Abhīra era[3] corresponding to A. D. 376-77. The Abhīras were later supplanted by their feudatories, the Traikūṭakas.

Some feudatories of the Abhīras ruling in Gujarāt and Khāndeś have become known from copper-plates recently brought to light. From a fragmentary copperplate grant recently discovered at Kalachala near Choṭā Udaipūr in Gujarāt we learn that Iśvararāta was ruling over Central Gujarāt and some portion of Khāndeś. He is described in the grant as meditating on the feet of a lord paramount, which indicates that he owed allegiance to some paramount

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 65 f.
[2] Mirashi *Inscriptions of the Kalachuri-Chedi Era* (*C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. 34).
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. IV, p. 120. f.

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power. On the evidence of palæography he appears to have flourished in the fourth century A. D. He was therefore probably a feudatory of the contemporary Abhira king.[1] The grant was issued from Prakāśa, which is probably identical with Prakāśe in Khāndeś. No successor is known, but his family may have continued to hold Gujarāt until it was ousted by Sarva Bhaṭṭāraka, who rose to power in *circa* A. D. 400.

Two other feudatory families are known to have ruled in Khāndeś in the age of the Abhīras. From three copper-plate grants we have come to know about the following feudatories :—

Mahārāja Svāmīdāsa (Year 67).
Mahārāja Bhulunda (Year 107).
Mahārāja Rudradāsa (Year 117).

The relation of these princes *inter se* is not known. They are described as meditating on the feet of their lord paramount and were probably feudatories of the Abhīras. The years in their grants must therefore be referred to the Abhīra era and correspond to A.D. 316-17, 356-57 and 366-67 respectively. Their capital was Vālkha, which is probably indentical with Vāghlī in Khāndeś. Most of the villages mentioned in their grants can be identified in the neighbourhood of Vāghlī.[2]

Another family ruling in Khāndeś has become known from an inscription in Cave XVII at Ajaṇṭā. It gives the following genealogy :—

(Name lost)
|
Dhṛtarāṣṭra
|
Harisāmba
|
Saurīsāmba
|
Upendragupta
|
Kaca I
|
Bhikṣudāsa
|
Niladāsa
|
Kaca II
|
Kṛṣṇadāsa
|
(Name lost) — Ravīsāmba

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, Part II, p. 603 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 5 f.

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The elder son of Kṛṣṇadāsa, whose name is lost, was overwhelmed with sorrow at the premature death of his younger brother Ravīsāmba. He began to lead a pious life and constructed several *stūpas* and *vihāras*. He also caused the Ajaṇṭā Caves XVII and XIX to be excavated and decorated with paintings and sculptures. He was a feudatory of the Vākāṭaka king Hariṣeṇa (*circa* A. D. 475-500). He was preceded by ten princes of the family. The first of them, whose name is lost, probably flourished in *circa* 275-300. He was evidently a feudatory of the contemporary Abhīra king. This family was contemporary with the family ruling from Vālkha, but its capital is not known. It acknowledged at first the supremacy of the Abhīras, but after the downfall of the latter transferred its allegiance to the Vākāṭakas. The last of these princes became a feudatory of the Vākāṭaka king Hariṣeṇa. The eighth *ucchvāsa* of the *Daśakumāracarita*, which reflects the last period of Vākāṭaka rule, states that the king of Ṛṣika was a feudatory of the king of Vidarbha. After the fall of the Vākāṭakas this family seems to have been overthrown by the Kalacuri king Kṛṣṇarāja in *circa* A. D. 550.[1]

The Traikūṭakas, who also were at first feudatories of the Abhīras, took their family name from the mountain Trikūṭa, which borders the Nāśik district on the west. The names of three Traikūṭaka kings *viz.*, Indradatta, Dāhrasena and Vyāghrasena have become known from their inscriptions and coins found in the Nāśik district and Gujarāt. Dāhrasena performed an *Aśvamedha* and was therefore an independent king. A copper-plate grant discovered at Pārḍi in the Surat district records the donation, by Dāhrasena, of the village Kanīyas-Taḍākāsārikā in the Antarmaṇḍali *viṣaya* to a Brāhmaṇa residing at Kāpura. This *viṣaya* comprised territory on both the banks of the river Miṇḍholā. The donated village is probably identical with Tarsāri in the Vyārā sub-division of the Surat district. Kāpura still retains its ancient name and is situated three miles fromVyārā. Dāhrasena was succeeded by his son Vyāghrasena, who had acknowledge the supremacy of the Vakāṭaka king Hariṣeṇa. His copper-plate grant, dated in the year 241 (A. D. 490) of the Abhīra era, was discovered at Surat and records the donation of the village Purohitapallikā (modern Pāl, two miles to the west of Surat).[2] The coins of both these kings have been found in Gujarāt and Mahārāṣṭra. They have the head of the king on the obverse and the hill with the sun to the left and the respective legend round the edge inside a circle of dots.[3]

Vakatakas.

After the downfall of the Sātavāhanas the Vākāṭakas rose to power in Vidarbha. This family was founded by a Brāhmaṇa named Vindhyaśaktī I, who is mentioned in the *Purāṇas* as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā. His son Pravarasena I, called Pravīra in the *Purāṇas*, ousted Śiśuka who was ruling at Purīkā at

[1] Mirashi, *Inscriptions of the Vakatakas* (*C.I.I.*, Vol. V), p. 120 f.
[2] *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. 25 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. clxxix f.

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the foot of the Ṛkṣavat (Sātpūḍā) mountain. Pravarasena I ruled over an extensive empire in the Deccan. He performed several Vedic sacrifices, including four *Aśvamedhas* and assumed the title *Samrāṭ* (Emperor). According to the *purāṇas*, he ruled from the aforementioned city Purīkā. He had four sons among whom his extensive empire was divided after his death. Two of these are known from inscriptions. The eldest was Gautamiputra, who predeceased him. His son Rudrasena I held the northern part of Vidarbha and ruled from Nandivardhana near Rāmṭek in the Nāgpūr district. He had the powerful support of king Bhavanāga of the Bhārāśiva family, who ruled from Padmāvati in the former Gvālior State and who was his maternal grandfather. Rudrasena I was a fervent devotee of Mahābhairava. He had therefore no regard for the *ahimsā* doctrine of Aśoka. He got some portion of the aforementioned Devṭek inscription of Aśoka's *Dharmamahāmātra* chiselled off and had his own record incised in its place.[1] The latter proclaims the construction of his *dharmasthāna* (temple) at Cikkāmburī (modern Cikmarā near Devṭek).

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's son Rudrasena II, probably after securing the Vākāṭaka king's aid in his war with the Western Kṣatrapas of Mālvā and Kāthiāvāḍ. Rudrasena II died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons, Divākarasena and Dāmodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II. As neither of them had come of age, Prabhāvatiguptā ruled as regent for at least thirteen years. She seems to have been helped in the administration of the kingdom by the military and civil officers sent by her father Candragupta II. One of these was the poet Kālīdāsa, who, while residing at the Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana, must have often visited Rāmagirī (modern Rāmṭek), which lay only three miles away. The theme of his excellent lyric *Meghadūta* seems to have suggested itself to his at this place.[2]

Prabhāvatiguptā has left us two copper-plate grants. The earlier of these, though discovered in distant Pooṇā, originally belonged to the Wardhā district of Vidarbha. It was issued from the then Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana and records the dowager queen's grant of the village Dāṅguṇā (modern Hiṅgaṇghāṭ in the Wardhā district) to a Brāhmaṇa after offering it to the feet of the Bhāgavat (*i.e.*, the god Rāmacandra) on *Kartika Śukla Dvādaśī* evidently after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhini Ekādaśī*. Some of the boundary villages mentioned in the grant can still be traced in the vicinity of Hiṅgaṇghāṭ. They are

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. V. p. XXI.
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 12 f.

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described as situated in the *āhāra* or territorial division of Supratiṣṭhā. The latter seems to have comprised roughly the territory now included in the Hiṅgaṇghāṭ tahsil.[1]

Divākarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Dāmodarasena, who, on accession, assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of thirty years and was known for his learning and liberality. More than a dozen grants made by him have come to light. One of them made at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatiguptā in the thirteenth regnal year is noteworthy. The plates recording the grant were issued from the feet of Rāmagirīsvāmin (*i.e.*, the god Rāmachandra on the hill of Rāmagiri modern Rāmtek) and register the grant which the queen-mother had made as on the previous occasion after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhini Ekādaśī.*[2]

Pravarasena II founded a new city, which he named Pravarapura and where he shifted his capital some time after his eleventh regnal year. He built there a magnificent temple of Rāmacandra evidently at the instance of his mother, who was a devout worshipper of that god. Some of the sculptures used to decorate the temple have recently been discovered at Pavnār on the bank of the Dhām, six miles from Wardhā and have led to the identification of Pravarapura with Pavnār in the Wardhā district.[3]

Pravarasena II is the reputed author of the *Setubandha,* a Prākṛt *kāvya* in glorification of Rāmacandra. This work has been very highly praised by Sanskṛt poets and rhetoricians. According to a tradition recorded by a commentator of this work, it was composed by Kālīdāsa, who ascribed it to Pravarasena by the order of Vikramāditya (*i.e.*, Candragupta II). Pravarasena II is also known as the author of some Prākṛit verses, which were later incorporated in the *Gāthāsaptaśati.*[4]

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

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 6 f.
[2] *Loc.* cit., p. 34 f.
[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 272 f.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 81 f.
[5] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXX, p. 100 f.

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the adjoining Durg district of Madhya Pradeś. This Padmapura is probably identical with the birth-place of the great Sanskṛt playwright Bhavabhūti, who flourished there in a later age.

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Pṛthivīṣeṇa II, who carried his arms into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated their capital Puṣkarī, which was situated in the Bastar district of Madhya Pradeś. Pṛthivīṣeṇa II, taking advantage of the weakening of the Gupta power, carried his arms to the north of the Narmadā. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyāghradeva have been found in the former Ajaygaḍh and Jaso States in Central India.[1]

The elder branch of the Vākāṭaka family came to an end in *circa* 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.

Vatsagulma branch

The Vatsagulma branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. Its capital was Vatsagulma, modern Bāśim (Vāśim), in the Akolā district of Vidarbha. This branch also produced some brave and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of this branch, is well-known as the author of the Prākṛt *kāvya Harīvijaya,* which has, for its theme, the bringing down of the *Pārijāta* tree from heaven. This *kāvya* has received unstinted praise from several eminent rhetoricians like Ānandavardhana.[2]

Sarvasena was followed by his son Vindhyasena, called Vindhyaśaktī II in the Bāśim plates, which were issued in the 37th regnal year. These plates record the grant of a village situated in the northern *marga* (sub-division) of Nandīkaṭa (modern Nāndeḍ), the headquarters of the district of that name in the Marāṭhvāḍā Division.[3]

Vindhyasena pursued a vigorous policy and defeated the lord of Kuntala, who probably belonged to the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa dynasty of Mānapura as shown below. Like his father and grandfather, he assumed the title of *Dharmamahārājā.* His Bāśim plates record the earliest known grant of the Vākāṭakas. The genealogical portion of his grant is written in Sanskṛt and the formal portion in Prākṛt. This shows how the classical language was gradually asserting itself under the patronage of the Vākāṭakas. All the earlier inscriptions of the Sātavāhanas are in Prākṛt, while all the later grants of the Vākāṭakas are in Sanskṛt.

Vindhyasena II was followed by his son Pravarasena II, about whom little is known. The Ajaṇṭā inscription says that he became exalted by his excellent, powerful and liberal rule. He seems to have

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 89 f,
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 89 f.
[3] *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 93 f.

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had a short reign; for, when he died, his son was only eight years old. The name of this boy prince is lost in the Ajaṇṭā inscription. He was followed by his son Devasena, whose fragmentary copper-plate inscription is now deposited in the India Office, London.[1] Another record of his reign, inscribed on stone, was recently discovered near Bāśim. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 380 (A. D. 458-59) and records the excavation of a tank named Sudarśana by Svāmillaka, a servant of Devasena.[2]

Devasena was succeeded in *circa* A. D. 475 by his son Hariṣeṇa. He carried his arms in all directions. A mutilated verse in the inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā states that he conquered Avanti (Māḷvā) in the north, Kosala (Chattisgaḍh), Kaliṅga and Āndhra in the east, Lāṭa (Central and Southern Gujarāt) and Trikūṭa (Nāśik district) in the west and Kuntala (Southern Marāṭhā Country) in the south.[3] He thus became the undisputed suzerain of the entire country extending from Māḷvā in the north to Kuntala in the south and from the Arabian Sea in the west to the Bay of Beṅgāl in the east.

Hariṣeṇa is the last known Vākāṭaka ruler. As we have seen, he had an extensive empire in the Deccan. The causes that led to the sudden disintegration of that great 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.[4] It seems that Hariṣeṇa's son, though intelligent and accomplished in all arts, neglected the study of science of Politics (*Daṇḍaniti*). He gave himself up to the enjoyment of pleasures and indulged in all sorts 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 king of Vanavāsī (North Kanara district) to invade Vidarbha. The king of Vidarbha called all 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 invader, he was treacherously attacked in the rear by some of his own feudatories and was killed on the battle-field. Thus ended the Vākāṭaka dynasty after a glorious rule of two hundred and fifty years.

The Vākāṭakas were patrons of art and literature. In their age the Vaidarbhi *rītī* came to be regarded as the best style of poetry and

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. V, p. 101 f.
[2] *Dr. Mirashi Felicitation Volume*, p. 372 f.
[3] C.I.I., Vol. V. p. 106 f.
[4] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 165 f.

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several excellent poetical works were then produced in Vidarbha. Kālīdāsa also adopted the same *rītī* for his works. Some Prākṛt *kāvyas* were also produced in this period, two of which *viz.*, the *Harīvijaya* of Sarvasena and the *Setubandha* of Pravarsena have been mentioned above. Hariṣeṇa's minister Varāhadeva and his feudatory ruling in Khāndeś got excavated and decorated with paintings and sculptures three caves *viz.*, the two *Vihāra* Caves XVI and XVII and *Caitya* Cave XIX at Ajaṇṭā. Several temples of Hindu gods and goddesses and Stūpas and Caityas of the Buddhists were also built. The ruins of one temple dedicated to Rāmacandra have come to light at Pavnār.[1] Others are known from references in copper-plate grants.

Early Rashtrakutas

According to the *Purāṇas*, the Vākāṭaka Pravarasena I had four sons, all of whom ruled as kings. As stated before, the eldest of them was Gautamiputra, whose son Rudrasena I founded the Nandivardhana branch. The second son was Sarvasena, who established himself at Vatsagulma. Where the other sons were ruling is not known definitely. But one of them may have been ruling over Southern Mahārāṣṭra. He seems to have been overthrown by Mānāṅka, the founder of the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭa family. The history of this family has been unfolded during the last few years. From three copper-plate grants which have been discovered in Southern Mahārāṣṭra, we get the following genealogy[2] :—

Mānāṅka
|
Devarāja
|
Māna *alias* Vibhurāja — Avidheya — Bhaviṣya
|
Abhimanyū

Mānāṅka, the progenitor of the family, flourished in *circa* A. D. 350. He founded Mānapura, which he made his capital. He is described in one of the grants as the illustrious ruler of the Kuntala country. As stated before Kuntala was the name of the upper Kṛṣṇā valley in ancient times. The places mentioned in some of the grants can be identified in the Sātārā and Kolhāpūr districts. Their capital Mānapura is probably identical with Māṇ, the headquarters of the Māṇ talukā of the Sātārā district. These Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānapura sometimes came into conflict with the Vākāṭakas of the Vatsagulma branch. The Pāṇḍaraṅgapallī plates of Avidheya state that Mānāṅka harassed the rulers of Aśmaka and Vidarbha. On the other hand, an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā states that the Vākāṭaka king Vindhyasena (*i.e.*, Vindhyaśaktī II) defeated the king of Kuntala, who evidently belonged to this Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 272 f.
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 89 f.

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Early Rashtrakutas.

From certain passages in the *Kuntaleśvaradautya*, a Sanskṛt work ascribed to Kālīdāsa, which have been cited in the *Kāvyamimāmsa* of Rājaśekhara, the *Sṛngāraprakāśa* and the *Sarasvatikaṇṭhābharaṇa* of Bhoja and the *Aucityavicāracarcā* of Kṣemendra, we learn that the famous Gupta king Candragupta II-Vikramāditya sent Kālīdāsa to the court of the king of Kuntala. Kālīdāsa was at first not well received there, but he gradually gained the Kuntaleśa's favour and stayed at his court for some time. When he returned, he reported to Vikramāditya that the lord of Kuntala was spending his time in enjoyment, throwing the responsibility of governing the kingdom on him (*i.e.*, on Vikramāditya). This Kuntaleśa was probably identical with Devarāja, the son of Mānāṅka.[1] Through the influence of Candragupta II the two royal families of the south *viz.*, the Vākāṭakas and the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas were reconciled with each other. Later Hariṣeṇa, the last known Vākāṭaka ruler, raided Kuntala and exacted a tribute from its king. It is noteworthy that in the eighth *ucchvāsa* of the *Daśakumāracarita* the king of Kuntala is described as a feudatory of the Emperor of Vidarbha.

Shakas

Contemporary with the Vākāṭakas of Vidarbha and the Early Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Kuntala there was a Śaka family ruling over the Mahiṣaka country comprising the Osmānābād, Solāpūr and Bijāpūr districts. The founder of this family was the Śaka king Māna, who is mentioned in the *Purāṇas* as the ruler of the Mahiṣas *i.e.*, of the Mahiṣaka country.[2] The mention of his name in the *Purāṇas* indicates that he was a powerful king ruling over an extensive territory. His coins have been found at Hyderābād and during excavations at Koṇḍāpūr in the Medak tahsil and at Maski in the Liṅgasūr tahsil of the Rāipūr district. The coins found at Koṇḍāpūr have, on the obverse, a big *Svastika* in the centre with the legend *Mahāsenāpatiśa Bhāradajāputasa Saga-Māna-Cuṭu-Kulaśa* (meaning that this coin is of the Śaka king Māna, son of Bhāradvāja who is *Mahāsenapati* and belongs to the Cuṭu family).[3] The coins have on the reverse the thunderbolt and arrow pointing downward, which connect them with the coins of Nahapāna, which also have the same devices. It seems therefore that after the extermination of Nahapāna by the Sātavāhana king Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī, some of his Śaka descendants escaped to the Mahiṣaka country, where in course of time, they carved out a small kingdom. Māna, who, on the evidence of palæography of his coin-legends, can be referred to A. D. 250, seems to have come to power about the downfall of the Sātavāhanas. At first he issued his coins with the title of *Mahāsenāpati*. Perhaps he had not proclaimed his independence at the time; but later, he issued other coins with the legend *Rāṇo Saga-Māna-Mahaśasa* (*i.e.*, this coin is of the Śaka king Māna of the Mahiṣa dynasty)[4]. These coins which proclaim his title *Rājan* were evidently struck when he became independent.

[1] Mirathi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 10.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 69.
[3] *Loc. cit.*, p. 67 f.
[4] *Loc. cit.*, p. 56 f.

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This Śaka family ruled over the southern parts of the former Hyderābād State and the adjoining Kanarese districts for some generations. The *Purāṇas* state that among the successors of the Āndhras (*i.e.*, the Sātavāhanas) there were thirteen Śaka kings, who ruled for 183 years. The *Purāṇas* unfortunately do not name these rulers, but some of them have become known by the recent discoveries of their coins. These kings of the Śaka origin probably used the *Śaka* era in dating their records as their ancestor Nahapāna is known to have done. This era was probably current throughout their dominion which comprised the southern parts of the former Hyderābād State and the adjoining Bijāpūr and Dhārvāḍ districts. The era was later taken up by the Cālukyas of Badāmī when they rose to power in the sixth century A. D. When the Cālukyas conquered Mahārāṣṭra and Vidarbha, they introduced the era there. Since then it has been current there.[1]

Vishnukundins.

After the downfall of the Vākāṭakas in the beginning of the sixth century A. D. Vidarbha was occupied for some time by the Viṣṇukuṇḍin king Mādhavavarman I. This is shown by the Viṣṇukuṇḍin coins found at Pavnār and some other places in Vidarbha.[2] Mādhavavarman I was a very powerful ruler. He married a Vākāṭaka princess, who was probably a daughter or some other near relative of the last known Vākāṭaka Emperor Hariṣeṇa. He took advantage of the opportunity afforded by the downfall of the Vākāṭakas and extended his dominion far and wide. He performed several *Vedic* sacrifices including eleven *Aśvamedhas*. That he brought even Western Mahārāṣṭra under his rule is shown by his copper-plate grant discovered at Khānāpūr in the Sātārā district.[3] His grandson Mādhavavarman I describes himself as the lord of Trikuṭa and Malaya. So he may have ruled in Western Mahārāṣṭra for some time.

Kalachuris

The Viṣṇukuṇḍins were, however, ousted from Mahārāṣṭra and Vidarbha by the Kalacurī king Kṛṣṇarāja, who rose to power in *circa* A. D. 550. He ruled from Mahiṣmati, modern Maheśvar in the former Indore State. His coins have been found over a wide territory extending from Rājaputānā in the north to Mahārāṣṭra in the south and from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Vidarbha in the east. They resemble the silver coins of the Guptas and the Traikuṭakas which were struck to the Greco-Bactrian weight standard of the hemidrachma. But while the Kṣatrapa and the Traikutaka coins have the symbols of the *Caitya* (or a hill), the sun and the moon, these coins of Kṛṣṇarāja have, like some western issues of Skandagupta, the figure of a couchant bull, facing right in the centre of the reverse side. They have the legend *Parama-Maheśvaramāta-pitri-pad-anudhyāta-sri-Kṛṣṇarāja* (meaning that the coins are of the illustrious Kṛṣṇarāj, who is a devout worshipper of Maheśvara and who meditates on the feet

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 85 f.
[2] These are under publication in *J. N. S. I.*
[3] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 312 f.

of his mother and father).[1] These coins were known as *Kṛṣṇarāja-rupakas* and have been mentioned in the Añjanerī plates dated in the year 461 of the Abhīra era (corresponding to A. D. 710-12). They were therefore in circulation for at least 150 years after Kṛṣṇarāja. These coins have been found at Dhāmorī in the Amrāvati district of Vidarbha. That Vidarbha was included in the empire of the Kalacurī Kṛṣṇarāja is also shown by the Nagardhan plates of his feudatory Svāmirāja, dated in the year 322 (A. D. 573) of the Abhīra era.[2] The plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which seems to have retained its importance even after the downfall of the Vākāṭakas. Svāmirāja, who issued the plates, probably belonged to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

Kṛṣṇarāja was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaragaṇa, whose copper-plate grant has been discovered at Abhonā in the Nāśik district.[3] It is dated in the year 347 of the Abhīra era, corresponding to A. D. 597. It records the gift of some *nivartanas* of land in the village Vallīśika situated in the *viṣaya* (district) of Bhogavardhana (modern Bhokardan in the Auraṅgābād district). Vallīśika is modern Vālsā 7 miles south of Bhokardan. The donee was a *Brāhmaṇa* residing at Kallīvana (modern Kaḷvaṇ, the chief town in the tālukā of the same name in the Nāśik district). Some other inscriptions of the Kalacurī Śaṅkaragaṇa have been found in Gujarāt. One of his copper-plate grants was made at Ujjayinī, which shows that Śaṅkaragaṇa, like his father, was ruling over an extensive kingdom extending from Māḷvā in the north to at least the Nāśik and Auraṅgābād districts in the south. Khāndeś was undoubtedly included in his dominion.

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Śaṅkaragaṇa was succeeded by his son Buddharāja, who was involved in a struggle with the Cālukya king Maṅgaleśa soon after his accession. Before we describe this engagement, we must briefly review the history of the Early Cālukyas of Badāmī.

The Cālukyas of Badāmī rose to power in the first half of the sixth century A. D. The Badāmī stone inscription of Pulakeśin I, who is the first independent ruler of this dynasty, is dated in A. D. 543.[4] He performed the *Aśvamedha* and several other *Śrauta* sacrifices. He was succeeded by his son Kīrtīvarman I, who made some conquests in South India and is described as the night of destruction to the Nalas (of the Bastar district in Madhya Pradeś), the Mauryas of Koṅkaṇ and the Kadambas of Vanavāsī (in North Kanara).

When Kīrtīvarman died, his son Pulakeśin II was a minor. So his younger brother Maṅgaleśa succeeded him. He defeated Buddharāja, the Kalacurī king who was ruling in Northern Mahārāṣṭra, Koṅkaṇ, Gujarāt and Māḷvā and also Svāmirāja of the Cālukya family,

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. clxxx f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 611 f.
[3] *Loc. cit.*, p. 38 f.
[4] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 312 f.

who was governing the Revati-dvīpa (modern Reḍī in the Ratnāgirī district). The Aihole inscription[1] describes this fight as follows:— "In the temple in the form of the battle-field, Maṅgaleśa married the lady in the form of the royal fortune of the Kaṭaccuris (Kalacurīs), dispelling darkness in the form of the enemy's elephants by means of hundreds of blazing torches which were the swords of his warriors." The description shows that Buddharāja was completely routed and fled away, leaving his whole treasure behind, which was captured by Maṅgaleśa. The latter could not, however, follow up this victory; for just then Svāmirāja of the Cālukya family, a redoubtable warrior who had attained victory in eighteen battles and was ruling over Revati-dvīpa, rose in rebellion. Maṅgaleśa had therefore to abandon his original plan of making an expedition of conquest in North India and rush to Koṅkaṇ to chastise the rebellious feudatory. In the fight that ensued he killed Svāmirāja and made a grant of a village in South Koṅkan to the god in the temple of Mahākūta. So Buddharāja continued to rule in Mahārāṣṭra for some years even after his defeat by Maṅgaleśa.

Maṅgaleśa's rule ended in disaster and he lost his life in a civil war with his nephew Pulakeśin II. Just about this time one Govinda, who probably belonged to the aforementioned Rāṣṭrakūṭa family ruling in Southern Mahārāṣṭra, invaded the Cālukya kingdom from the north. Pulakeśin adopted conciliatory measures in dealing with him as he was a powerful foe. His descendants do not, however, appear to have held Mahārāṣṭra for a long time; for Pulakeśin soon annexed both Southern and Northern Mahārāṣṭras and extended the northern limit of his empire to the Narmadā. That he ousted the Rāṣṭrakūṭas from Southern Mahārāṣṭra is shown by the Sātārā plates of his brother Viṣṇuvardhana, which record the grant of a village on the southern bank of the Bhimārathī (Bhīmā). Pulakeśin defeated also the Kalacurī king Buddharāja and annexed his kingdom. He is said to have thereby become the lord of three Mahārāṣṭras, including Koṅkaṇ. The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Vidarbha, who were feudatories of the Kalacurīs, transferred their allegiance to the Cālukyas of Badāmī and like the latter, began to date their records in the *Śaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭa family have been found in Vidarbha—one dated *Śaka* 615 was found near Akolā and the other, dated *Śaka* 631, was discovered at Multai in the Betul district previously included in Vidarbha. They give the following genealogy[2]:—

Durgarāja
|
Govindarāja
|
Svāmikarāja
|
Nannarāja *alias* Yuddhāsura

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VI, p. 1 f.
[2] *Ibid*, Vol. XXIX, p. 109 f.; *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 230 f.

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Pulakeśin obtained a resounding victory over Harṣa, the lord paramount of North India. Thereafter, he assumed the title of *Parameśvara* (Emperor). He defeated the rulers of several countries such as Aparānta (North Koṅkaṇ), Kosala (Chattisgaḍh), Kaliṅga (Orissā), Piṣṭāpura (Pithapuram) and Kāñcī (Conjeeverum). He made the Colas, the Keralas and the Pāṇḍyas his allies. He thus became the undisputed lord of North India.

The capital of Pulakeśin II in the beginning of his reign was Badāmī in the Bijāpūr district. When his empire extended to the Narmadā, he must have felt the need of a more central place for his capital. The Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang calls him the lord of Mahārāṣṭra. Several identifications of his capital have been proposed by scholars from the description of it given by the Chinese pilgrim, but the most likely view seems to be that of Fleet and Burgess, who identify it with Nāśik. The pilgrim says that in the east of this country (*i.e.*, Mahārāṣṭra) is a mountain range with ridges one above another in succession, tiers of peaks and sheer summits. Here was a monastery, the base of which was in a dark defile and its lofty halls and deep chambers were quarried in the cliff and rested on the peak; its tiers of halls and storeyed terraces had the cliff on their back and faced the ravine.[1] This description seems to suit the caves at Ajaṇṭā and as this monastery lay to the east of the capital, the latter appears to be Nāśik rather than any other place in Mahārāṣṭra. Hiuen Tsang has left a graphic picture of Mahārāṣṭra and its people. "The soil is rich and fertile; the disposition of the people is honest and simple; they are tall of stature and of a stern vindictive character. To their benefactors they are grateful; to their enemies, relentless. If they are insulted they will risk their lives to avenge themselves. If they are asked to help one in distress, they will forget themselves in their haste to render assistance. If they are going to seek revenge, they first give their enemies a warning; then each being armed, they attack each other with spears. . . If a general loses battle, they do not inflict punishment, but present him women's clothes and so he is driven to seek death for himself. . . . Each time they are about to engage in conflict they intoxicate themselves with wine and then one man with a lance in hand, will meet ten thousand and challenge them to a fight. Moreover, they inebriate many hundred heads of elephants, which, rushing forward, trample every thing down so that no enemy can stand before them. The king in consequence of possessing such men and elephants, treats his neighbours with contempt. He is of the Kṣatriya caste and his name is Pulakeśin."[2]

After the overthrow of the Kalacurīs, Pulakeśin divided his extensive kingdom among his relatives and trusted chiefs. Southern Gujarāt extending from the Kim in the north to the Damaṇgaṅgā in the south was placed in charge of a Sendraka chief. The

[1] Watters, *On Yuan Chwang*, Vol. II, p. 239.

[2] S. Beal, *Buddhist Records of the Western World* (pub. by Susil Gupta), Vol. IV, p. 448 f.

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Sendrakas ruled over this territory for three generations. The founder of the family was Bhānuśaktī *alias* Nikumbha. His son was Adityaśaktī and the latter's son was Allaśaktī. Only four grants of this family have been discovered so far. Three of them were made by Allaśaktī. The earliest of them is dated in the year 404 of the Abhīra era (A. D. 653) and registers the donation of some land in the village Pippalikheta (modern Pimpaḷner) about 45 miles west of Dhulia in Khāndeś.[1] This grant shows that Allaśaktī was ruling over Khāndeś also. Another grant of Allaśaktī was found at Bāgumrā in Gujarāt and is dated in the year 406 of the Abhīra era.[2] It records the grant of the village Bālisā (modern Bānesā in the Bārḍolī taluka of the Surat district). After the issue of these plates, the Sendrakas were ousted from Gujarāt and their rule was confined to Khāndeś. A grant made by Allaśaktī's son Jayaśaktī was found at Mundakheḍe and is dated in the *Śaka* year 602 (A. D. 680). It registers the donation of the village Senana, which was situated in the *viṣaya* Kuṇḍalikāmāla (modern Kuṇḍalgāṅv, 14 miles west of Nāndgāṅv in Khāndeś).

Pulakeśin's own grant, dated in the *Śaka* year 552 (A. D. 630), was found at Lohaner in the Bāglāṇ taluka of the Nāśik district. It registers Pulakeśin's gift of the village Goviyānaka to a Brāhmaṇa residing at Lohanagara (modern Lohaner).[3]

Pulakeśin was killed in a battle at Badāmī in *circa* A. D. 642 by the Pallava king Narasimhavarman, who conquered Vātāpī and assumed the title Vātāpikoṇḍa (the conqueror of Vātāpī).

Pulakeśin was succeeded by his son Vikramāditya I (A. D. 651-81) after a long-continued struggle. He appointed his younger brother Dhārāśraya – Jayasimha to govern South Gujarāt, North Koṅkaṇ and the Nāśik district. Jayasimha's Nāśik plates are dated in the Abhīra year 436 (A. D. 685) and record the grant of the village Dhoṇḍaka on the occasion of *Visuva* or vernal equinox. Dhoṇḍaka is identical with Dhoṇḍegāṅv 12 miles north by west of Nāśik. The plates contain an interesting reference to Jayasimha's victory over Vajjaḍa in the country between the Māhī and the Narmadā. It seems that some king named Vajjaḍa (or Vajrāta) invaded the country of the Gurjaras, who were feudatories of the early Cālukyas. The Gurjara king sought the help of his suzerain Vikramāditya I. The latter ordered Jayasimha to proceed to the north for the rescue of the Gurjara feudatory. He won a decisive victory, which is placed on a par with Pulakeśin's brilliant victory over Harṣa and is mentioned as one of the most glorious achievements of the Western Cālukyas in many records of their political successors, the Rāṣṭrakūṭas. This Vajjaḍa is probably identical with Śīlāditya III, the king of Valabhī in Kāthiāvāḍ. Vikramāditya I then appointed Jayasimha to

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. 110 f.

[2] *Loc. cit.*, p. 106 f.

[3] Khare, *Sources of the Mediæval History of the Deccan* (*Marathi*), Vol. I, p. 1 f.

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govern South Gujarāt, ousting the Sendrakas, who were previously ruling there. Jayasimha appointed his son Śryāśraya Śilāditya to rule in Southern Gujarāt as *Yuvarāja*. Two inscriptions of Śryāśraya dated in the years 421 and 423 of the Abhīra era have been discovered in Gujarāt, recording his grants of land in Southern Gujarāt. That he was ruling on behalf of his father is indicated not only by his title *Yuvarāja* mentioned in them but also by the seal of the latter grant which bears the legend Dhārāśraya. Śryāśrāya predeceased his father Jayasimha Dhārāśraya.[1]

Jayasimha's younger brother Maṅgalarasa, who assumed the *biruda* Jayāśraya, is known to have made some land-grants in Koṅkaṇ. He ruled from Maṅgalapurī which was evidently founded by him. It has not yet been identified. He was later appointed to govern South Gujarāt after the death of his elder brother Śryāśraya Śilāditya. He placed his younger brother Avanijanāśraya in charge of the territory.

During the reign of Vikramāditya II, a later descendant of Pulakeśin II, Gujarāt was invaded by a formidable force of the Tājikas or Arabs. The Navsārī plates of Avanijanāśraya – Pulakeśin, who was ruling over Southern Gujarāt, give a graphic description of the battle. The Arabs had already defeated the Saindhavas, the Cāvoṭakas, the Surāṣṭras, the Mauryas and the Gurjaras and were attempting to penetrate into Dakṣiṇapatha (Deccan), but Avanijanāśraya Pulakeśin inflicted a crushing defeat on them. The Cālukya Emperor then honoured Avanijanāśraya with several titles, one of which was *Anivārtaka-nivārtayitṛ* (the Repeller of the unrepellable).[2]

From two land-grants discovered at Añjanerī,[3] a village near Trimbak in the Nāśik district, we have come to know of a feudatory family which ruled over Northern Koṅkaṇ and the Nāśik district in the seventh and eighth centuries A. D. This family traced its descent from Hariṣcandra, the famous legendary king of the Solar race. Svāmicandra, who rose to power in the reign of Vikramāditya I, was the founder of this family, and flourished in *circa* A. D. 660. Three generations of this family are known from the two sets of the Añjanerī plates – Svāmicandra, his son Simhavarman and the latter's son Bhogaśaktī *alias* Pṛthivīcandra, who made the two grants. One of these is dated in the year 461 of the Abhīra era, corresponding to A. D. 710-11. It records the grant of eight villages and certain rights, dues and taxes in favour of the god Nārāyaṇa, who was named Bhogeśvara, evidently after the king Bhogaśaktī and was installed in a temple at Jayapura, modern Jarvār Budrukh near Añjanerī. Bhogaśaktī is said to have brought by his valour the whole country of his dominion under his sway. This was probably at the time of Vinayāditya's death (A. D. 696), when owing to the captivity of his son Vijayāditya, there was anarchy in the kingdom. The second

[1] *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. lx f.
[2] *Loc. cit.*, p. 138 f.
[3] *Loc. cit.*, p. lxvi. f.

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set of Añjanerī plates tells us that Bhogaśaktī granted certain rights, privileges and exemptions to merchants of Samagirīpaṭṭaṇa when he resettled the town and the neighbouring villages some time after their devastation. Bhogaśaktī's successor was probably overthrown by Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Dantidurga, who, from his Ellorā plates, is known to have occupied the Nāśik district some time before A. D. 715.

Kīrtivarman, the last of the Early Cālukyas, was defeated by Dantidurga some time before A. D. 754, when he issued his Sāmāngaḍ plates. Kīrtivarman continued to rule for some years more, but he had lost the paramount position in the Deccan.

Rashtrakutas.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas, who succeeded the Early Cālukyas in the Deccan, originally hailed from Lattālurā (modern Lātūr in the Osmanābād district). When they rose to power they were probably residing in the Auraṅgābād district, where their earlier records have been found. Dantidurga was the real founder of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa imperial power. His Ellorā Cave inscription mentions five ancestors beginning with Dantivarman, but we know nothing about them. These earlier members of the family were probably feudatories of the Early Cālukyas. Dantidurga made extensive conquests. His Ellorā Cave inscription records his victories over the rulers of Kāñcī, Kaliṅga, Śriśaila, Mālava, Ṭaṅkā and Lāṭa, but they do not all seem to have resulted in the acquisition of territory. Though there is much exaggeration in the description of his conquests, there is no doubt that he ruled over Karnāṭaka, Koṅkaṇ, Mahārāṣṭra, Vidarbha and Gujarāt.

Dantidurga was succeeded by his uncle Kṛṣṇa I, who completed the conquests and shattered the power of the Early Cālukyas. One of his inscriptions was discovered at Bhāṇḍak in the Candrapūr district of Vidarbha. It is dated in he *Śaka* year 694 (A. D. 772) and records the grant of the village Nagana to a temple of the sun in Udumbaramanti (modern Rāṇī Amarāvati in the Yeotmāḷ district). The king was then encamped at Nandipurdvārī, which is probably identical with Nandūrā in the Yeotmāḷ Tālukā.

Kṛṣṇa I was not only a great conqueror but also a great builder. He caused the great Śiva temple at Ellorā to be carved out of solid rock. It was originally named Kṛṣṇeśvara, but is now known as Kailāsa. It is described in the following words :—When the gods moving in their acrial cars saw it, they were struck with wonder, and constantly thought much over the matter and exclaimed, "This temple of Śiva is self-existent; for such beauty is not to be found in a work of art." Even the architect who constructed it was struck with wonder, 'Wonderful! I do not know how I could construct it.' It is one of the noblest monuments of India.

In Vidarbha also the Rāṣṭrakūṭas built several magnificent temples. Those at the village Mārkaṇḍī in the Candrapūr district, where the Vaingaṅgā takes a northern bend, are specially noteworthy. One of them, which is by far the best, is dedicated to Śiva. Cunningham

has described it as follows[1]:—"The general style of the Mārkaṇḍī temple is like that of Khājurāho temples; with three rows of figures all round, two feet and 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 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 as many lions and elephants forming divisions between human figures. About one half of the panels are given to Śiva and Pārvati in various form. There are also many subordinate female figures, some dancing, some playing musical instruments and one holding a mirror, while putting antimony to her eye-lids."

Kṛṣṇa I was succeeded by his son Govinda II in *circa* A. D. 773. Soon after his accession Govinda II abandoned himself to a life of pleasure. He left the administration to his younger brother Dhruva. The latter took advantage of the opportunity and began to secure all power for himself. He also made land-grants in his own name though Govinda II was then the *de jure* king. The plates discovered at Pimpri (Jalgaon district) dated in the *Śaka* year 697 (A. D. 775) record the grant of the village Lilāgrāma made by Dhruva on the occasion of a solar eclipse in *Kārtika*. Lilāgrāma was situated in the *viṣaya* (district) of Vatanāgarika.[2] It is identical with Nilagavhāna. Vaṭanāgarikā has been identified with Vaṇī in the Nāśik district. Govinda II was then on the throne as is shown by the Dhulia plates dated *Śaka* 701, which record his grant of the village Rakkhulla in the Nāśika *viṣaya*. Soon after this grant Govinda was deposed by Dhruva in *circa* A. D. 780. Several of his land-grants have been discovered in the Marāṭhvāḍā Division. The Daulatābād plates, dated in *Śaka* 715, record the grant of a village made by his feudatory Śaṅkaragaṇa with the consent of Dhruva named therein as Kāli-vallabha (favourite of warriors). Another grant made by Dhruva himself was discovered in Paiṭhaṇ and records the gift of the village Limbarāmikā in the Pratiṣṭhāna-bhuktī.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa family produced several great conquerors who boldly invaded North and South India and achieved memorable victories. Dhruva was the first among them. He defeated both the Gurjara-Pratihāra king Vatsarāja and the Pāla king Dharmapāla, who were contending for supremacy in North India, and pressed as far as the Doāb. Since then the two rivers Gaṅgā and Yamunā began to appear on the Rāṣṭrakūṭa banner.

Govind III, the son and successor of Dhruva, proved to be a still greater conqueror. After obtaining an easy victory over the Gaṅga king Muṭṭarasa, he led victorious campaigns in Central and North India. He first defeated the Gurjara-Pratihāra king Nāgabhaṭa

[1] Cunningham, *A.S.R.*, Vol. IX, p. 145 f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. X, p. 85 f.

and his ally Candragupta in Central India and then routed Dharmapāla of Beṅgāl, who had espoused the cause of Cakrāyudha of Kanauj. He next marched victoriously until his horses drank and his elephants plunged into the spring waters of the Himālayas. He then returned to the Narmadā and marching along the bank of the river, he conquered Mālava, Kosala, Vaṅga, Dahāla and Odra countries. He next spent the rainy season at Śribhavana (modern Sarbhoṇ in Gujarāt), where his son Sarva-Amoghavarṣa was born. Thereafter Govinda marched with his forces to the bank of the Tuṅgabhadrā. Using Alampurā (or Helāpurā) on the bank of the river as his base, he led victorious campaigns against the Keralas, the Coḷas, the Pāṇḍyas and the Pallavas. Even the king of Laṅkā submitted to him, sending two statues—one of himself and the other of his minister to his camp at Helāpurā.[1]

Several copper-plate grants of Govinda III have been found in Vidarbha and Marāṭhvāḍā Divisions. It is not possible to describe all of them, but we may notice some. A set of plates discovered at Vaṇī in the Diṇḍorī talukā of the Nāśik district was issued by Govinda III and is dated in the *Śaka* year 730 (A.D. 808). It records his grant of Ambaka-grāma in the Vaṭanagara *viṣaya* of the Nāśika-deśa to the Brāhmaṇa Dāmodarabhaṭṭa, an inhabitant of Veṅgī.[2] Another discovered at Bahulavāḍ (Pācorā talukā), dated in the *Śaka* year 732 (A. D. 809) records Govinda's gift of the village Bhulavāra to the Brāhmaṇa Mahidhara-bhaṭṭa who was a resident of Nimbas-thālī.[3] A third set of plates discovered recently at Dhārūr in the Bhīr district is dated in the *Śaka* year 728 (A. D. 806) and records the grant of the village Aṇāhe (modern Aṇegāṅv) in the *viṣaya* of Dhārāura (modern Dhārūr). Most of Govinda III's grants were issued from Mayūrkhaṇḍī, which was evidently his capital. It has not been identified satisfactorily so far.

Govinda III was succeeded by his son Amoghavarṣa I who was a man of peaceful disposition, but whose reign was full of troubles. He had first to fight with the Eastern Cālukyas of Veṅgī, then the Gaṅgas of Gaṅgavāḍī and his own relatives in Gujarāt. He transferred his capital to Mānyakheṭa (modern Māḷkheḍ). A copper plate grant made by him and dated in the *Śaka* year 742 was discovered at Jāvakheḍā in the Śahādā talukā of the Dhulia district. It records the king's donation of the village Vayipadraka in the territorial division of Prakāṣaya on the occasion of *Dakṣiṇāyana Saṅkrānti*. Vāyipadraka cannot now be traced, but Prakāṣaya is probably identical with Prakāṣe in the Dhulia district. Jāvakheḍā is only 15 miles north-east of Prakāṣe.

Amoghavarṣa I loved and encouraged science and literature and treated all religions with equal reverence. He is the author of the

[1] *Ep. Ind.* Vol. XXXII, p. 157 f.
[2] *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XI, p. 157 f.
[3] Khare, *Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan* (Marathi), Vol. II, p. 13 f.

Kavirājamārga, which is the earliest work on poetics in the Kanarese language. He patronised Jinasena, the author of the Kanarese work *Ādipurāṇa*. Amoghavarṣa voluntarily retired from public administration to engage himself in religious pursuits. On one occasion he offered a finger of his hand to the goddess Mahālakṣmī of Kolhāpūr to ward off a public calamity. Such instances are rare in the history of any country.

Another noteworthy king of this Rāṣṭrakūṭa family was–India III, the great-grandson of Amoghavarṣa I. Like his illustrious ancestors Dhruva and Govinda III, Indra also led a victorious campaign in North India. He followed the route of Bhopāḷ, Jhānśī and Kālpī in the course of his invasion of Kanauj, the imperial capital of North India for more than three hundred years. At Kālpī his army was encamped in the courtyard of the temple of Kalāpriyanātha, well-known to Sanskritists as the place where all the plays of Bhavabhūti were staged.[1] His horses crossed the Yamunā at Kālpī and then marched on Kanauj, which he completely devastated. The Gurjara-Pratihāra king Mahipāla fled to Mahobā to seek the help of his Candellā feudatory Harṣa. Indra III's northern campaign was a memorable event unparalleled for its brilliance in the history of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas.

Recently a grant of Indra III made on the occasion of his coronation has been found at Jāmbgāṅv in the Gaṅgāpūr talukā of the Auraṅgābād district. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 833 (A. D. 914) and records the donation of the village Khairoṇḍī near Pratiṣṭhāṇa (modern Kharvaṇḍī near Paiṭhaṇ). The boundary villages also can be identified in its vicinity.[2]

Indra III was succeeded by his son Amoghavarṣa II, but he died within a year. His younger brother Govinda IV came to the throne thereafter. He was known for his liberality and rightly had the *biruda* Suvarṇavarṣā (the gold-rainer). On the occasion of his coronation he donated eight hundred villages, four lakhs of gold coins and thirty-two lakhs of *drammas* (silver coins) to temples and bestowed on Brāhmaṇas six hundred *agrahāras* and three lakhs of gold coins. Recently another copper-plate grant dated in the *Śaka* year 851 (A. D. 929) has been dicovered at the village Andurā in the Akolā district of Vidarbha. It records the donation of the village Elaurī (modern Eralī) near the Nāndurbar railway station on the Central Railway. Most of the boundary villages can be identified in its vicinity.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānyakheṭa and the Kalacurīs of Tripurī were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally cordial. But in the reign of Govinda IV they became strained. The Kalacurī king Yuvarājadeva I espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baddiga-Amoghavarṣa III, the uncle of Govinda IV, and sent a large army to invade the Rāṣṭrakūṭa dominion. When the army reached the

[1] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 33 f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVI, p. 223 f.

Pāyoṣṇī (modern Pūrṇā), a pitched battle was fought near Acalapura between the Rāṣṭrakūṭa and Kalacurī forces, in which the latter became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskṛt play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* of Rājaśekhara, which was staged at Tripurī in jubilation at his victory.[1]

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa feudatories who rose in rebellion against Govinda IV, deposed him and placed his uncle Baḍḍiga-Amoghavarṣa III on the throne. The latter was a man of quiet nature and spiritual temperament, who left the administration of the kingdom entirely to his ambitious and able son Kṛṣṇa III. Like some of his ancestors Kṛṣṇa III also led an expedition in North India and captured the forts of Kalañjāra and Citrakūṭa. He succeeded his father in A. D. 939. He then led an expedition against the Coḷas and defeated them in a sanguinary battle at Takkolā in the Arcot district. He next carried his victorious arms to Rāmeśvaram, where he built two temples. Hearing of his victories the kings of Kerala, Pāṇḍya and Ceylon submitted to him. He also placed his own nominee on the throne of Veṅgī. He thus became the lord paramount of South India.

Several stone and copper-plate inscriptions of the reign of Kṛṣṇa III have been found in the different parts of the Deccan, one of which may be described here. The Devḷī plates dated *Śaka* 862 (A. D. 940) register the donation of the village Tātapuruśaka in the *viṣaya* (district) of Nāgapūra-Nandivardhana, which evidently means Nandivardhana near Nāgpūr.[2] This is the earliest mention of the place-name Nāgapūr. Among the boundaries of the village is mentioned the river Kanhāna, modern Kanhān, which flows 10 miles from Nāgpūr.

After the downfall of the Vākāṭakas there was no imperial power in Vidarbha. The centre of political power shifted successively to Mahiṣmati, Badāmī and Mānyakheṭa. Men of learning who could not get royal patronage in Vidarbha, had to seek it elsewhere. Bhavabhūti, who ranks next only to Kālīdāsa in Sanskṛt literature was a native of Vidarbha. In the prologue of his play *Mahāvīracharita* he tells us that his ancestors were known as Udumbara. They probably hailed originally from a place of that name, which may be identified with Umreḍ in the Yeotmāḷ district. There is a tradition still current at the place which corroborates this identification. The ancestors of Bhavabhūti later moved to Padmapura in Vidarbha as stated in his plays *Mahāvīracarita* and *Mālati Mādhava*. This place was once the capital of the Vākāṭakas and is probably identical with Padmapūr near Āmgāṅv in the Bhaṇḍārā district.[3] With the downfall of the Vākāṭakas that 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 Padmāvati, now called Padam Pāvaya in North Idnia and had to

[1] *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. lxxviii f,
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 263 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 21 f.

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get his plays staged at the fair of Kalāpriyanātha (the sun-god at Kālpī). Later, he got royal patronage at the court of Yaśovarman of Kanauj. Rājaśekhara, another great son of Vidarbha, was probably born at Vatsagulma (modern Bāśim in the Akolā district) which he has glorified in his *Kāvyamīmāmsā* as the pleasure-resort of the god of love. He and his ancestors Akalajālada, Tarala and Surānand had to leave their home-country of Vidarbha to seek patronage at the court of the Kalacurīs of Tripurī. Rājaśekhara's early plays *viz.*, the *Bālarāmāyana*, the *Bālabhārata* and the *Karpuramañjarī*, were put on boards at Kanauj under the patronage of the Gurjara-Pratihāras. Later, when the glory of the Pratihāras declined as a result of the raids of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Indra III, who was assisted by the Kalacurī king Yuvarājadeva I, Rājaśekhara returned to Tripurī. There his last play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* was staged as stated before.[1] Another great poet of Vidarbha who had to go abroad in search of royal patronage was Trivikramabhaṭṭa, the author of the *Nalacampū*, in which he has given 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 two sets of the Bāgumrā plates of that king.[2]

Shilahara Feudatories.

During the Rāṣṭrakūṭa period a feudatory family named Śilāhāra established itself in Northern and Southern Koṅkaṇ and in the Southern Marāthā Country comprising the modern districts of Kolhāpūr, Miraj and Sātārā. The Śilāhāras bore the little of *Tagarapurādhiśvara*, which indicates that they originally hailed from Tagara (modern Ter in the Osmanābād district). All the branches of this family traced their descent from the mythical Vidyādhara prince Jimūtavāhana, the son of Jimūtaketū, who offered to sacrifice himself to rescue a Nāga from the clutches of Garuḍa. The family name is supposed to have been derived from this incident. The Śilāhāras of South Koṅkaṇ rose to power as feudatories of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas. Sānaphulla, the founder of this family, is said to have had the favour of Kṛṣṇarāja, who is evidently the first Rāṣṭrakūṭa king of that name. His capital was probably Candrapura, modern Cāndoḍ on the left bank of the river Pārodā, south of Goa. His successor Dhammiyara is said to have founded Bālipaṭṭaṇa (modern Kharepāṭaṇ in the Ratnāgirī district) which he made his capital. This family ruled in South Koṅkaṇ from A. D. 765 to A. D. 1020. These Śilāhāras remained loyal to their suzerains who were the Rāṣṭrakūṭas and gave their genealogy in their grants even after their overthrow by the Later Cālukya king Tailapa. Raṭṭarāja, the last known king of this branch of the Śilāhāras, made a grant to the teacher Atreya, the disciple of the Śaiva Ācārya Ambhojaśambhū, who belonged to the Karkaroṇī branch of the Maṭṭamāyurā clan of the Śaiva sect. Maṭṭamāyurā, the original seat of the clan, is probably identical with modern Kaḍvāhā in Central India.

[1] *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. clxxv f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. IX, p. 29 f. and p. 33 f.

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Raṭṭarāja is the last known king of this branch. He declared his independence during the reign of the Later Cālukya king Vikramāditya V, when the imperial power became weak. But Jayasimha, the younger brother of Vikramāditya V, invaded South Koṅkaṇ, overthrew the reigning king and appropriated his kingdom as stated in his Miraj plates dated in A. D. 1024.

North Koṅkaṇ was conquered by the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Dantidurga some time in the second quarter of the eighth century A. D. Kapardin I, the first known Śilāhāra king of North Koṅkaṇ, was placed in charge of the country by the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Govinda III. Since then North Koṅkaṇ came to be known as *Kapardī-dvīpa* or *Kavaḍī-dvīpa*. The capital of this branch was Purī, now known as Rājāpurī in the Kolābā district. This branch also produced several kings, who built magnificent temples like the one at Ambarnāth and gave liberal patronage to Sanskṛt learning. They continued to hold North Koṅkaṇ till A. D. 1265. The last king Someśvara was overthrown by the Yādava Emperor Mahādeva in *circa* A. D. 1265.[1]

The third branch of the Śilāhāras ruled over the Southern Marāṭhā Country, comprising the modern districts of Sātārā, Kolhāpūr and Belgāṅv. Their family deity was the goddess Mahālakṣmī of Kolhāpūr, whose boon they claim to have secured in their copper-plate grants. Their capital was probably Kolhāpūr, though some of their grants mention Vaḷavāḍā and the hill fort of Panhāḷā as places of royal residence. This branch rose to power late in the Rāṣṭrakūṭa period and so, unlike the kings of the other two branches, they do not give the genealogy of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas even in their early grants. Later, they acknowledged the suzerainty of the Later Cālukyas for some time. This branch continued to hold the Southern Marāṭhā Country from *circa* A. D. 940 to A. D. 1215.

In the *Vikramāṅkadevacarita* Bilhaṇa gives a graphic description of the Vidyādhara (*i.e.*, Śilāhāra) princess Candralekhā. She was probably a daughter of the Śilāhāra prince ruling from Karahāṭa (modern Karhāḍ); for the *svayamvara* of the princess is said to have been held at Karahāṭa. She chose the powerful Cālukya king Vikramāditya VI as her husband in that *svayamvara*. In the *Rājataraṅgiṇī* Kalhaṇa describes how when Harṣa, the contemporary king of Kāśmīr, saw a protrait of Candalā (*i.e.*, Candralekhā), the beautiful wife of the Karṇāṭa king Parmāṇḍī, he became smitten with love and vowed that he would obtain Candalā, overthrowing Parmāṇḍī. Kalhaṇa holds the king to ridicule for his foolishness.[2]

The last known king of this branch was Bhoja II, the greatest ruler of this family. On account of his great valour, he was known as Vīra-Bhoja. He assumed the imperial titles *Rājādhirāja*, *Paramabhaṭṭāraka* and Paścima-Cakravarti. This could not, however, be

[1] The last dated inscription of Someshvara is dated Shaka 1182, *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXIII, p. 279.
[2] *Rajatarangini*, VII, vv. 1119 f.

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tolerated by the Yādavas, who were then establishing their supremacy in the Deccan. Siṅghana, the mighty Yādava king of Devagiri, invaded the Śilāhāra kingdom and laid siege to the fort of Panhāḷā. He soon reduced it taking Bhoja captive. He threw him into prison on the same fort. Thereafter, we begin to get the inscriptions of the governors who were appointed by the Yādavas to administer that country. Like the kings of the other two branches of the Śilāhāra family, those of Kolhāpūr also extended their patronage to learned men. One of these was Somadeva, the author of the *Śabdārṇavacandrikā* of the Jainendra Vyākaraṇa.[1]

Later Chalukyas.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭa power became weak soon after the death of Kṛṣṇa III. Within six years his large empire crumbled to pieces like a house of cards. Taila II, the founder of the Later Cālukya dynasty, who was a *Mahāsāmanta* of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas, suddenly came into prominence. He defeated and killed in battle Karka II, the last Rāṣṭrakūṭa king and captured his capital Mānyakheṭa. He had to fight against the Colas, the Pāṇḍyas and the Paramāras. The Paramāra king Vākpati-Muñja planned to invade the Cālukya dominion, but his wise minister Rudrāditya advised him not to cross the Godāvarī, which was the boundary between the Cālukya and Paramāra dominions. Muñja did not heed his advice and was taken prisoner by Tailapa. He was placed in a prison where he was waited upon by Tailapa's sister Mṛṇālavati. He fell in love with her and foolishly disclosed to her the plan of his escape. She communicated it to Tailapa, who is said to have made Muñja beg from door to door and then beheaded him.

Among the successors of Tailapa II, the most famous was Vikramāditya VI, the founder of the Cālukya-Vikrama *Saṁvat*. He ascended the throne in A.D. 1075. He had to fight against the Colas, the Cāulukyas of Gujarāt and the Hoysaḷas and signally defeated them. Two inscriptions of his reign have been found in Vidarbha. One of them called the Sītābalḍī Pillar inscription seems to have originally belonged to the Vindyāsana hill at Bhāṇḍak in the Candrapūr district. 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 feudatory called Dhaḍibhāṇḍaka. The other inscription was discovered at Doṅgargāṅv in the Yeotmāḷ district. It throws interesting light on the history of the Paramāra dynasty. It shows that Jagaddeva, the youngest son of the Paramāra king Udayāditya, the brother of Bhoja, left Māḷvā and sought service under Vikramāditya, who welcomed him and placed him in charge of some portion of Western Vidarbha. The Doṅgargāṅv inscription is dated in the *Śaka* year 1034 (A. D. 1112).[2] Another inscription of this Jagaddeva has come to notice at Jainad in the adjoining Adilābād district of Āndhra Pradeś. It records several victories of Jagaddeva in Āndhra,

[1] *Ind Ant.*, Vol. X, p. 76 n.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVI, p. 177 f.

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Ḍorāsmudra and near the Arbuda mountain and registers the construction of a temple by Padmāvatī the wife of Lolārka, a minister of Jagaddeva.[1]

Vikramāditya's reign is renowned on account of some learned men, who flourished at his court. Bilhaṇa, who was patronised by him, wrote the *Vikramāṅkadevacarita*, which is his poetic biography. Another great writer who flourished at his court was Vijñāneśvara, the author of the well-known *Mitākṣara*, a commentary on the *Yājñavalkya-smṛti*.

Vikramāditya VI was succeeded by his son Someśvara III, who became known as *Sarvajña-Cakravarti* on account of his extensive knowledge. He composed the encyclopædic work *Mānasollāsa* or *Abhilāsitārthacintāmaṇi*. An inscription of his reign has been discovered at Lātūr in the Osmanābād district.[2] It records the construction of a temple of the god Pāpavināśana at Lattalurā, modern Lātūr. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1049 (A. D. 1128), which falls in the reign of Someśvara III.

Taila III, the last Cālukya king, was overthrown by the Kalacurī Bijjala, who was his Commander-in-Chief, in A. D. 1157. The Kalacurī usurpation lasted for more than two decades. Bijjala's reign is noted for the rise of the Liṅgāyat sect. An inscription of the Kadamba prince Māraḍadeva, dated in the *Śaka* year 1086 (A. D. 1164), was discovered at Sāvargāṅv in the Osmanābād district. It records the gift of some money for the construction of the temple of the goddess Ambā at Sāvargāṅv.[3] Māradadeva, who bears the title of *Mahāmaṇḍaleśvara*, was probably a feudatory of the Kalacurī Bijjala as the date falls in the latter's reign (A. D. 1156-68), though the inscription makes no mention of his name.

Yadavas of Devagiri.

In the last quarter of the twelfth century A. D. the Yādavas of Devagirī came into prominence. They had previously been ruling over Seuṇa-deśa (Khāndeś) as feudatories of the Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī. The founder of the family was Dṛḍhaprahāra, the son of Subāhū. His capital was Śrinagara as stated in the *Vratakhaṇḍa* while from an early inscription it appears to have been Candrādityapura, which has been identified with the modern Cāndor in the Nāśik district. His son and successor was Seuṇacandra I, from whom the country ruled over by him came to be known as Seuṇadeśa. This corresponds to modern Khāndeś. It comprised the country from Nāśik to Devagiri.

From a stone inscription[4] found at Vāghlī, six miles from Cāḷisgāṅv, we learn that a Maurya family hailing from Valabhī (modern Valā in Kāthiāvāḍ) settled in Khāndeś where it ruled for several

[1] *Ep. Ind.* Vol. XXII, p. 54 f.
[2] Khare, *Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan*, Vol. II, p. 84 f.
[3] *Loc. cit.*
[4] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. II, p. 221 f.

generations. Govindarāja, a later prince of this family built a temple at Vāghlī, to which he made several donations for the worship of the god installed therein and for the support of the learned men and their pupils who resorted to the *sattra* attached to the temple. Govindarāja, whose inscription at Vāghlī is dated in *Śaka* 991 (A. D. 1069) was a feudatory of the Yādava king Seuṇacandra II.

Bhillama II, one of the early Yādava kings, assisted Tailapa of the Later Cālukya family, in his war with Muñja. Seuṇacandra II, a later member of this family is said to have saved Vikramāditya VI from a coalition of his enemies and placed him on the throne of Kalyāṇī. Bhillama V, a later prince of this Yādava dynasty, taking advantage of the decline of the power of the Later Cālukyas, made a bid for paramount power in the Deccan. He led victorious expeditions against the Hoysaḷas, the Paramāras and the Cāulukyas and made himself master of the whole country north of the Kṛṣṇā. He then founded the city of Devagirī (modern Daulatābād) and made it his capital. Thereafter the Yādavas ruled from that city.

From a stone inscription[1] found at Añjanerī near Nāśik and dated A. D. 1142 it appears that there was a minor branch of the Yādava family ruling at Añjanerī. Seuṇadeva of this branch made some grant to a Jain temple. Seuṇadeva calls himself *Mahāsāmanta* and evidently was dependent on the main branch. This family ruled over a small district, of which Añjanerī was the chief city.

Bhillama V's son Jaitugī or Jaitrapāla killed Rudradeva of the Kākatīya 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 greately increased. We get considerable information about his victories from four stone inscriptions of his general Kholeśvara at Āmbe-Jogāī in the Bhīr district. Kholeśvara was a native of Vidarbha and was residing at Āmbe, where he has left his inscriptions. Some more details are furnished by a later copper-plate grant of Rāmacandra found at Puruṣottampurī in the Bhir district.[2]

Siṅghaṇa achieved several victories. He defeated the Hoysaḷa king Vira-Ballāḷā, the Kākatīya king Gaṇapati and the lord of Bhamgirī, modern Bhāmer in the Sakri talukā of the Dhulia district. He confined Bhoja II of the Śilāhāra family on the hill of Pranāḷā (modern Panhāḷā), a strong fort 12 miles to the north-west of Kolhāpūr. Most of these victories were won by his Brāhmaṇa general Kholeśvara. The latter vanquished Arjunavarmadeva, king of Māḷvā, and even pressed as far north as Vārāṇaśī, where he put Rājyapāla to flight. Kholeśvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha and also established *agrahāras* on the bank of the Pāyoṣṇī (Pūrṇā) and the Varadā (Wardhā). The former *agrahāra* still exists under the name of the village Kholāpūr in the Amrāvatī district.

[1] *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XII, p. 126 f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, p. 31 f.

Siṅghaṇa was succeeded by his grandson Kṛṣṇa, who obtained victories over the kings of Gurjara, Mālava, Cola and Kerala. The Gurjara king was Viśāladeva and the Mālava ruler was Jaitugīdeva. The contemporary Cola king was Rājendra III. (A. D. 1246-1279). The Kosala king was evidently the contemporary ruler of Ratanpūr in Chattisgaḍh, who was probably the successor of Jājalladeva, defeated by Siṅghaṇa, but no records of his have yet been discovered. An inscription of the reign of Kṛṣṇa has been found in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara in the Amrāvati district. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1177 (A. D. 1254-55), and records the donations of some *gadyāṇas* for the offering of flowers in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara.

Kṛṣṇa was succeeded by his brother Mahādeva. From the recently discovered Kalegāṅv plates we know the exact date of his coronation as the 29th August A. D. 1261. The most notable event of his reign was the annexation of North Koṅkaṇ after defeating Someśvara of the Śilāhāra dynasty. He left the throne to his son Āmaṇa, but the latter was soon deposed by Kṛṣṇa's son Rāmacandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagirī by means of a *coup d'etat*. He won several victories as mentioned in the Puruṣottampurī plates dated in the *Śaka* year 1222 (A. D. 1310). He is said to have defeated with ease the ruler of Ḍāhala (*i.e.*, the Cedī country), subjugated the ruler of Bhaṇḍāgāra (*i.e.*, Bhaṇḍārā) and dethroned the king of Vajrakāra (Vairāgaḍ). He is further credited with a victory over the Muhammedans, whom he drove out of Vārāṇaśī. He built there a golden temple dedicated to Śārṅgapāṇī (Viṣṇu). His minister Puruṣottama received from him the grant of four villages of which he formed an *agrahāra* and donated it to several Brāhmaṇas on the holy day of Kapilā-ṣaṣṭhī in *Śaka* 1232. The *agrahāra* was named Puruṣottamapura after the donor. It is still extant under its original name on the southern bank of the Godāvarī, about 40 miles due west from Parbhaṇī. The villages together with their boundaries can still be identified in the vicinity of Puruṣottampurī.

A fragmentary inscription of the time of Rāmacandra is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill of Rāmṭek. In the first half it gives the genealogy of Rāmacandra and in the second half it describes the temples, wells and *tirthas* on and in the vicinity of the hill, which it names as Rāmagirī. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs to the temple of Lakṣmaṇa done by Rāghava, a minister of Rāmacandra.

In A. D. 1296 Alā-ud-ḍīn Khiljī invaded the kingdom of Rāmacandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagiri. Rāmacandra was taken unawares and could not hold out for long. He had to pay a heavy ransom to the Muslim conqueror. He continued, however, to rule till A. D. 1310 at least; for the aforementioned Puruṣottampurī plates are dated in that year. He was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaragaṇa some time in A. D. 1311. He discontinued

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Yadavas of Devagiri.

sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was then defeated and slain by Malik Kāfur. Some time thereafter Harapāladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra, raised an insurrection and drove away the Muhammedans, but his success was short-lived. The Hindu kingdom of 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 rule a peculiar style of architecture called Hemāḍpanti after Hemādri or Hemāḍpant, a minister of Mahādeva and Rāmacandra, came into vogue. The temples built in this style are found in all the districts of Mahārāṣṭra. Several learned scholars flourished at the Yādava court. Of these Hemādri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahādeva he held the post of *Śrikaraṇādhipa* or the Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed minister and Head of the Elephant Force by Rāmacandra. He was as brave as he was learned. He conquered and annexed to the Yādava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called Jhāḍī-maṇḍalā. Hemādri is well-known as the author of the *Caturvargacintāmaṇī*, comprising five parts, *viz.*, (1) *Vratakhaṇḍa*, (2) *Dānakhaṇḍa*, (3) *Tirthakhaṇḍa*, (4) *Mokṣakhaṇḍa*, and (5) *Pariśeṣakhaṇḍa*. Of these the third and the fourth *khaṇḍas* have not yet come to light. Hemādri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers of *Dharmaśāstra*. He is the author of a commentary on Śaunaka's *Praṇavakalpa* and also *Śrāddhakalpa*, in which he follows Kātyāyana. His *Ayurvedarasāyana*, a commentary on Vāgbhāṭa's *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya* and *Kaivalyadīpikā*, a gloss on Bopadeva's *Muktāphala* are well-known.

Hemādri extended liberal patronage to learned men. Among them the most famous was Bopadeva. He was a native of Vedapāda (modern Bedod) on the bank of the Wardhā in the Adilābād district. Bopadeva is said to have composed ten works on grammar, nine on medicine, one for the determination of *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 Beṅgāl.

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

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD.

Delhi Sultanate.

At the close of the thirteenth century, Khāndeś was held by a chief styled the Rājā of Khāndeś who according to Feriṣṭā possessed an army of 40,000 or 50,000 men. He was probably the Cohān ruler of Asirgaḍ who according to tradition came into Khāndeś from Goḷconḍā[1]. When in 1296, Alāuddin, the nephew of

[1] Todds *Annals*, II, 411.

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the Delhi emperor suddenly appeared before the Yādava capital of Devagiri, Rāmacandra, the Yādava ruler sent messages to the rājās of Gulburgā, Telangaṇa, Māḷvā and Khāndeś to send him assistance and reinforcement. Rāmacandra was however defeated and forced to pay tribute. On his return march to Delhi Alāuddin overran the powerful and extensive Kingdoms of Māḷvā, Goṇḍvana and Khāndeś storming the fort of Asirgaḍ on the way and destroying all the members of the chiefs' family except one[1]. On July 20, 1296 Alā uddin contrived the murder of his uncle and ascended the throne of Delhi. It may be mentioned here that during Alā uddin's reign a campaign was led by Ulugh Khān against Gujarāt. The Gujarāt King, Vāghelā Karṇa, was defeated and his territory was overrun by the advancing army. Karṇa escaped and obtained refuge at the court of the Yādava king Rāmcandra. Perceiving, however, the danger that might befall his host due to his stay at his court, he left Devagiri and rebuilt the town and fortress of Nandurbār where he set himself up as a semi-independent ruler and vassal prince of the Rājā of Devagiri[2]. Karṇa had to give up these possessions too in the subsequent invasions from the north. No Muslim invasion of the Deccan took place till 1307 when, Alā uddin on the refusal of Rāmacandra to pay tribute, appointed Malik Nāib Kāfur to lead an expedition to Devagiri. Malik Kāfur was instructed to punish the recalcitrant *Rājā* as also to conquer the other Kings of the south. The Yādava army was defeated. Rāmacandra was, however, allowed to govern his territory after paying heavy ransom. This and the subsequent campaigns of the south are of particular significance to the history of the Deccan because they brought practically the whole of the south under the Delhi emperors. The Yādava Kingdom, in 1318 A.D. became part of the Sultanate of Delhi. Devagiri became the Southern headquarters of the Delhi emperors. The absence of Malik Nāib in the Deccan unsettled the political climate in Delhi and Alā uddin was forced to recall Malik Nāib. This was a signal for the uprising of rebels in various parts of the kingdom. Devagiri revolted under Harpāldeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra. In the midst of these troubles, Alā uddin died on 5 January, 1316, when Mubārak Śāh, Alā uddin's third son ultimately ascended the throne. He sent Khusrāv Khān to suppress the revolts. He marched to the Deccan re-established the suzerainty of Delhi in the Deccan and returned to the capital. With his growing power, he aspired to the throne and encompassed the murder of the king on April 15, 1320. Khusrāv ascended the throne. Shortly after he was put to death by Ghāzī Tughluq, the governor of Dipālpūr, who ascended the throne under the title of Ghiyās uddin Tughluq Śāh on September 8, 1320. Ghiyās uddin reasserted his supremacy over the Deccan. His reign was, however, short-lived. He died in 1325 and was succeeded by his son Ulugh Khān, under

[1] *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, 9 and 377.

[2] *Cambridge History of India*, III, 112, 518.

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the title of Muhammad Śah. To Muhammad Śāh goes the credit of extending the Muslim domination to the remote south by vanquishing the *Rājā* of Kāmpili and the Hoysāḷa Ballāla thus establishing his away, practically all over India. It was in 1326-27 that Muhammad Śāh transferred the capital from Delhi to Devagiri which was renamed Daulatābād. This must have considerably enhanced the importance of the province of Khāndeś due to its close proximity to the new capital. But all was not well in the edifice of the Delhi empire. It began to show cracks, with the rebellions taking place all over the empire. The resurgence of the Hindu chiefs which led to the founding of the Kingdom of Vijayanagar in 1336 also contributed to the decline of the Empire. It may be mentioned here that Ibn Batutāh a Muslim traveller who visited India in the early 14th century while on his way to Cambay from Daulatābād passed through Nandurbār which was then in the province of Gujarāt. He has the following to say about the city: "We continued on our way to Nandhurbar (Nandurbar) a small town inhabited by the Marhatas, who possess great skill in the arts and are physicians and astrologers. The nobles of the Marhatas are Brāhmaṇs and Katris (Kṣtriyas). Their food consists of rice, vegetables and oil of sesame and they do not hold with giving pain to or slaughtering animals. They wash themselves thoroughly before eating and do not marry among their relatives unless those who are cousins six times removed. Neither do they drink wine, for this in their eyes is the greatest of vices.[1]" In 1345 the amirs of the Deccan rebelled and the Sultān could not suppress the rebellion. Devagiri was seized by the rebel nobles and finally passed into the hands of Hasan Gaṅgū, the founder of the Bahamanī dynasty. Under Muhammad Tughluq, Khāndeś was a subdivision of a *subhā* in charge of an officer stationed at Ellicpūr in Berār. When the Deccan nobles had revolted, Imād-ul-Mulk, the governor of Berār and Khāndeś abandoned his province and retired to Nandurbār. The Berār officers joined the revolt and with the establishment of the independent Bahamanī Kingdom, no part of Khāndeś except Nandurbār and Sultānpūr, remained under the Delhi Sultanate. The newly founded Bahamanī kingdom included in the west, Ahmadnagar and in the south, Nāśik, and in the east, part of Berār. Between these two points Bahamanī rule does not seem to have passed north of the Tāpī. Along the Cāndor or Sātmāḷa hills there would seem to have been a line of independent chiefs of Gāḷṇā, Antūr and Vairāṭgaḍ. The east was under the powerful Asirgaḍ chief and the west was in the hands of the Rājā of Bāglāṇ. The fact that subsequently Firoz Tughluq assigned the districts of Thāḷner and Karaṇḍā on the Gujarāt–Khāndeś border to Malik Rājā Fāruqī, the founder of the Fāruqī dynasty shows that the Bahamanī territory did not extend to Khāndeś. Its districts formed part of the southern boundaries of the Tughluq empire.

Faruqi Dynasty.

This state of affairs continued till 1370 when Malik Rājā,[2] a private horseman in the army of Firoz Tughluq attracted the attention of the

[1] *Ibn. Batutah*, M.A.R. Gibbs, p. 228.

[2] He was known as Raja Ahmad.

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Faruqi Dynasty.

Malik Raja.

emperor. It appears that Malik Rājā at the time of the revolt of the Deccan nobles did not participate in the rebellion. He, however, opposed the newly founded Bahamanī rule. During the reign of Muhammad Śāh, Bahrām Khān Māzendaraṇī, the governor of Daulatābad rebelled.[1] Many chieftains of Berār and Bāglān including Malik Rājā joined the rebels. The rebels were, however, defeated and forced to flee to Gujarāt. Malik Rāja established himself at Thāḷner. At this time he seems to have directly entered the services of Firoz Tughluq.[2] His family claimed descent from the Khaliph Umar Fāruq. This is what Feriṣtā has to say about the descent of the Fāruqī family.

"Mallik Rājā, the first Mahomedan ruler of Kandeish is descended from the Caliph Umar Farook and traces his pedigree thus: Mallik Rājā, the son of Khānjahan, the son of Ally Khān, the son of Oothman Khān the son of Simeon Śāh, the son of Aśab Śāh, the son of Armian Śāh, the son of Ibrahim Śah of Bulkh, the son of Ādhum Śah, the son of Ahmud Śāh, the son of Mahmood Śāh, the son of Mahomed Śāh, the son of Azim Śāh, the son of Asghur, the son of Mahomed Ahmud, the son of Imām Nasir Abdoolla, the son of Oomr-oöl Fārook, the Khaleefā, or representative of the last of the prophets.[3]" His forefathers were among the most respectable nobles of Alā uddin Khiljī and Muhammad Tughluq. The father of Malik Rājā, Khān Jahān Fāruqi, was a minister in the court of the Khiljīs. Firoz Tughluq, while on an hunting expedition in Gujarāt, was rendered timely help by Malik Rājā and the emperor on learning him to be the son of Khān Jahān resolved to promote him. At the very first *darbār* he made him an officer of two thousand horse. Shortly afterwards, he conferred on him the districts of Thāḷner and Karaṇḍā.[4] Thus was laid the foundation of a future dynasty which was to rule over Khāndeś for over two hundred years.

In the year 1370 Malik Rājā marched with a force to take possession of his assignment. At the same time he reduced Bahirjī, the Rājā of Bāglāṇ and forced him to consent to the payment of an annual tribute to the king of Delhi. He received from the Rājā of Bāglāṇ five large and ten small elephants besides, a quantity of pearls and jewels and specie by way of tribute. On returning to his

[1] Haig-*Turks and Afghans*, III, p. 294.

[2] Haig-*Cambridge History of India*, III 294.

[3] *Ferishta* IV, p. 284.

[4] The account given by *Ayeen Akbery* in this regard is very interesting. It says "Formerly this country was desolate except that a few people inhabited Asseer which was their place of worship and called Ascotahma. It is said that Mullick Rajee, from whom Bahader was the ninth, in lineal descent, through the versatility of fortune came from Bundur to this country and settled in the village of Keerandeey, dependent upon Tahleenir. But being molested by the natives, he went to Delhi and entered the service of Sultan Feeroz. As he was an expert huntsman, the king was pleased with him and told him he should have anything he could wish for. Upon this he obtained a grant of the village of Keerandeey. By his prudent management he peopled the deserted lands and brought them into cultivation" Gladwin p. 344

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capital he covered the elephants with velvet housing, embroidered with gold and having laden several camels, with muslins and other manufactures of Khāndeś and also some pearls sent them as offering to the Emperor. The Emperor Firoz remarked that the very duty which the governor of Gujarāt ought to have performed long ago had been fulfilled by Malik Rājā. In consequence the Emperor honoured Malik Rājā with the title of *Sipāh Sālār*-Commander-in-Chief of Khandeś and raised him to the rank of three thousand horse. In spite of the independent position held by Malik Rājā, he and his successors for a few generations abided by the title of Khān from which his state came to be known as Khāndeś, "*the country of Khāns.*[1]" Malik Rājā acquired great power in a short time and in a few years could muster twelve thousand horse and levy contributions from the rays of Goṇḍvana as far as Gaḍh Maṇḍlā. Feriṣtā says that "such was his fame that the Rāy (Rājā) of Jajnuggur (Vijayanagar), notwithstanding the distance, established a friendly intercourse with him.[2]"

Before Malik Rājā's time, the State of Khāndeś was in a very bad state. For years without any regular government, it had lately been visited by a famine, so severe, that not more than two or three thousand Bhils and Koḷis survived. The only prosperous part of the district was near Asirgaḍ, where, Āsā, a rich ahir or herdsman, was one of the principal landholders. Āsā, at this time had many storehouses both in Goṇḍvana and Khāndeś which his agents opened in order to sell the corn. His wife who was of a charitable disposition, however, persuaded Āsā to allow the grain to be distributed to the poor and suffering without payment to which Āsā agreed. It was also with a view to employ many of the sufferers as labourers that Āsā levelled the old walls of Asir and constructed a fort built of masonry. Āsā also distributed food to the aged and decrepit who were unable to perform manual labour.

When Malik Rājā assumed authority all over Khāndeś, Āsā, being of a peaceable and unambitious disposition was the first of all the landholders to acknowledge fealty to him. He also presented Malik Rājā with many other things which he required on the establishment of his family. Malik Rājā soon realised that a strong fort like that of Asir, in the hands of a person of such distinguished qualities as Āsā in the very heart of his dominion would be a danger to his government. However Malik Rājā felt himself under too many obligations to Āsā to wrest it by force from him. He therefore desisted from any attack on Āsā and thought it prudent to maintain a *status quo.*

During the reign of Firoz Tughluq, Dilāvar Khān Ghorī was appointed the governor of Māḷvā. Dilāvar Khān declared his independence, while disorders prevailed at Delhi subsequent to the invasion of Amir Timur. Both the families *viz.*, the Fāruqi and the

[1] *Ayeen Akbery* says that Malik Raja sat on his throne at Thalner in Hijri 784 under the title of Adil Shah and reigned for 17 years. Gladwin p. 344.

[2] *Briggs*, IV, p. 282.

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Ghorī were now matrimonially connected. Dilāvar Khān Ghorī gave his daughter in marriage to Malik Nasir, the son of Malik Rājā. At this time great commotion prevailed in the bordering province of Gujarāt where Farhāt ul mulk the governor thought of declaring his independence. To suppress the revolt, Zafar Khān was sent by Muhammad Tughluq as governor of Gujarāt with the title of Muzaffar Khān. He succeeded in defeating the recalcitrant governor. The invasion of Timur and the escape of Muhammad Tughluq to Gujarāt and his subsequent return to Delhi hastened the declaration of independence by Muzaffar Khān who now assumed the title of Muzaffar Śāh. Malik Rājā relying upon the support of Dilāvar Khān, invaded the territory of Gujarāt and laid waste the district of Sultānpūr and Nandurbār. Muzaffar Śāh who at the time was engaged on an expedition to Somnāth, on hearing of the invasion of Malik Rājā deemed proper to turn his arms towards Khāndeś. By rapid marches he reached Sultānpūr and forced Malik Rājā, to retreat towards Thāḷner where the latter took shelter. The fort of Thāḷner was besieged by Muzaffar Śāh. Though Muzaffar Śāh was in a commanding position, he did not press his advantages but accepted the overtures made by Malik Rājā for a negotiated settlement and withdrew to his territory. During the remaining period of his rule Malik Rājā confined his military operations entirely to his own country and spent his time in promoting architecture and improving agriculture. Malik's spiritual guide and teacher, Śaikh Zain-ud-din of Daulatābād presented him with a robe, "the garb of desire and assent." So long as the dynasty lasted this robe was carefully handed from ruler to ruler. Before his death Malik Rājā sent for his two sons Malik Nasir and Malik Iftikār and invested the former with this sacred robe and nominated him his successor. Of his two chief forts, he bequeathed Lāling to his elder son and Thāḷner to Malik Iftikār, the younger son. He died in 1399 and was buried in a handsome tomb at the town of Thāḷner.

Malik Nasir.

Malik Rājā was succeeded to the throne by his son Malik Nasir, also called Garib Khān. The family rose to great fame and power during the reign of this monarch. Learned men were invited from all parts of the country and arts and letters patronised.

The first act of Malik Nasir after assuming power was the capture of Asirgad, held by Āsā. The Ahir Chief had, inspite of his wealth and the strength of his fort, without any struggle acknowledged the supremacy of Malik Rājā, Malik Nasir's father. He had also rendered him help in many ways to establish his power. Malik Nasir, on his accession to throne had also received many personal favours from Āsā like his father. Malik Nasir realised the danger of such a principality thriving within the boundaries of his Kingdom. He could not, however, precipitate an attack on Āsā and of a peaceable disposition as Āsā was, he would not give him any ground for an attack on Asir. Malik Nasir, however, had decided upon seizing Asirgaḍ and making it his own capital. He, therefore, wrote to Āsā complaining that he was in great straits as the Chiefs of Bāglāna, Antur and Kherlā were

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rising against him. Of those the two had collected large forces. He also informed Āsā that Thāḷner was in possession of his brother Iftikar and Lāliṅg, which was too close to the enemy territories was not a safe place for retreat. He, requested Āsā to afford his family a safe retreat. The unsuspecting Āsā willingly consented little knowing of the fatal consequences of his act. Āsā ordered suitable apartments to be fitted up for the reception of Malik Nasir's ladies. Shortly after several covered litters with women were brought into Asirgaḍ and were visited by Āsā's wife and daughters. Next day another troop of 200 litters arrived reportedly occupied by the wife, mother and the rest of Malik Nasir's family. Āsā alongwith his sons went to receive them but to his astonishment instead of women he found the litters full of armed soldiers who leapt up and murdered Āsā and his innocent sons in cold blood. Not a single male child in the family was left alive. The inhabitants of the fort were so stunned by the ruthless massacre that they fled with their families from the fort. The treacherous and cunning Malik Nasir, on learning of the success of his scheme, repaired from his camp at Lāliṅg to the fort of Asir. He strengthened and fortified the fort and made it his headquarters.[1] Shortly after this a disciple of Śaikh Zain uddin, the tutelary saint of the family came to congratulate Malik Nasir on his success. On his advice Malik Nasir built two cities on the Tāpī, one on the east bank called Zainābād after the Śaikh and the other on the west bank called Burhāṇpūr after Śaikh Burhāṇuddin of Daulatābād. The latter city became the capital of the Fāruqī dynasty.

It will be recalled that Malik Rājā, Malik Nasir's father had bequeathed the fort of Thāḷner and the surrounding district to his younger son Malik Iftikār. Malik Nasir, after his success against Āsā, cast an avaricious eye on the fort of Thāḷner, the possession of which he regarded as essential for the security of his territory. He, therefore, in 1417, solicited the help of Sultān Hośaṅg of Māḷvā who was his brother-in-law. The latter dispatched a force of 5,000 under the command of his son Ghizny Khān to the assistance of Malik Nasir. The combined armies of Malik Nasir and Sultān Hośaṅg laid siege to the fort of Thāḷner. Malik Iftikār remonstrated with his brother and wrote in vain to Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt for sending succour. However the fort of Thāḷner fell after the siege had continued for some time. Malik Iftikār was taken prisoner and kept in confinement in the fort of Asirgaḍ. Flushed with this success and to forestall any attack from Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt and with a view to repairing

[1] Ferishta, the noted historian, his conscience biting him to the bones for this dastardly act of atrocity perpetrated by Malik Nasir tries to minimise the gravity of the act by observing that "It is, however, a well authenticated fact that the property of Asa was never appropriated by any of the Farooky dynasty to their own use; and all the money and jewels taken on this occasion fell in the hands of Akbur Padshah, when he marched to the Southwards and took the fortress of Aseer, two centuries afterward." *Briggs* IV. p. 290. Such assumption is unbelievable and even if it be true cannot be a sufficient recompense for the murderous villainy of Malik Nasir.

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the discomfiture of his father who had made an unsuccessful attempt to annex the south eastern districts of Gujarāt, Malik Nasir, with the combined forces of Māḷvā and Khāndeś entered the Gujarāt territory, attacked Nandurbār and invested the fort of Sultānpūr. On hearing of this invasion Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt marched with the whole of his army to the south. He sent a considerable detachment under Malik Mahmud Turk in advance to disperse the forces of Malik Nasir and Ghizny Khān. Malik Turk worsted the combined forces of Khāndeś and Māḷvā and forced them to flee the battle field. Ghizny Khan fled to Maṇḍū. Malik Nasir retreated to Thāḷner which was closely besieged by Malik Turk. The siege continued for some time. With no prospects of any succour and having been reduced to extreme distress, Malik Nasir made overtures of peace to some of Ahmad Śāh's ministers. He succeeded. Ahmad Śāh, not only accepted the presents which Malik Nasir sent him, but in return he bestowed on him the white canopy and scarlet pavilion and honoured him with the title of Khān. Malik Nasir sweared fealty to Ahmad Śāh and promised to abstain in future from aggression. Nasir's brother Iftikār Hasan retired to Gujarat where he and his descendants for generations found a home and intermarried with the royal house. It may be noted here that the reluctance of the Sultān of Māḷvā to help Malik Nasir during the siege of Thāḷner by Malik Turk estranged the relations between the two. Malik Nasir, inspite of his matrimonial connection with Sultān Hośaṅg, never directly or indirectly helped that Sultān in all his subsequent adventurous campaigns against the Sultāns of Gujarāt.

In 1429 Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī deputed his ambassador Azim Khān to Nasir Khān soliciting the hand of his daughter in marriage for his son Alāuddin. Apprehensive of the power of the neighbouring Sultān of Gujarāt, Nasir Khan received this offer favourably and sent his daughter in great state with the ambassador to Ahmadābād Bidar where the nuptials were celebrated with much magnificence. This union, however, only engendered strife. Khāndeś, after a disastrous war with the powerful Bahamanīs was at length driven into the arms of Gujarāt. In the same year Rājā Kānhā, the Jhālāvār King fled from Gujarāt and took refuge with Malik Nasir at Asir. He presented Nasir some elephants and other valuables and requested him to assist him in recovering his country from his Gujarāt overlord. Nasir Khān who knew the power of Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt refused to be drawn in an immediate conflict with Gujarāt. He advised the Rājā to seek the help of Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī. The Rājā accordingly was dispatched to Bidar with a letter from Nasir soliciting his help to the Rājā. Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī put a small force at the disposal of the Rājā to recover his country. The detachment arrived at Nandurbār and laid waste the district. Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt sent a force to oppose the aggressors under the command of his son Muhammad Khān, and Malik Mukarrib, an officer. Muhammad defeated the aggressors in the engagement which took place near Sultānpūr. A large number of Deccanies were killed. The Bahamanī

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forces retreated to Daulatābād and thence conveyed the news of the disaster to Bidar. When the news reached Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī he assembled a force under his son Alā uddin. The force was put under the command of Khān Jahān and Kuddas Khān at Daulatābād. They were joined by Malik Nasir. Rājā Kānhā who had fled to Khāndeś also joined them. The combined army moved several marches in the direction of the Gujarāt army. It encountered the latter at the Māṇikpuñj pass about 38 miles Northwest of Daulatābād. An action ensued in which Kuddas Khān was killed and the combined army fell back. They however rallied and forming into a solid body, made a desperate charge on the Gujarāt army. They were, however, so steadily opposed that they fell back and were completely routed. Alā uddin fled towards Daulatābād. Malik Nasir and Rājā Kānhā took refuge in the fort of Lāling. The prince of Gujarāt withdrew to Nandurbār, where he remained on the alert after laying waste part of Khāndeś.

In 1435 when Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt was engaged in hostilities with the Sultān of Māḷvā, Malik Nasir involved himself in hostilities with Alā uddin Bahamanī his son-in-law who had succeeded his father Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī. This was at the instigation of the Gujarat King. Malik Nasir's daughter Malika Jahan, who was married to Alā uddin Bahamanī complained to her father that she was being neglected by her husband for a beautiful Hindu wife, the daughter of the rājā of Saṅgneśvar, whom Alā uddin had given the title of *Paricahrā* (Fairy Face).[1] To avenge his daughter's wrong, Malik Nasir invaded Berār with his own forces. He was supported by many malcontent Deccani Chiefs. He had made private overtures to them promising them great rewards if they would join his standard. A considerable force was also received from the Rājā of Goṇḍvana. The Bahamanī officers who had joined hands with Malik Nasir designed a plot to arrest Khān Jahān, the governor of Berār. On receiving information of the plot Khān Jahān fled to the fortress of Narnāḷā. He wrote the account of the disaster, to Alā uddin Śāh Bahamanī. In the meanwhile Malik Nasir was advancing in Berār. He had his *Khutbā* read on Fridays in the principal mosques of the province as the king of Berār[2].

On receiving this serious news, Alā uddin called a council of his ministers and military chiefs. He appointed Khalaf Hasan Malik-ut-tujjār to lead the campaign. Khalaf Hasan proceeded with a well equipped army of 7000 Arabs. He entered Berār. He was joined by Khān Jahān at Mehkar. Khān Jahān was dispatched to Ellicpūr to ward off any attack from the Rājā of Goṇḍvana. Khalaf Hasan himself moved with the main body towards Roḥankheḍā Ghāṭ where Malik Nasir was camped. At the foot of the Ghāṭ an encounter took place between a detachment of Malik Nasir's forces and the Bahamanī troops. The Khāndeś troops were defeated with great

[1] *Briggs', II.* p. 427.
[2] *Bahamanis of the Deccan*—H. K. Sherwani, p. 234.

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slaughter. Malik Nasir retreated from the field and fell back on Burhāṇpūr. He was very closely pursued by Malik-uttujjār who sacked the city of Burhāṇpūr and levied heavy contributions from its citizens. He proceeded to lay waste the province of Khāndeś. At this time he received the news that the army of Māḷwā had joined hands with the Gujarāt forces at Nandurbār and Sultānpūr to help Nasir Khān. Malik-ut-tujjār determined to attack Malik Nasir before reinforcements could reach the latter. He moved on to Lāliṅg by forced marches with a select body of four thousand troops. Nasir Khān had a force of over 12,000 with him. He underestimated the real strength of the Bahamanī army, issued out of the fort and gave battle. He was, however, completely defeated. Many of his principal officers together with the rebel chiefs of Berār were slain in the battle. Malik-ut-tujjār returned to Bidar with seventy elephants and a large booty.[1] Malik Nasir, frustrated and overcome with anxiety and grief, died a few days after. He was buried by his son Miran Adil Khan, at Thalner. Adil Khan, who was also the nephew of Sultān Hośaṅg of Māḷvā, succeeded his father as the ruler of Khāndeś.

Miran Adil Khan.

Inspite of the reverses which Malik Nasir suffered, he was able to secure the position of his house and kingdom. Without taking into consideration his matrimonial relationship with the Bahamanīs, he wisely acknowledged the suzerainty of the Sultān of Gujarāt. This step was to save his successors on several occasions.

After Mirān Ādil assumed Kingship, he wrote pressing letters to the Sultāns of Gujarāt and Māḷvā to come to his succour. Shortly after, the Gujarāt army arrived at Sultānpūr. Malik-ut-tujjār was forced to raise the siege of Lāliṅg and retire to the Deccan. Mirān Ādil Khān reigned subsequently for three years till 1341. According to Feriṣtā he suffered Martyrdom[2] at Burhānpur. He was buried at Thāḷner by the side of his father. Mirān Ādil Khān was succeeded by his son Mirān Mubārak. He reigned for a period of sixteen years without undertaking any foreign conquest or drawing upon himself the hostility of his neighbours. However he led two campaigns against the Rājā of Bāglāṇ; this brought him in to conflict with Mahmud Khiljī of Māḷvā.

Miran Mubarak.

It may be mentioned here that after the death of Muhammad Śah II of Gujarāt in February 1451, Mahmūd Khiljī of Māḷvā resolved to seize the opportunity of conquering Gujarāt. Young Ahmad Śāh had succeeded his father in Gujarāt. Mahmūd Khiljī assembled an army of 10,000 horse and 500 elephants and invaded Nandurbār. The commander of the fortress of Nandurbār, Alā uddin Suhrāb made no attempt to hold the fort against such

[1] *Briggs*, II, p. 430. The account given by Sayyad Ali Tabataba does not substantially differ from that given by Ferishta. *Bahamani Gharanyacha Itihas*, pp. 95, 96.
[2] *Briggs*, IV, p. 296. The expression implies assassination.

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a force. He surrendered it to Mahmūd Khiljī who then advanced to Baroḍā. He was, however, ultimately defeated and had to flee to his own territory. After a few years, Mahmūd led a desultory war against the Bahamanīs. On being forced by a superior army he beat a hasty retreat. Soon after his return, Mahmūd was approached by his vassal, the Rājā of Bāglāṇ whose territory had been invaded by Mubārak Khān Fāruqī of Khāndeś. Mahmūd sent an army to help the Rājā. Mubārak was completely defeated and fled after suffering heavy losses. Mubārak again attacked the Rājā of Bāglāṇ next year. However, on hearing of the approach of the Māḷvā army to the help of the Rājā, Mubārak had to retreat to his country without risking a battle. Mirān Mubārak Khān Fāruqī died on June 5, 1457. He was succeeded by Ādil Khān II. Ādil Khān had a very long and fruitful reign of 46 years. Feriṣtā remarks that under his government, the province of Khāndeś attained a degree of prosperity which it had never known under any of its former rulers.[1] He was one of the most powerful and energetic rulers of Khāndeś. He spread his power over the neighbouring chiefs of Goṇḍvana and Gaḍha Maṇḍalā whose rājās acknowledged fealty to him. He suppressed the depredations of the Koḷis and Bhils, thus ensuring safety to the travellers in his dominion. He further carried his conquest as far as Jhārkhaṇḍ the modern Cotā Nāgpūr and assumed in consequence of these circumstances, the title of Śāh-i-Jhārkhaṇḍ (King of the forest region). Ādil Khān strengthened Asirgaḍ by fortifying the strong outwork of Malaigaḍ, built the citadel of Burhānpūr and raised many magnificent buildings in that town. It was during his reign in 1462 that Mahmūd Śāh Begāḍā, the Sultān of Gujarāt, on receiving a call for help from the infant Bahamanī ruler Nizām Śāh, who had been attacked by Mahmūd Khiljī of Māḷvā, marched to Nandurbār and thence eastward into Khāndeś. He forced the Malvese army to retire to its own country in utter confusion. Ādil Khān, due to the enormous power he had gained scorned dependence upon the Sultāns of Gujarāt whom the Khāndeś rulers had regarded as their natural protectors since the invasion of Khalaf Hasan, the Bahamanī General. He openly declared that he owed no allegiance to the Sultān of Gujarāt. Ādil Khān, in his career of victory, withheld the payment of usual tribute to the Sultāns of Gujarāt. This brought upon him the invasion of Mahmūd Śāh Begāḍā. Muhmūd Śāh ordered his army into Khāndeś and directed that it should not return till the arrears of the tribute were received. This event took place in 1498. The Gujarāt army had been moved into Khāndeś under Sultān Begāḍā. With its onslaught, the Khāndeś army retreated within the walls of Thāḷner and Asir. Both the places were invested by the forces of Mahmud Begāḍā. Ādil Khān, unable to cope up with the superior strength of the Gujarāt forces, agreed to pay arrears of

Miran Adil Khan.

[1] *Briggs*, IV, p. 298.

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tribute. The Gujarāt forces then retired to their kingdom.[1] He hereafter maintained cordial relations with the Sultān of Gujarāt whose court he visited.[2] Ādil Khān died a few years later on 28th September 1501.

During the reign of Muhammad Śāh Bahamanī III, Ādil Khān II of Khāndeś paid a complimentary visit to the former and was accorded a royal reception at Bidar. There is evidence to show that Bahamanī coins were current in Khāndeś and the Bahamanī Sultān was mentioned in the Friday prayers right throughout Khāndeś. When Ādil Khān was in the Bahamanī capital the city was given to pleasure and rejoicing and no stone was left unturned to make the visit of Ādil Khān a grand success.[3] Perhaps this new relationship between the Bahamani Sultān and the Sultān of Khāndeś which developed and was built up over a period of time encouraged Ādil Khān to severe his relations with the Sultān of Gujarāt. Ādil Khān was buried, at his request, near the palace of Daulat Maidān (Royal Grounds) in Burhānpūr.[4]

Daud Khan.

Ādil Khān died without any male issue. The Kingship of Khāndeś devolved on his younger brother Dāud. It will be recalled here that Malik Nasir had expelled his younger brother Iftikār Hasan to Gujarāt where he and his descendents were given protection by the Sultāns of Gujarāt. Ādil Khān, the great grandson of Malik Hasan was now enjoying the protection of Mahmūd Begādā. He was,

[1] In this connection Ferishta says "some historians state that Mahmood Shah marched in person against Adil Khan, and having arrived on the river Tapti, received his submission there" *Briggs'*, IV, p. 73.

A very interesting account of the campaign of Mahmud Begada is given by Ferishta in his history of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar. He says that when Mahmud arrived with his army at Sultanpur, Adil Khan requested the aid of Imad-ul-Mulk and Ahmad Nizam Shah to oppose Mahmud Begada. Ahmad Nizam Shah was at this time investing Daulatabad. He raised the siege and marched with 15,000 troops to Burhanpur where the allies camped. The allies brought about the defeat of the Gujarat forces by employing a strategem of doping an elephant in the Gujarat army and by creating confusion in it thereby. Ferishta concludes by saying that the "Gujarat historians have omitted to mention this defeat, desirous, perhaps, to conceal this blot on the fame of Mahmood Shah Begurra, so that god only knows whether it be true or false". *Briggs'* III. p. 202.

[2] *Cambridge History of India*, III, p. 313.

[3] *Bahamanis of the Deccan*, p. 330.

[4] *Briggs'*, IV, p. 299. It may be mentioned here that Khandesh did not remain unaffected to the upheavals that were rocking the Bahamani Kingdom after the death of Mahmud Gawan the prime minister of the Bahamani Sultan. The rivalry between the Deccanis and the foreigners erupted again and thousands were killed on both sides in the streets of Bahamani capital. When peace was restored Malik Naib, Qasim Barid and Imad-ul-mulk administered the city and kept the young king Mahmud Shah under subjugation. Dilawar Khan the African, resenting his exclusion from the highest offices, attempted, in obedience to the secret orders of the young Sultan who chafed under the restraint to which he was subjected to assassinate the Ministers but failed and was obliged to flee to Khandesh to take asylum with Adil Khan Faruqi.

Subsequently when Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, and Berar declared their independence, Qasim Barid became supreme and seized power. Dilawar Khan with the support of Adil Khan of Khandesh returned to help the king, defeating Qasim Barid but was killed accidentally in the pursuit of Kasim Barid who now emerged victorious.

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incidently, Begādās' grandson, too. Most of Malik Hasan's descendants had married princesses of the royal house of Gujarāt. At the time of the death of Ādil Khān II, Mahmūd Begāḍā induced Adil Khān to nominate his grandson Alam Khān as heir apparent. Mahmūd Śāh however could not press the claim at that time and Dāud succeeded to the throne of Khāndeś without opposition. He was a feeble but reckless prince. He completely fell under the influence of two scheming brothers, Husain Ali and Yār Ali. He appointed the former as his *Wazir* and gave him the title of Hisām uddin. At the instigation of his new *Wazir* he declared his intention of attacking some of the frontier towns of the Ahmadnagar Kingdom. It may be mentioned here that after the murder of Mahmūd Gāvān, the Bahamanī prime minister, that Kingdom had dissipated and provincial governors had assumed independence. Malik Ahmad of Ahmadnagar was the first to assume the royal title to be shortly followed by Yusuf Ādil of Bijāpūr and Fatehullāh Imād-ul-mulk of Berār. Ahmad Nizām Śāh, anticipating the movement of Dāud Khān, marched an army into Khāndeś. Unable to face Ahmad Nizām Śāh, Dāud Khān retired into the fort of Asir and appealed to the Sultān of Māḷvā, Nasiruddin, for help. A force was sent by Nasiruddin under Ikbāl Khān to assist Dāud Khān. Malik Ahmad, unwilling to embroil himself in a fresh dispute with the Sultān of Māḷvā, retreated to his own territory. Dāud Khān had, however, to pay a price for inviting the assistance of the Sultān of Māḷvā. Ikbāl Khān did not withdraw on hearing of the retreat of Malik Ahmad. He advanced upto Burhāṇpūr and forced Dāud Khān to agree to the *Khutbā* to be recited in the name of Nasiruddin. Ikbāl Khān retired to Maṇḍū after taking a tribute of two elephants and sundry articles of value from Dāud Khān.[1] The inglorious rule of Dāud Khān ended on 28th August 1508 after eight years.[2] His son

Ghazni Khan.

[1] Some historians say that the attack of Ahmad Nizam on the kingdom of Khandesh was not the result of the proposed aggression of Daud Khan against the Ahmadnagar territory alone but the invitation Ahmad Nizam Shah had received from a nobleman of the court of Khandesh who plotted to depose Daud Khan and put Alam Khan on the throne. Sayyad Ali gives a fictitious account of this episode stating that after the death of Adil Khan, Mahmud Shah ascended the throne of Khandesh. Feeling insulted on the assumption of his name by the Sultan of Khandesh, Mahmud Begada attacked Khandesh being invited at the same time by the brother of Mahmud Shah. Sayyad Ali then states, like Ferishta, how Ahmad Shah by a strategem wrought defeat upon Mahmud Begada of Gujarat who returned to his dominion defeated and humiliated and for which now the Sultan of Khandesh ever remained grateful to Ahmad Nizam Shah. This account is purely fictitious because no one ascended the throne of Khandesh by the name of Mahmud Shah. (*Ahmadnagarchi Nizam Shahi* pp. 32-34). The events which led to the attack of Ahmad Nizam Shah on Khandesh are described in the pages that follow.

[2] After the death of Quasim Barid in 1504 Amir Ali Barid, Ahmad Nizam Shah and Qutb-ul-mulk, conspired against Yusuf Adil Shah regarding him as a Shiah heretic. Yusuf was unable to withstand the confederacy arranged against him and fled to Berar. But Imad-ul-mulk who could not protect him against his enemies advised him to retire to Khandesh and take asylum with Daud Khan of Khandesh. Yusuf owed dissension in alienating Ahmad Shah and Qutb-ul-mulk to his side and then left Khandesh to attack Ali Barid with the help of Imad-ul-mulk, defeating Ali Barid at Kalam in Berar.

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Ghaznī Khān was placed on the throne by Malik Hisām uddin and other officers of the Kingdom. Ghazni Khān was, however, poisoned by Hisām uddin after a reign of only ten days. There was now no male heir to the throne residing in Khāndeś. The nobles of the court therefore decided to raise to the throne one Ālam Khān, a scion of the Fāruqī family then residing at Ahmadnagar. Ahmad Nizām Śāh and Imād-ul-mulk of Berār decided to support and acknowledged Ālam Khān as the king of Khāndeś and with the object of placing Ālam Khān on the throne invaded Khāndeś. Mahmūd Begāḍā however decided to dispute the claim of Ālam Khān and instead uphold the claim of Ādil Khān, the son of Hasan and grandson of Malik Nasir by the daughter of Mahmūd Śāh who was then residing at Thāḷner and had begged Mahmūd Śāh for his support, to capture the Government of his ancestors. Mahmūd Śāh, with his forces, marched towards Asir and halted at the town of Cikhalī. Khāndeś was thus divided into two factions, one supporting the Gujarāt claimant and the other, the Ahmadnagar claimant. When Malik Ahmad and Imād-ul-mulk heard of the arrival of Mahmūd Śāh at Thāḷner they decided to leave four thousand cavalry each to assist Ālam Khān. They themselves retired to Gāvilgad. The Khāndeś Officers perceiving themselves unable to resist the Gujarāt forces dispersed, with Hisām uddin joining hands with the king of Gujarāt. The troops left to support Ālam Khān soon deserted him, thus forcing Ālam Khān to flee from Burhāṇpūr and again seek protection from Ahmad Nizām Śāh. In the meanwhile Malik Lārun, an officer in charge of Asir who had refused to acknowledge allegiance to either of the contestants, submitted to Mahmūd Śāh of Gujarāt. With the opposition thus liquidated Mahmūd Śāh of Gujarāt held a court at Thāḷner and installed Ādil Khān III to the throne of Khāndeś with the title of Azim Humāyūn. The event took place in April 1509. He cemented the alliance between the two kingdoms by giving his grand daughter[1] in marriage to Ādil Khān III and presenting him a sum of Rs. 2,00,000.

Adil Khan III.

On assumption of power, Ādil Khān bestowed upon Malik Lārun the title of Khān Jehān and the Jāgir of Ahulas. Hisāmuddin was given the title of Śer yār Khān, the town of Danvār as an estate and was placed in charge of Thāḷner. Ādil Khān now removed his family and property from Thāḷner to Burhāṇpūr and Hisāmuddin proceeded to Thāḷner. Ādil Khān had some trouble with this noble and suspecting complicity on his part with Ahmad Nizām Śāh in a plot to place Ālam Khān on the throne, he ordered Hisamuddin to the court. Not suspecting any foul play, Hasām uddin visited Ādil Khān in the audience hall. No sooner had he left the hall than he was murdered by the king's servants who had received previous instructions to that effect. The officers of Hisāmuddin were attacked and cut down by Malik Burhān, an officer of the Sultān of Gujarāt. This vigorous but sanguinary measure restored to the king the whole of the Thāḷner district, which formed nearly half of his territory. It also

[1] Daughter of Muzaffar Shah who later succeeded his father Mahmud Shah Begada.

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removed an ambitious and powerful rival. Subsequently Ādil Khān visited the fort of Asir. He discovered that Śer Khān and Saif Khān, the two Gujarāt nobles whom he had left in charge of Asir were intriguing against him, with Ahmad Nizām Śāh. Nizām Śāh had actually arrived with Ālam Khān on the frontiers of the kingdom. Ādil Khān thereupon sent urgent messages to Muzaffar Śāh of Gujarāt, who had succeeded Mahmūd Śāh Begāḍā, to send a force to his assistance. Muzaffar sent Rs. 8,00,000 to Ādil Khān to enable him to raise an army and also a large force under Dilāvar Khān and Safdar Khān to his aid. Muzaffar Śāh also informed the ambassador of Ahmad Śāh at his court of his determination to support the lineal descendant of the house of Fāruq even at the risk of his crown.

Ahmad Nizām Śāh, too weak to face such a formidable adversary, thought it prudent to retreat. Ādil Khān employed the forces sent by the Sultān of Gujarāt to help him in levying tribute from the Rājā of Bāglāṇ, a vassal of the Sultān of Ahmadnagar, from whom he raised a large sum of money. After this the Gujarāt forces returned to their country. In the year 1517 A.D. Ādil Khān accompanied his father-in-law, Muzaffar Śāh in a campaign in Māḷvā where the Rajputs under Mahārāṇā Saṅga and Medini Rāi, had deposed Sultān Mahmūd II of Māḷvā. Ādil Khān, along with Kivām-ul-mulk, first marched against Mahārāṇā Saṅga of Citoḍ while Muzaffar marched against Maṇḍū. After the fall of Maṇḍū, Ādil Khān, with a small body of light cavalry went in pursuit of Rāṇā Saṅgā again. The latter had retreated to Citoḍ. However Rāṇā Saṅga and Medini Rāi, regrouped their forces shortly and inflicted a crushing defeat upon Mahmūd II of Māḷvā and the Gujarāt contingent of 10,000, horse led by Ādil Khān and Kivām-ul-mulk. Muzaffar Śāh sent further reinforcement. Their services were however, not required as the great Mahārāṇā Saṅga had already restored Mahmūd to the throne of Māḷvā. Ādil Khān then returned to Khāndeś. The rest of the reign of Ādil Khān is undistinguished and is not marked by any note worthy event. In the year 1520, Ādil Khān fell dangerously ill and died at Burhāṇpūr after a reign of 19 years. He was succeeded by his eldest son Mirān Muhammad whose mother was the daughter of Muzaffar Śāh and sister of Bahādūr Śāh of Gujarāt.

Miran Muhammad.

At the time of the accession of Mirān Muhammad, Imād Śāh of Berār and Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh of Ahmadnagar were embroiled in a war with each other. Imād Śāh was defeated and took refuge with Mirān Muhammad of Khāndeś. Mirān Muhammad and Imād Śāh wrote to Bahādūr Śāh of Gujarāt seeking his mediation in the dispute with Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh. Bahādūr Śāh agreed and sent Ain-ul-mulk, his ambassador to mediate a peace. Burhāṇ agreed to a temporary truce. However, on the return of Ain-ul-mulk to Gujarāt he worsted the territory of Berār by attacking Māhūr and other places. Imād Śāh now formed an alliance with Mirān Muhammad who marched with all his army and elephants to the aid of Imād-ul-mulk. In a desultory action Imād-ul-mulk defeated a contingent of Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh and gave himself to plunder. Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh rallied and

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with a body of three thousand cavalry attacked the allied army and completely routed both Imād Śāh and Mirān Muhammad. The allies lost several of their elephants, with a considerable number from their army slain on the battle field. Mirān Muhammad fled towards Asir and Imād Śāh towards Gāvilgaḍ and from there entreated Bahādūr Śāh to send assistance[1] to fight against Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh. Bahādūr Śāh decided to march personally. He arrived at Nandurbār where he was met by Mirān Muhammad and the Rājā of Bāglāṇ Bahādūr gave his sister in marriage to Mirān Muhammad, bestowed upon him the title of Śāh and after the rainy season of 1528 marched towards the Kingdom of Ahmadnagar by way of Berār. On the way he was joined by Imād Śāh. Bahādūr advanced through Berār. He asked Imād Śāh to dismiss his officers and appoint his nominees in their places. This threat put Imād Śāh in a quandary. He therefore pleaded with Bahādūr Śāh, on the advice of Mirān Muhammad, to march towards Ahmadnagar. Bahādūr accepted this advice and occupied Ahmadnagar. He was accompanied by the Berār and Khāndeś troops. The Ahmadnagar army was occupied in cutting off the supplies of the invaders. Bahādūr now turned towards the fort of Daulatābād which he invested. Here he was attacked by Burhāṇ Nizām who now thought of seducing Imād-ul-mulk. The latter had grown suspicious about the intentions of Bahādūr Śāh. Burhāṇ succeeded in his plan and Bahādūr Śāh now perceived his difficult position with one of his allies deserting him and the other Mirān Muhammad desiring peace. Bahādūr therefore permitted Mirān Muhammad to carry negotiations fors peace and agreed on terms sufficiently humiliating to Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh. Burhāṇ agreed to recite the *Khutbā* in the name of Bahādūr Śāh and return the elephants of the allies captured in the battle. It was with great difficulty that Mirān Muhammad succeeded in recovering his elephants from Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh. With the treaty thus concluded, Bahādūr Śāh, Mirān Muhammad and Imād-ul-mulk returned to their respective dominions.

In 1532 disputes arose between Bahādūr Śāh of Gujarat and Mahmūd Śāh of Māḷvā. The former decided to settle the issue by

[1] After the death of Muzaffar Shah a war of succession ensued between his sons Sikandar, Latif and Bahadur. The town of Nandurbar was a scene of great activity during this great turmoil in Gujarat. Imad-ul-mulk a nobleman of Gujarat court raised Sikandar to the throne whereas Latif started collecting army at Nandurbar. When a force was sent against him he retreated from Nandurbar and fled to Baglan but subsequently returned to Gujarat. In the meanwhile, Sikandar was assassinated by Imad-ul-mulk Khush Kadam and his infant son was raised to the throne under the title of Mahmud II. Prince Bahadur was returning to Gujarat from the north at the express invitation of the principal nobles of Gujarat who detested the behaviour of Imad-ul-Mulk. Imad-ul-mulk now wrote to Burhan Nizam Shah to invade Nandurbar sending him monetary gifts. Burhan accepted the gifts but did nothing in return. Bahadur Shah now reached the Territory of Gujarat and entered Champaner. Imad-ul-mulk was unable to oppose him. Latif Khan who was lurking in the town fled to Nandurbar and was joined by a number of partisans. Ghazi Khan who was upholding Bahadur's cause in the Nandurbar district defeated Latif and made him a prisoner. Latif died on his way to capital where he was being sent at the orders of Bahadur Shah.

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recourse to arms. He advanced towards Maṇḍū accompanied by Mirān Muhammad Śāh of Khāndeś. Maṇḍū was captured and the whole of Māḷvā was annexed to Gujarāt. Bahādūr Śāh returned to Gujarāt and on his way was entertained by Mirān Muhammad Śāh at Burhāṇpūr. Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh, alarmed at the conquest of Māḷvā, sent Śāh Tāhir and Narsū Paṇḍit to Burhāṇpūr. He requested Mirān Muhammad Śāh to intercede on his behalf with Bahādūr Śāh to reconcile some differences which existed between him and the Sultān of Gujarāt. On the advice of Mirān Muhammad Śāh, Bahādūr Śāh agreed to the proposal. The meeting between the two took place at Burhāṇpūr in the presence of Mirān Muhammad Śāh. Bahādūr gratified Burhāṇ's vanity by recognising his title of Śāh.

In 1532 Bahādūr Śāh of Gujarāt, on learning of the disloyalty of Rajput Silahdi who was the vassal of the Sultāns of Māḷvā, marched to Māḷvā. He dispatched a force under Mirān Muhammad Śāh and Imād-ul-mulk Malikji against Silahdi. Mirān Muhammad Śāh established Bahādūr's authority over the outlying districts of Māḷvā and met Bahādūr Śāh at Sāraṅgpūr. Bahādūr Śāh then returned to Cāmpaner and Mirān Muhammad went to Khāndeś. After the rainy season in 1532 Mirān Muhammad again joined Bahādūr and both proceeded to Citoḍ which was captured. Both the kings then retired to their respective kingdoms. They returned to Māḷvā in 1534. Bahādūr Śāh now became estranged from Humāyūn, the Moghal emperor who attacked him. Bahādūr Śāh could do nothing against the skilled Moghal archers and had to beat a hasty retreat to Gujarāt with Mirān Muhammad Śāh and his other officers in Māḷvā. He was hotly pursued by Humāyūn who occupied the whole of Gujarāt and marched into Khāndeś. Muhammad Śāh begged Humāyūn to spare his small kingdom the horrors of an invasion. At the same time, he wrote to the Sultanates of the Deccan. But Humāyūn's affairs were confined to a military promenade through Khāndeś whence he returned to Maṇḍū.[1] The sudden eruption of Śer Śāh from Beṅgāl into Delhi territory obliged him to return hastily to Āgrā. Bahādūr closely followed the retreating Moghals and re-established his hold on Gujarāt. Bahādūr then requested Mirān Muhammad Śāh to invade Māḷvā and drive away the Moghal officers who had been stationed there. Mirān Muhammad Śāh, in concert with Mallu Khān, the Gujarāt Governor of Māḷvā, took possession of Maṇḍū. Here he heard of the death of Bahādūr Śāh. He himself was chosen to succeed the vacant throne of Gujarāt by the mother of Bahādūr Śāh and the nobles of Gujarāt.[2] He was formally crowned at Maṇḍū. His reign as Sultān Muhammad III was however short lived. On his journey to Ahmadābād, he was taken ill and died in May 1535. He lies buried at Burhāṇpūr in the vault of his father Ādil Khān.

[1] *Haig*, III, p. 333.

[2] Sultan Bahadur Shah had, during his lifetime, indicated to the assembled nobles that his sister's son Miran Muhammad Shah, ruler of Khandesh, should succeed him to the throne of Gujarat.

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Mirān Muhammad Śāh was succeeded by his brother Mirān Mubārak Khān.[1] He immediately brought upon himself an invasion from Gujarāt. The late king Mirān Muhammad had brought up Mahmūd Khān, the son of Latif Khān, the rebel brother of the late Sultān Bahādūr Śāh of Gujarāt. The Gujarāt nobles decided to put Mahmūd Khān on the throne of Gujarāt. Mirān Mubārak hoped to receive a summons to the throne of Gujarāt. Seeing the circumstances taking a turn contrary to his wishes he refused to surrender Mahmūd Khān, the declared heir to the throne of Gujarāt. The Gujarāt army under Ikhtiyār Khān invaded Khāndeś and forced Mirān Mubārak to surrender Mahmūd Khān who was taken to Gujarāt and crowned king. Differences soon developed between Ikhtiyār Khān who had now become regent and Imād-ul-mulk Malikjī, another prominent noble of the kingdom. These led to the assassination of the former. Another noble Daryā Khān now came into prominence and a rift developed between Imād-ul-mulk and Daryā Khān leading to an open clash. Imād-ul-mulk was defeated and driven into Khāndeś. He was hospitably received by Mirān Mubārak who encouraged him to collect a body of 12,000 troops. Both of them, then marched to meet Daryā Khān. Their ostensible object was to secure the throne for Mubārak Śāh. Daryā Khān, in the meanwhile, along with Mahmūd Śāh followed Imād-ul-mulk. A battle was fought at Dāṅgrī, near Tāpī in which the Khāndeś troops were totally defeated. Mubārak fled to Asir and Imād-ul-mulk went away to Māḷvā. Daryā Khān, following up his success, plundered and laid waste the country of Khāndeś. He compelled Mubārak to pay a heavy indemnity. A treaty was concluded. Mirān Mubārak paid a visit to Mahmūd Śāh accompanied by his respectable nobles. Daryā Khān and Mahmūd Śāh then returned to Gujarāt.[2] It may be recalled here that after the annexation of Māḷvā by Humāyūn and later with the occupation of the Delhi throne by Śer Śāh, Śujāt Khān had been appointed governor of Māḷvā.

[1] The nobles of Khandesh raised Raja, the son of Miran Muhammad Shah to the throne but Miran Mubarak deposed him and assumed royalty. *Ayeen Akbery*, p. 345.

[2] It was at this time that Miran Mubarak acquired for himself the districts of Sultanpur and Nandurbar. Mahmud Shah, when in confinement in Asir (under Miran Muhammad Shah), had promised that if ever he succeeded to the government of Gujarat he would give the districts to Miran Mubarak. Upon this occasion he fulfilled the promise. *Briggs'*, IV, p. 315.

The account given by Commissariat based on *Mirat-i-Sikandari* is as under :—

"Twice during this reign, Sultan Mubarak Shah, ruler of Khandesh, who was closely related by blood to the Gujarat dynasty and who resented the fact that the nobles of that kingdom had not only passed over his claims to the succession in favour of boy-rulers like Mahmud III and Ahmad III but had also partitioned the country among themselves led his army to the Gujarat frontier in order to take advantage of the distracted condition of that country. On the first occasion he was induced to abandon his designs upon the pious remonstrances of Saiyid Mubarak. But the second invasion was instigated by Itimad Khan himself who had taken refuge at the court of Burhanpur when he found his power at Ahmadabad temporarily eclipsed.

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Later, when Humāyūn recovered his throne, Śujāt Khān refused to acknowledge him as his sovereign. After his death his son Bāz Bahādūr assumed royal titles. When Akbar ascended the throne he invaded Mālvā and forced Bāz Bahādūr to flee. Bāz Bahādūr sought protection with Mirān Mubārak Śāh of Khāndeś. Pir Muhammad Khān, the Moghal general, pursued him to the very centre of Khāndeś, and devastated the country. He sacked the city of Burhāṇpūr, dishonoured the females and committed enormities unfit to relate.[1] Mirān Mubārak Śāh, therefore, wrote to Tufāl Khān of Berār, who had become all powerful by arrogating the authority from Imād Śāh of Berār to himself, to assist him in this moment of crisis. Tufāl Khān responded to the entreaty of Mirān Mubārak Śāh and marched with all his forces to Khāndeś. Pir Muhammad Khān who was withdrawing with all his booty and spoils without order and discipline, was surprised by the allied forces on the banks of the Narmadā. He was defeated and put to flight with heavy losses. The allies marched right upto Maṇḍū, reinstated Bāz Bahādūr on the throne and afterwards returned to their respective territories. Mirān Mubārak Śāh did not survive for long after this. He died in December 1566 after a reign of thirty-two years.

Miran Muhammad Khan

Mirān Mubārak was succeeded by his son Mirān Muhammad Khān. Immediately on his accession he had to face an attack from Gujarāt. That country was riddled by the warring nobles who had practically divided the country among themselves. Itimād Khān was the regent in Gujarāt to whom a demand was made by Caṅgiz Khan, a fief holder, for additional territory to support his troops. Itimād Khān advised Caṅgiz Khān to recover the district of Nandurbār which formerly formed part of Gujarāt but was now held by the Sultān of Khāndeś. Caṅgiz Khān fell for the bait, invaded and occupied Nandurbār and forcing the Khāndeś army to retreat, advanced towards Thāḷner. Mirān Muhammad wrote pressing letters to Tufāl Khān to send assistance to fight this aggression from Gujarāt. Tufāl Khān responded favourably. On arrival of the Berār troops both the armies marched to the western frontier. On their arrival at Thāḷner they found Caṅgiz Khān strongly posted with ravines on his flanks and his artillery and carriages of all descriptions forming a barrier in his front. Mirān Muhammad avoided an attack during daylight. He reconnoitred Caṅgiz Khān's position and made every effort to induce him to quit his position. However, at night time, Caṅgiz Khān fled to Broac, leaving all his army and artillery in the hands of the combined forces. Nandurbār was immediately retaken and Mirān Muhammad occupied the territory vacated by Caṅgiz Khān. The

This time the invader could only be bought off by the surrender of the districts of Sultanpur and Nandurbar which were thus alienated from the Gujarat Saltanat in this unhappy reign." I, p. 469. The version of this episode given by *Mirat-i-Sikandari* appears to be correct because a victorious Mahmud Shah would never have agreed to the cession of these two districts to Miran Mubarak as narrated by Ferishta.

[1] *Briggs'*, IV, p. 315.

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affairs in Gujarāt had not improved much and many noblemen even refused to acknowledge the right of Muzaffar Śāh to the throne. Mirān Muhammad thought it a splendid opportunity to stake his claim to the throne of Gujarāt. He expected to get support from this faction of the nobility. He, therefore, collected a force of 30,000 horse and marched to Ahmadābād. Caṅgiz Khān, who had emerged successful in the power struggle in Gujarāt, on hearing of the attack of Mirān Muhammad, collected a force of 7,000 and assisted by the Mirzās, the cousins of Emperor Akbar who had been driven away by Emperor Akbar and had taken refuge in Gujarāt, made contact with Mirān Muhammad and inflicted a crushing defeat upon him. Mirān Muhammad retreated to Asir, leaving behind his elephants, artillery and all the royal equipage which the rulers of Khāndeś possessed.[1] The Mirzās had now become a nuisance. Not only did they carry out depredatory activities in Gujarāt but they extended their arms to Khāndeś which they invaded. Before Mirān Muhammad could collect an army sufficient to oppose them, they laid waste and levied contributions in several districts. They then quitted the province[2] in 1572. This coincided with the annexation of Gujarāt in the year 1572 by Emperor Akbar.

Shortly after this Khāndeś was engaged in a conflict with Murtazā Nizām Śāh of Ahmadnagar who had invaded Berār. Tufāl Khān of Berār had imprisoned Burhān Imād Śāh and had usurped all power. Tufāl Khān was defeated and fled to Khāndeś to seek protection from Mirān Muhammad Śāh. He, however, refused to give him asylum fearing revenge from Murtazā Nizām Śāh. Ultimately Tufāl Khān was captured and the whole of Berār was annexed to Ahmadnagar. The northward expansion of Ahmadnagar roused the suspicions of Mirān Muhammad Śāh and Ibrāhīm Kutb Śāh. A revolt in Berār encouraged Mirān Muhammad Śāh to intervene. Mirān Muhammad Śāh sent an army of 3,000 horse and seven to eight thousand infantry under the command of his minister Zainuddin[3] to Berār. It was to support the cause of a pretender, probably a scion of the Imād Śāhī family, who had taken refuge in his court. This force occupied a large portion of Berār. On hearing of this Murtazā marched in haste towards Berār. Sayyad Murtazā, his officer, who had preceded his master, having come up with the pretender at the head of eight thousand troops, had already attacked and defeated Zainuddin. Murtazā Nizām Śāh, in the meanwhile, had entered Khāndeś by the Rohankheḍā ghāṭ and laid waste the country to the very gates of Burhāṇpūr which he sacked and burnt. Mirān Muhammad Śāh shut himself up in the fortress of Asir which was invested by Caṅgiz Khān, the *Wazir* of Murtazā Nizām Śāh with 8,000 troops. Mirān Muhammad Śāh sent a detachment of his troops to cut off the rear of the besieging forces but the detachment was

[1] *Briggs'*, IV, p. 318.

[2] *Briggs'*, IV, p. 319.

[3] Sayyad Ali places the strength of the army at 20,000 troops. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 173.

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repulsed with heavy losses. Some of the officers of the Khāndeś army were taken prisoners. Murtazā Nizām Śāh then himself marched in person to Asir from whence he sent out parties to devastate the surrounding country. Mirān Muhammad Śāh was compelled to purchase peace by the payment of an indemnity of 10,00,000 *Muzaffari* coins of Gujarāt. It was only then that the Nizāmśāhī troops retired to their own country. In the year 1576 Mirān Muhammad Śāh fell sick. He died a few months later.[1]

Husain Khan.

Mirān Muhammad Śāh was succeeded by his minor son Husain Khān. But Rājā Ali Khān, the late king's brother, who was at Āgrā at the time of the death of Mirān Muhammad, hurried towards Burhāṇpūr. He was received by the nobles of the kingdom who placed him on the throne by deposing Husain Khān.[2] At this time the entire south was in the throes of an invasion from the north by Emperor Akbar who had lately annexed the kingdoms of Māḷvā and Gujarāt to his empire. In the summer of 1577 Akbar sent an expeditionary force to Khāndeś which secured the submission of Rājā Ali Khān. The importance of the submission of Rāja Ali Khān to Akbar cannot be minimised because it was a part of a grand scheme of the Delhi emperors to subjugate the entire Deccan. Between the Deccan and the Moghal empire, Khāndeś was the only political barrier. Rājā Ali Khān earnestly desired the maintenance of independence of the Deccan States. He was, however, apprehensive of their future as well as his own, due to the prevailing internecine strifes and bitter and bloody domestic feuds. These could, in the event of an imperial attack, prevent them from rendering him any active assistance. This situation forced Rājā Ali Khān to belie

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[1] The account of this estrangement between Khandesh and Ahmadnagar and the subsequent attack by Ahmadnagar on Khandesh given by Sayyad Ali does not differ substantially from the one given by Ferishta. His account is as under: Miran Muhammad was incited to attack Berar by Kutb Shah and Adil Shah who promised help. When the commander-in-chief of Khandesh marched in Berar, all the officers of Ahmadnagar except Chagtai Khan left their posts and fled to Ellichpur. Khurshid Khan, the Sarlashkar of Ahmadnagar in Berar, left for Gavilgad and from there he harassed the Khandesh army. The Khandesh army took over the Ahmadnagar troops at Nanala which it besieged and inflicted a crushing defeat upon them. The Ahmadnagar army regrouped on the banks of the Purna but had to fall back with heavy losses after being attacked by Miran Muhammad Shah. When the news of this disaster reached Murtaza Nizam Shah he marched with his general Sayyad Murtaza. This unnerved Zain-ul-Abidin, the commander of Khandesh forces, who withdrew to his own country. Miran Muhammad fled to Asir fort. Murtaza, in the meanwhile, marched to Burhanpur and completely sacked the town. Murtaza then proceeded to besiege Asir fort. On his way he defeated a contingent of Khandesh troops sent to oppose him. He devastated the entire districts of Asir and Burhanpur and marching further besieged the fort of Asir. The siege continued reducing Miran Muhammad to a miserable plight. Miran Muhammad therefore sent Khan Khanan to Murtaza Nizam Shah begging for peace. Murtaza Nizam Shah agreed to raise the siege of Asirgad and retire to his territory on condition of receiving an indemnity of 1 lakh of Muzaffari Rupees. The siege was raised and the amount was paid to Murtaza Nizam Shah after he crossed the river at Burhanpur on his way to his kingdom. (*Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 173-176).

[2] *Briggs*, IV, p. 321.

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his sympathies for the Deccan States by formally submitting to the might of Akbar. In the same year there was a rebellion in Gujarāt by one Muzaffar Husain Mirzā who occupied Nandurbār and Baroḍā. The expeditionary force stationed in Khāndeś was sent against him. It was defeated. On hearing of the news, Toḍar Mal who was at Pāṭaṇ hastened to Gujarāt and defeated the rebel. On the return of Toḍar Mal, Muzaffar Husain again raised his head and defeated Vazir Khān, the viceroy of Sarnāl. An accidental bullet shot killed Mihar Ali, Muzaffar's deputy, when Muzaffar got panicky and fled to Nandurbār. He was seized by Rājā Ali Khān and surrendered to Akbar.

In 1586 Akbar planned an invasion of Berār to reinstate a few discontented nobles of the Ahmadnagar court. They had rebelled against Salābat Khān, the prime minister, and fled to Akbar's court. Khān Āzam, the governor of Māḷvā, was ordered to attack Berār. Rājā Ali Khān now sided with Ahmadnagar and the combined forces of the two effectively cut the raiders off their base and forced Khān Āzam to beat a hasty retreat to Gujarāt. While on his way to Gujarāt, he suddenly came upon Sultānpur and Nandurbār, plundered them and retired to Māḷvā. The armies of Khāndeś and Ahmadnagar then retired to their respective territories.

In 1589 Akbar again sought the opportunity of interfering in the affairs of the Deccan. He supported Burhāṇ, the younger brother of Murtazā Nizām Śāh. The latter had been murdered and his son Husain had ascended the throne. However, Husain was also murdered in the same year and Burhāṇ's son Ismāīl was put on the throne. Burhāṇ now marched to the Deccan to depose his son and secure for himself the throne of Ahmadnagar. Akbar now wrote to Rājā Ali Khān to support Burhāṇ in his designs. After initial reverses Burhāṇ fled to Khāndeś. There he was reinforced by Rājā Ali Khān with an army. Rājā Ali Khān also sought the assistance of Ibrāhīm Ādil Śāh. Jamāl Khān, the Ahmadnagar commander, defeated the Ādilśāhī troops sent under Dilāvar Khān. He then turned to face the combined forces of Rājā Ali Khān and Burhāṇ. Jamāl Khān was, however, defeated and slain. Ismāīl Nizām Śāh was captured on the battle-field. Burhāṇ now ascended the throne of Ahmadnagar as Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh II. He immediately came to grips with Ibrāhīm Ādil Śāh for employing Dilāvar Khān, who had been disgraced by his monarch. However, the intervention of Rājā Ali Khān and Muhammad Qulī Kutb Śāh saved the situation from deteriorating further.

In 1591 Akbar sent missions to the courts of the Sultans of the Deccan. Faizī was accredited to Rājā Ali Khān of Khāndeś and to Burhāṇ Nizām Śāh II of Ahmadnagar. Faizī reported stubbornness on the part of the latter. Akbar then stationed a permanent force in Māḷvā under Murād with instructions to intervene in the Deccan affairs at the slightest provocation.

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In 1593, dispute arose between Salābat Khān, the Ahmadnagar regent and Sayyad Murtazā, the governor of Berār. An action was fought between the two near Ahmadnagar wherein the latter was defeated. Sayyad Murtazā was closely pursued. He reached Burhānpūr where he sought the help of Rājā Ali Khān who wavered in taking a decision. Growing impatient, Sayyad Murtazā sacked the town and marched towards Āgrā. Rājā Ali Khān, however, overtook Murtazā on the banks of the Narmadā and defeated him. Murtazā however, managed to escape and sought asylum with Akbar. Akbar enrolled him in his service and decided upon invading the Deccan. Rājā Ali Khān, on learning of the turn the events had taken, deputed an envoy to Akbar and presented all the elephants he had captured from Sayyad Murtazā. In the following year, however, Akbar sent Sayyad Murtazā and other Deccan chiefs to Māḷvā for the specific purpose of invading Berār. From Ahmadnagar Mirzā Muhammad Taqi was sent to oppose the invading army. When the imperial forces arrived at Haṇḍia, its commander deputed an envoy, Śāh Fathullāh Śirājī, to Rājā Ali Khān asking him to bring about accommodation with Ahmadnagar. On the other hand Mirzā Muhammad Taqi made overtures to Rājā Ali Khān inducing him to join hands with him. Rājā Ali Khān preferred to side with the Ahmadnagar forces. The combined armies arrived within two miles of the Moghal camp at Haṇḍia. But no action took place. A contingent of the Moghal army made a diversionary attack on Berār and before being contacted by the combined forces retired to Haṇḍia. The forces of Khāndeś and Ahmadnagar also retired to their respective territories.

At this time the affairs at the court of Ahmadnagar were in a state of utter confusion. With the death of Burhān Nizām Śāh II the court was divided into various factions. One of the factions led by Miyān Mañju invited Akbar to intervene. Akbar willingly accepted the invitation and sent Khān Khānān and prince Murād with a large force to subjugate the Deccan. Rājā Ali Khān was asked to join the imperial army. His sympathies lay entirely with Ahmadnagar. He sent secret messages of encouragement to the defenders of Ahmadnagar.[1] The siege lasted for a considerable time. Peace was concluded when Ahmadnagar agreed to cede Berar to the Moghals. The peace, however, did not last long. Hostilities erupted between the Moghals and Ahmadnagar. A battle was fought on 5th February 1597, at Sonpeṭ when on the first day both the wings of the imperial army were put to flight. In the left wing Rājā Ali Khān made a heroic stand. He was slain with thirty of his officers and 500 of his men. Khān Khānān made a determined stand but the imperial troops finding the left wing suddenly empty looted the Khāndeś camp. Victory ultimately declared itself for the imperialists.

1. It was chiefly through the persuasion of Khan Khanan that Raja Ali Khan declared his allegiance to Akbar; coins were struck and prayers read in Akbar's name. Khandesh was given as a grant to Raja Ali Khan and he was enrolled among the nobles of 5,000. Elliot and Dowson, VI, p. 241.

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Raja Ali Khan.

On the following day the body of Rājā Ali Khān was found on the field of battle. It was taken to Burhānpūr where he was buried with due honours.

Rājā Ali Khān was succeeded by his son Qadr Khān under the title of Bahādur Śāh. In 1599 Akbar had sent Abul Fazl from Āgrā to summon prince Murād. Abdul Fazl was received by Bahādur Khān near Burhānpūr. The meeting was far form cordial and Bahādur Khān refused to join the imperial army in person, offering a contingent of 2,000 horse under the command of his son Kabir Khān. Prince Murād, however died on May 20, 1599 and was succeeded by prince Dāniyal in command of the imperialist troops. The condition of the imperial army stationed in the Deccan was unsatisfactory. Akbar left Āgrā for Māḷvā to supervise the operations in the Deccan. Prince Dāniyal had also proceeded to take command. He arrived at Burhānpūr in January 1600. Bahādur Khān remained in the citadel and refused to come and see the prince. Akbar on hearing of this hastened to Burhānpūr, and ordered Dāniyal to proceed to Ahmadnagar. Akbar decided to deal with Bahādur Khān personally. It may be recalled here that the behaviour of the imperial troops in the battle of Sonpeṭ must have embittered Bahādur Khān against Akbar. Bahādur shut himself up in the fort of Asir and commenced preparations to defend himself. Akbar who had arrived at Burhānpūr on April 8, 1600 sent Khān Āzam to besiege Asir. He appointed Abul Fazl as governor of Khāndeś. Bahādur Khān now tried to open peace talks with Akbar perhaps with the intention of playing for time, which would force Akbar to raise the siege for want of supplies. The siege of Asir, however, progressed languidly due to the sloth and venality of some of the imperial officers. On 9th December an important outwork of the fort was carried by escalade. On December 21, 1600, Bahādur appeared before Akbar in the imperial camp and made his submission. The submission of Bahādur did not mean the submission of the fortress because Bahādur had given clear instructions to Yākut, the commander of the fortress to hold it to the last. Yākut carried these orders faithfully although his son Muqarrab Khān brought orders for the surrender of the fort from Bahādur Khān, then in the imperial camp. Yākut Khān even went to the extent of placing on the throne one of the numerous princes from the royal family imprisoned in the fort. None consented to this step. The disappointed commander exclaimed "Would to God that Ye were women", took poison and died. The fort surrendered to Akbar on January 6, 1601 and Khāndeś was thus finally annexed to the empire. Prince Dāniyal arrived in the imperial camp and was made the governor of the new province. Khāndeś was fancifully named by Akbar as Dāndeś after his son Dāniyal. Akbar then reorganised the provinces of Khāndeś and Berār. Portions of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar which had been conquered were joined to this province. These constituted the viceroyalty of the Deccan. Akbar appointed prince Dāniyal as the viceroy of the new province.

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According to European travellers, Khāndeś of which Dhulia district formed part was about this time (1585-1601) rich and well peopled, yielding in places great abundance of grain, cotton, wool, and sugar, with great markets for dry fruits, yarn, prints, calicoes, lawns, brass-ware, arms and drugs[1]. Khāndeś was called Dāndeś fondly by Akbar after it was transferred to the Government of Prince Dāniyal, a combination perhaps of Dāniyal and Khāndeś.[2] It formed a province 150 miles (70 *kos*) from east to west and 100 miles from north to south. It was bounded on the north by Māḷvā, on the east by Berār, on the south by Gāḷnā and on the west by Māḷvā to which the districts of Nandurbār, including Śahādā and Taḷodā were handed over.[2a] It contained 32 sub-divisions yielding a yearly revenue of £ 75,885. [3], [3a], [3b], [3c].

Besides these, the Nandurbār district, with seven sub-divisions and area of 667, 203 acres (859, 604 *bighas*) yielded a large additional revenue of £ 125, 405 (501, 62, 250 *dams*) and furnished 500 cavalry and 6,000 infantry. The winter was temperate, the air delightful and the rivers and streams abundant. The 32 sub-divisions were all in high cultivation. The husbandmen, Kunbis, Bhils and Gonds were dutiful subjects and very hard workers. The chief product was Indian millet, *jvārī*, which in several places yielded three crops a year. Rice was excellent, the vegetables remarkably fine, betel-leaf abundant, and flowers and fruits plentiful.[4] Of manufactures there were different kinds of fine and ordinary cotton cloth[5]. Of cities there were: Burhānpūr, a large city inhabited by people of all

[1] The travellers were Ralph Fitch and Newberry (1585) Jangigny's *Inde*, 384, and Salbank (1601) in Harris, I, 98.

[2] Blochmann's *Ain-i-Akbari*, I, 336. Copper coins called *Don Paisa* coined in Burhanpur were in 1818 still found in Khandesh. Mr. Crawlay-Boevey, C.S.

[2a]. It has already been mentioned that in the troubled times that followed the death of Sultan Muhammad Shah of Gujarat, Nandurbar and Sultanpur were invaded and taken by Changiz Khan of Gujarat. In the arrangements made by Akbar about the close of the century it appears that these districts were taken from Khandesh and made over to the province of Malwa.

[3] After the conquest of Asir, this revenue was increased by 50 per cent. The *Tankah* or *tungahs* is reckoned at 24 *dams*. The total is, therefore, 455, 294, 232 *Akbari dams* (Rs. 1,13,82,355·84 naye paise) Jarret, *Ain-i-Akbari*, II, 225. Hamilton, *Descriptions* of *Hindostan*, II, 95.

[3a]. 1, 26, 47, 602 *tungahs*.

[3b]. *Ain-i-Akbari*, II. 230. The sub-divisions were Asir, Atral, Erandol, Punetgong, Baryre, Purmal (to the west of Burhanpur) Purmal (to the south-east of Burhanpur) *,*, Bhamer, Jamod, Jasir, Chandsir, Jalod, Javere, Dangri, Damri; Raver, Rattanpur, Savda, Mahil, Sakadgang, Nebad, Nasir-Shamshad, Laling, Sanderti, Edlabad, Lohara, Manjrud and Nasirabad.

[3c]. It's length from Borgaon (Poorgaon) which adjoins Hindiah to Lalang (Lelang) which is on the borders of the territory of Ahmadnagar is 75 *kos*. Its breadth from Jamod adjoining Berar to Pal which borders Malwa is 50 and in some parts only 25 *kos*. On its east is Berar; to the north Malwa, to the south Galnah (Galna); to the west, the southern chains of the mountains of Malwah.

[4] Khandesh is specially mentioned as one of the best mango districts. Blochmann's *Ain-i-Akbari*, 68.

[5] Fine stuff called *abastch* and ordinary cotton cloth known as *siriaf* and *bhiraun*. See Blochmann's *Ain-i-Akbari* 68.

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nations abounding in handicrafts; Asir a large city at the foot of the fort; Copḍā a large town well peopled; Dāmburṇī, a populous town; and Edlābād, a good town.[1] Thāḷner was for a time the capital of the Fāruqī princes. The fort though situated on the plains was nevertheless of great strength. Scarcely any land was out of cultivation and many of the villages resembled towns. The peasantry was docile and industrious. The provincial force was formed of Koḷis, Bhils and Gonds. Some of these could tame lions so that they would obey their commands and strange tales were told about them.[2]

Salbank in 1609 also mentions Nizāmpūr, the headquarters of a petty division and calls it Nabox, a place with exports of grain, cotton, wool and where sugar grew in great abundance.

The transfer of Nandurbār to Māḷvā, however, does not seem to have lasted for a long time, because in 1609 Nandurbār, Netherheri, is mentioned amongst Khāndeś towns as dealing in brassware, suits of armour, berries drugs, pintadoes or calicoes, cotton, yarn, wool and coarse cloth. It was rich in musk-melons and grapes.[3]

For the first thirty years, though without much regular fighting or open opposition, the district was unsettled and declining. In April 1605 Dāniyal died of delirium tremens at Burhāṇpūr. Akbar who was deeply grieved on the death of his son died shortly afterwards on 25th-26th October 1605. He was succeeded by his son Salim under the title of Jahāṅgir. Soon after his accession Jahāṅgirs' attention was drawn to the events in the Deccan. Malik Ambar had set up a ruler named Murtazā Nizām Śāh II as king of Ahmadnagar and put up stout resistance to the Moghals. Khān Khānān, the Moghal general, failed to subdue him and had to return to Burhāṇpūr, the provincial capital, after effecting a compromise with Malik Ambar. In 1609 (February) the English merchant Hawkins travelling from Surat to Burhāṇpūr, even with an escort of about sixty Pathāṇ horse was attacked by a troops of outlaws.[4] He reached Burhāṇpūr on 8th February 1609 and next day saw Chan Channa (Khān Khānān), the lord general and viceroy of the Deccan.[5] Next year (January-February 1610) the viceroy had been defeated by the people of the Deccan and the country was disturbed. The roads were not safe for bodies of less than 1,000 horses. The Deccanis made inroads to the Tāpī plundering the people and sacking Rāver and other towns.[6] The places mentioned are Nizāmpūr, a large town under Pratāpśāh of Bāglāṇ[7]; Dayta, a great town in a fertile soil; Badur, a filthy

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[1] Gladwin's *Ain-i-Akbari*, II, 51-54.

[2] Jarret, II, 224; Gladwin, I, 342, 343.

[3] It may be mentioned here that after its capture by the Moghals, Burhanpur remained the headquarters of the Deccan provinces till in 1635 the seat of the government was moved to Khadki afterwards called Aurangabad.

[4] Kerr's *Voyages*, VIII, 229.

[5] Foster, *Early Travels in India*, 80, 129.

[6] Finch in Kerr's *Voyages*, VIII, 280.

[7] The province of Baglan still maintained its independence. The chief's head-quarters were at Jaitapur near Mulher and he levied tolls on all passing through his territory.

town with a manufacture of *mohā* wine; Sāler and Muler, two fair cities where Mahmudis worth about 1 s. were coined. Nandurbār, a city with many tombs and houses of pleasure, a castle, and a fair pond; Lingal, a beastly town with thievish people and a dirty castle; Sindkheḍā, a great dirty town; Thāḷner, a fair town with a castle; Copḍā a great town; Rāver, a country village; Bival, a lagre town with good castle and Burhāṇpūr, a very large but beastly city with a fine garden, banquet house, and castle;[1] and Bahadurpūr, a fair city and between Bahadurpūr and Burhāṇpūr the camp of Khān Khānān with 15,000 horse, 200 fair elephants and hundred pieces of ordnance of all sizes.[2]

On the other side within 20 or 30 kos. lay Amber Chapon (Malik Ambar), an Abashed (Abyssinian) and general of the king of Deccan forces with some ten thousand Decanees; in so much that the city of Burhāṇpūr had certainly been lost had not the prince Sultān Perviz and Rājā Mānsiṅg come instantly down with great forces. For at this time he had sent to Khān Khānān to yield up the city upon composition, deeming him not able to hold it against him. This city is very great but beastly, situated in a low, unwholesome air, a very sickly place caused especially by bad water.[3]

Khān Khānān was recalled due to his failure against Malik Ambar. Khān Jahān was appointed in his place in 1610 under the overall command of Prince Perviz with Asaf Khān as his tutor. Khān Āzam, and in 1611, Abdulla Khan were also sent to the Deccan as reinforcements. On 12th February 1610 William Finch rode to visit prince Perviz and on the 13th gave him presents. He found him courteous. The prince had 20,000 horse and 300 fair elephants and with him were Asaf Khān (Jafar Beg) with 3,000 soldiers and Mirzā Rustom with some 1,000 soldiers. Rājā Mānsiṅg, too had joined with 10,000 Rajputs and 1,000 elephants.[4] The Moghals now planned an enveloping movement in which Khān Jahān and Rājā Mānsiṅg were to take the left or eastern side through Khāndeś and Berār while Abdullā Khān was to advance from the West. The concerted move, however, did not come off as Abdullā Khān did not keep contact with Mānsiṅg. The Marāṭhā skirmishers harrassed him and he had to retreat to Gujarāt with heavy losses.

In 1615 Sir Thomas Roe visited India as an ambassador from the king of England. He entered the kingdom of Pratāpśāh on 3rd November 1615. He was at Navāpūr on 4th, at Dhatia on 5th, at Nandurbār on 6th, at Liṅgull on 7th, at Sindkheḍā on 8th, at Thāḷner on 9th and at Copḍā on 10th. He found the country unsettled. Travellers when they stopped for the night made a ring fence of their carts and pitched their tents inside. On any suspicion of danger

[1] Finch in Kerr's *Voyages*, VIII, 279.
[2] Terry mentions that adjoining to this province lived a petty prince called Pratapshah, tributary to the Moghal and that was the most southernmost part of all his territories—Terry Edward, *A Voyage to East Indies*, 85.
[3] Foster...*Early Travels in India* (William Finch, 1608-1611) pp. 138-139.
[4] Foster, 139.

the local governor provided a special guard of horse.[1] The west districts were full of cattle, the east miserable and barren. The towns and villages were built of mud and even Burhāṇpūr though with trade enough to attract an English factory, and described[2] as very great, rich and full of people, was, except for the houses of the viceroy, the commander-in-chief and a few others, entirely of mud cottages.[3] About the rural parts Terry writes, "The villages stand very thick, but the houses are generally poor and base. All these country dwellings are set close together; none stands singly and alone. Some of the houses have earth walls mixed with straw set up just after the rains and having a long season to dry, stand firm; they are built low and many of them flat. Most of the cottages are miserably poor, little and base, built with very little charge, set up with sticks rather than timber, so that if they chance to fire, they may for very little be reedified".[4] Sir Thomas Roe saw prince Perviz on 18th November 1615 and gave him presents. The English received a *farmān* from prince Perviz on 30th November to establish a factory at Burhāṇpūr.[5]

Prince Perviz was in the Deccan for well over seven years but made very little progress in his Deccan campaigns. In 1616, Jahāṅgir replaced him by appointing prince Khurram to the viceroyalty of the Deccan. He settled the affairs of the Deccan more effectively than his brother had done. He made peace with Malik Ambar and Ibrāhīm Ādil Śāh II of Bijāpūr. The peace, however, was short-lived and Malik Ambar became active again. He forced the Moghals to fall back upon Burhāṇpūr. The defeat of the Moghals was more due to quarrels among their generals than to lack of preparations. Jahāṅgir sent reinforcements with the help of which the Marāṭhā bands were scattered. The Moghals penetrated as far south as Khirki (1620). In this critical situation Malik Ambar sued for peace. It was readily granted. Khurram, now entitled, Śāh Jahān, returned to Burhānpūr and occupied himself in reorganising the administration which had been dislocated by two years of continuous warfare.

In 1623 Śāh Jahān rebelled against his father. He moved to the Deccan, hotly pursued by imperial troops. Malik Ambar refused asylum to him and he could not secure substantial assistance from Qutb Śāh of Golconḍā. Śāh Jahān was forced to flee towards the eastern provinces from where by taking a circuitous route he again returned to the Deccan. Malik Ambar now offered to help him. With the assistance rendered by Malik Ambar, Śāh Jahān attacked Burhāṇpūr. He was, however, forced to fall back on Berār, with the arrival of prince Perviz and Mahābat Khān. The helpless Śāh Jahān

[1] Terry's *Voyages*, 162.
[2] Terry's *Voyages*, 80.
[3] Roe in Kerr's *Voyages*, IX, 256-57.
[4] Terry's *Voyages*, 179-80.
[5] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 363-64.

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now sought the pardon of his father. It was granted on condition of his ceding the forts of Rohṭas in Bihār and Asir in Khāndeś and on his agreeing to send his two sons Dārā and Auraṅgzeb to the court.

In 1626 Malik Ambar died. His death relieved to a great extent the pressure on the Moghals in the Deccan. Śāh Jahān, after his submission had stayed in the Deccan. In the meanwhile Perviz had died in October 1626 and Khān Jahān was in supreme commands of the Deccan affairs. He surrendered a large portion of Moghal territory including Ahmadnagar and the southern tableland of Berār in consideration of a large gift in money from the Ahmadnagar minister Hamid Khān. In November 1627 Jahāṅgir died and was succeeded by his son Śāh Jahān. He forgave Khān Jahān for his treacherous conduct and appointing him to the viceroyalty of the Deccan, ordered him to recover Bālāghāṭ which he had surrendered in the previous reign.[1] Soon after the beginning of Śāh Jahān's reign Khāndeś suffered from the two-fold calamity of war and famine. Khān Jahān who did not carry out the instructions of Śāh Jahān to recover Bālāghāṭ was recalled and Mahābat Khān was appointed in his place as the viceroy of the Deccan He was represented by his son Khān Zamān. Khān Jahān, suspecting that he had lost the trust of the emperor, fled from Āgrā with a large body of troops and made his way to the Deccan. The imperial power now held only east Khāndeś and part of Berār. Khān Jahān was pursued by imperial troops, but he escaped to Daulatābād. He was well received by the king and entrusted with the task of conquering the territory actually held by the Moghals. So serious was the revolt of Khān Jahān that Śāh Jahān took the field in person. In 1629 a Moghal force invaded Bālāghāṭ but was defeated by Khān Jahān. Śāh Jahān now thought of a concerted action against the rebel. On his way to the Deccan he halted at Burhāṇpūr and sent three armies into the hostile territory. One force under Khwājā Abul Hasan was sent west to Dhulia to command the route for supplies from Gujarāt and to threaten Ahmadnagar from the west. The main army was concentrated at Deulgāṅv in the south of Berār, ready when the time came to attack from the north east. A third force was sent towards Telaṅgaṇa. Abul Hasan had a detachment of 8,000 horse under him. He was sent to take Nāśik, Trimbak and Saṅgamner. They passed the rainy season in the village of Dhulia near Lāling fort. After the rains, they were joined by Śer Khān, governor of Gujarāt, with 26,000 men who attacked Bātorā near Cāndūr, ravaged the country and returned with great spoils. While Śer Khān was engaged at Cāndūr, Khwājā Abul Hasan at the conclusion of rains, marched from the vicinity of the fort of Lāliṅg and entered Bāglāṇ. Finding that all the people had left their villages and fled to the hills, he sent troops after them. Corn

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[1] It may be noted that when Shah Jahan on hearing of his father's death left for the north, Khan Jahan was opposed to him. Shah Jahan, therefore, made a detour through Gujarat. Later before Shah Jahan assumed royalty Khan Jahan still believing that Shahryar or Dawar Baksh was more likely to succeed, left a small garrison at Burhanpur and marched to seize Mandu. He, however, offered submission when Shah Jahan ascended the throne.

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and other necessaries were collected and many of the enemy killed or taken prisoners. In the east; Daryā Khān, one of the rebel nobles with a force of Afghāṇs attempted a diversion and marched towards Cāndūr and the ghāṭ of Cāḷisgāṅv with the intention of attacking Eraṇḍol, Dharaṇgāṅv and other places. Passing into Khāndeś by Cāḷisgāṅv, he ravaged the country.[1]

These losses were followed by a total failure of rains over the whole country from Ahmadābād to Daulatābād, lands famed for their richness became utterly barren, life was offered for a loaf but none would buy, rank for a cake but none cared for it; the overbounteous hand was stretched out to beg and the rich wandered in search of food. Dog's flesh was sold, and the pounded bone of the dead was mixed with flour. The flesh of a son was preferred to his love. The dying blocked the roads and those who survived fled. Food houses were opened at Burhāṇpūr. Every day soup and bread were distributed and each Monday Rs. 5,000 were given to the deserving poor. The emperor and the nobles granted remissions of revenue.

In 1634 Khāndeś was made into a *subhā* and included the present district of Khāndeś as far as Gāḷṇā. The districts of Sultānpūr and Nandurbār had formerly been joined to Māḷvā. The country south of Khāndeś as far as Bhīmā was made into a separate *subhā* of which Daulatābād was the head. Both governments were in 1636 united under Auraṅgzeb. "The country now under prince Auraṅgzeb contains sixty-four forts, fifty-three of which are situated on hills, the remaining eleven are in the plains. It is divided into four *subhās* (1) Daulatābād, with Ahmadnagar and other districts, (2) Telaṅgaṇa situated in the *subhā* of Bālāghāṭ, (3) Khāndeś, with capital at Burhāṇpūr, and (4) Berār with capital at Ellicpūr. The whole of the third province and a part of the fourth is in the Pāyinghāt. The *jama* or total revenue of the four provinces is two *arb* of *dāms* equivalent to five crores of rupees" Prince Auraṅgzeb was now directed to subjugate Bāglāṇ, a task which he accomplished successfully in 1638. The Moghal power was now much more firmly established in Nāśik and West Khāndeś. During the years of peace which followed, Śāh Jahān introduced into Khāndeś Todar Mal's famous revenue settlement. The land was measured, the produce of each *bighā* ascertained and the proportion to be paid to government settled for each field. This assessment long known in Khāndeś as *tankhā*, continued to be the nominal standard till the introduction of British rule. At this time and till the close of the seventeeth century, the presence of large bodies of troops and of the courts of the emperor and many of his nobles, together with the centering of trade along routes that led through Khāndeś to Surat, greatly enriched the province.[1] During the second viceroyalty of prince Auraṅgzeb a complete reorganisation of the revenue system

[1] Ball, *Travels in India by Jean-Baptiste Tavernier*, I, 30.

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of the Deccan provinces was undertaken. The work was entrusted to an officer named Murśid Quali Khān who was appointed *Dīwān* of Daulatābād and Telaṅgaṇa and later placed in charge of Berār and Khāndeś also. The lenient assessment was accompanied by active measures to repeople and reorganise the ruined villages and capital was advanced when required with the result that prosperity was for the time being restored.

Bernier (1656-1658) mentions that Candeys (Khāndeś) had three *Sirkārs*, Burhānpūr as the chief town and three hundred *paraganās*, yielding Rs. 1,85,50,000 annually.[1] According to Jean Baptiste Tavernier between Navāpūr and Burhāṇpūr was all a good country for wheat, rice and indigo ..... The government of this province was so important that it was conferred only upon a son or an uncle of the emperor. There was a considerable trade in this town (Burhāṇpūr) and both at Burhāṇpūr itself and in all the provinces an enormous quantity of very transparent muslins were made which were exported to Persia, Turkey, Muscovie, Poland, Arabia, Grand Cairo and other places. Some of these were dyed in various colours and ornamented with flowers and women made veils and scarfs of them. They also served for the covers of bed and for handkerchieves, such as were seen in Europe with those who took snuff. There were other fabrics which were allowed to remain white with a strip or two of gold or silver running the whole length of the piece and at each of the ends from the breadth of one inch upto twelve or fifteen in some more, and in others less it is a tissue of gold, silver, and of silk with flowers and there is no reverse, one side being as beautiful as the other. There was hardly another province in the whole of India which had a greater abundance of cotton. The middle of the seventeenth century was the time of the highest posperity for this province.[2]

During the period intervening between the first viceroyalty of prince Auraṅgzeb in the Deccan and the end of his second viceroyalty there were no events of political importance to the Moghal possession of Khāndeś. Śāh Jahān was desirous of maintaining peaceful relations with the kingdoms of Bijāpūr and Golconḍā and of allowing them to exist. Auraṅgzeb desired otherwise. If the subsequent events after the imprisonment of Śāh Jahān were any indication to his attitude, it must have been the restricting attitude of Śāh Jahān that prevented Auraṅgzeb from annexing these two kingdoms during his tenure of viceroyalty. Auraṅgzeb, therefore, did not interfere with these kingdoms after Śāh Jahān had imposed his own arrangements upon them. This period saw the rise of the Marāṭhā power under the leadership of Śivājī who had

[1] Francois Bernier, *Travels in the Mogul Empire*, 458; Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 5.

[2] Jean Baptiste Tavernier took the following course, in his travel—From Navapur to Nandurbar, 9*cos*; Dol Medan, 14*cos*; Sindkheda, 7*cos*; Thalner, 10*cos*; Chopra, 15*cos*; Senquelis (Sankli), 13*cos*; Nabir (Raver), 10*cos*; Belleda, 9*cos*; at Belkda loaded carts had to pay Burhanpur *customs* but the carts which carried only passengers paid nothing.

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carved out a separate principality from the remains of the fallen kingdom of Ahmadnagar and from annexing large chunks from the Bijāpūr territory.

Śivājī wisely avoided measuring swords with the Moghals initially and though prince Auraṅgzeb recognised the potential danger from Śivājī, he did not interfere with his activities. In 1656 Auraṅgzeb attacked Golconḍā but had to withdraw under orders from Śāh Jahān. In the same year, under the pretext that Ali Ādil Śāh who had succeeded Muhammad Ādil Śāh was not in the true line of succession, Auraṅgzeb attacked Bijāpūr. Auraṅgzeb however had to patch up a hasty compromise with Bijāpūr when he heard of his father's illness. He decided to proceed to the north.

Auraṅgzeb

Auraṅgzeb succeeded in the contest for the crown and assumed royalty after deposing his father. The assumption of royalty by Auraṅgzeb changed the entire course of the political history of the Deccan. His object was to destroy the kingdoms of Bijāpūr and Golconḍā, crush the rising power of the Marāthās and annex the whole of the Deccan. Though for the first twenty-five years of his reign the attention of Auraṅgzeb was mainly centred in the north, he ceaselessly tried to extend his hegemony over the Deccan. In this he was naturally confronted by the power of the Deccan Sultāns and by that of the Marāthās. From 1658 to 1660 Śivājī consolidated his gains from Bijāpūr.[1] In 1660 Auraṅgzeb sent Śayasta Khan against Śivājī with a strong Moghal army which occupied Pooṇā and took the fort of Cākan. Śāyastā Khān, was in Pooṇā for over three years when in 1663 Śivājī surprised him in a night attack. He was recalled by Auraṅgzeb and in his place Jai Siṅgh was appointed to punish Śivājī. In 1664 Śivājī sacked the rich city of Surat unchecked, its cowardly governor having fled away without any attempt at resistance. The Moghal forces from Khāndeś arrived before Surat a week after Śivājī had left that place and found it completely devastated.

Jai Siṅgh arrived in Deccan in 1665 and by skilful strategy forced Śivājī to submit to the Moghals. Śivāji ceded 23 forts to the Moghals and promised to serve with them by sending a contingent of 5,000 horse. He paid a visit to Āgrā in 1666. He skilfully escaped from the detention of Auraṅgzeb and safely reached the Deccan. For the next three years he was quietly making preparations and regrouping his forces. In 1670 he broke out again. He plundered Berār and carried raids in Moghal territory. In the same year he appeared before Surat

[1] "But the most remarkable circumstance of this expedition was the exaction of a writing from the village authorities on his route, in which they promised to pay to Sevagee or his officers, one fourth of the yearly revenue due to government. Regular receipts were promised on the part of Sivajee, which should not only exempt them from pillage but assure them protection. Hence we may date the first imposition of Mahratta *Chauth* on a province immediately subject to the Moghals" Dr. Balkrishna, I, part II, 282, 299.

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on 3rd October and caused the sack of that city for the second time. Then followed a period of the most daring and far ranging raids into the Moghal provinces of Bāglāṇ, Auraṅgābād, Khāndeś and Berār. Early in December he himself traversed Khāndeś capturing some forts of the Bāglāṇ district on the way. His general Pratāprāv Gujar plundered Bahādarpurā, a suburb of Burhāṇpūr and quickly passing into Berār plundered the rich city of Karanjā.[1] For the first time the Marāṭhās demanded the payment of one fourth of the revenue *cauth.*[2] From this time the west was often disturbed by the Marāṭhā-Moghal conflicts, and by the exactions of the Marāthās who established themselves among the western hills.

John Trotter, an English gunner in the Moghal service in his letter to Surat from Auraṅgābād also informs that Śivājī taking advantage of the quarrel between Prince Muazzam and Diler Khān sent his cavalry on plundering expeditions as far as Berār. The booty of one town alone amounted to a crore of rupees, but it was still further augmented by the plunder of other rich places in the *Jagir* of Prince Muazzam.[3] When Śivājī was busy in Berār and Khāndeś, his *Peśvā*, Moropant Piṅgle, entered Bāglāṇ wresting Trimbak and other forts from the Moghals. He then entered West Khāndeś *via* Mulher and levied contributions right up to the fort of Sālher. The fort of Sālher was captured by the Marāṭhās after a stiff battle. Auraṅgzeb now realised the gravity of the situation and appointed his veteran general Mahābat Khān in supreme command for operations against Śivājī. He was assisted by Dāud Khān, Diler Khān, Bahādur Khān, Jasvant

[1] In 1660 Khandesh was regarded as one of the few rich parts of the Moghal empire. Its revenue amounted to more than Rs. 2,70,00,000. The ways were safely guarded and it was full of villages and well peopled towns. Probably no part of India was richer in cotton, rice and indigo and in many places were sugarcane plantations with mills and furnaces to make sugar. At Burhanpur the cloth trade was as great as in any part of India. The costly white clothes used by the rich as veils, scarfs, and kerchiefs were in special favour from the beautiful blending of silver and gold, Thevenots Voyages (1666), V, 212, 216. These reports of the great richness of Khandesh probably really refer only to the well watered west and to the rich Tapi valley. Ogilby's (1676) Account (Atlas, V, 236-278), that though pleasant and fruitful near the Tapi, Khandesh was in most parts barren, unwholesome, sandy and dry, seems more likely to be correct. Even in the rich parts, according to Bernier (Letters, Bombay Edition, III, 71), the ground was tilled almost by force and consequently very ill tilled, and the weavers were wretchedly poor. It was no small thing wherewith to live and clothe themselves narrowly.

[2] "The news of the town is that Sevagee hath passed by Brampore upon Rajah Jeswansing's forbidding him to come there for which said Rajah hath received two or three laks of rupees of the kings treasure there and Sevagee marched to Corringa (Karanja) a rich town further in the country; which he hath very severely plundered and carried all the men of note in it, but one of the most eminent men of all who escaped in woman's apparel. From the other towns and villages, in the country thereabout and near Nandraband he hath taken writings that they will pay him ¼ part (Chauth) of the revenues there" Dr. Balkrishna 282 *cft. F. R. Surat*, Vol. 105, *Fol.*, 93 from Surat, 19th December 1670.

[3] Dr. Balkrishna, 283-85 *cft. F. R. Surat*, Vol. 105, *Fol.* 150, 151 Aurangabad, 20th December 1670.

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Siṅgh and other Moghal and Rajput officers of renown. Their concerted moves, however, failed to have any impression on Śivājī. Auraṅgzeb suspected a secret understanding between Mahābat Khān and Śivājī. He recalled Mahābat Khān and appointed Bahādur Khān and Diler Khān in his place.[1] A Moghal force under Ikhlās Khān laid siege to Sālher in 1672. Bahādur Khān and Diler Khān, came suddenly upon Pooṇā. Pratāp Rāv, Anand Rāv Makājī, Moropant Piṅgle and other Marāthā commanders played havoc in Khāndeś and signally defeated Ikhlās Khān in front of Sālher. Bahādur Khān and Diler Khān had to hurry towards Bāglān. In 1674 Śivājī was crowned king at Rāyagaḍ. In the following year Śivājī led an expedition through Bāglāṇ, Khāndeś and Berār plundering the Moghal territory right from Auraṅgābād northward. Among other places, Śivājī pillaged and burnt the English factory at Dharaṇgāṅv near Eraṇḍol. He sacked and burned the great marts of Copḍā and Dharaṇgāṅv, two of the most flourishing places in the district. One detachment of his army pushed to the walls of Burhānpur, plundering all the opulent marts of cloth between Burhānpūr and Auraṅgābād.[2]

Coronation of Shivaji.

In the beginning of December 1679, Śivājī set off from Rairee (Rāyagaḍ) with a chosen body of horse and suddenly appeared in the country between Auraṅgābād and Burhāṇpūr. Dongong (Dharaṇgāṅv) where the English had factors, Chupra (Copḍā) and other great marts were again plundered and Burhānpūr shut its gates. At the same time, Morah Pundit (Moropandit) with another body of horse, plundered along the western side of the mountains.[3]

Sambhaji.

The death of Śivājī in 1680 did little to restore peace in the region.[4] His son Sambhājī succeeded him to the throne and declared his intention to fight out the Moghal menace. He proclaimed his support to

[1] Bhimsen Saxena in his *Tarike Dilkusha* states that the Marathas had twice ravaged the district of Khandesh. In order to prevent further Maratha incursions into Khandesh and Berar Bahadur Khan decided to protect the entrances through the ghats by raising ramparts thereabout. He built such ramparts at Fardapur, Tondapur, Malkapur, Bararpuri Rajder, Lakhanwada, Mauge, Devgaon, Rajura and Dilerpur and appointed a *Faujdar* to each place.

Bhimsen further states that at this time Aurangzeb appointed Rai Makrand as the Faujdar of Nandurbar. He was, however, ordered to remain in the camp of Bahadur Khan and send a deputy to Nandurbar. Accordingly he sent Gangaram Nagar as his deputy to Nandurbar. Gangaram managed the affairs over there extremely well. He punished the rebel *zamindars*, forced them to pay tribute and collected the land revenue as fixed by the government. After some time Rai Makrand went over to Nandurbar and stayed there for a few days and returned. On receiving orders from his Majesty to proceed again to Nandurbar, he went there, where shortly afterwards he died. Bahadur Khan recalled Gangaram and instructed him to confiscate the estates of Rai Makrand. But not much was found as expected by Bahadur Khan. Bahadur Khan absorbed Gangaram in his service.

[2] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 47.

[3] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 84-85; Dr. Balkrishna, 360 *cf.* F.R. Surat, Vol. IV, p. 105.

[4] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 84, 143.

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Akbar, the rebel son of Auraṅgzeb, and promised to accompany him to Burhāṇpūr with 30,000 troops and there would proclaim him emperor of the Moghals.[1] Akbar had journeyed through Khāndeś and Bāglāṇ and descended into north Koṅkaṇ arriving at Pālī on 1st June 1681. Auraṅgzeb sent his other son Āzam with a large army into the Deccan in pursuit of Akbar, and himself followed him. Early in 1681 Sambhājī fell upon Bahādurpūr about three miles east of Burhāṇpūr, a rich place with many bankers and merchants. Jewels, money and goods from all parts of the world were found there in abundance. He surrounded and attacked this place and also another town called Hafdapurā which was outside the fortifications and his attack was so sudden and unexpected especially upon Bahādurpūr that no one was able to save a *dām* or a *dirām* of his property or a single one of his wife and children. The imperial general Makar Khān and his men saw the smoke of the town rising to the sky but he was not strong enough to attack the plunderers, so he shut himself up within Burhāṇpūr and looked after the security of its gates and defences. Seventeen other places of note in the neighbourhood of the city all wealthy and flourishing were plundered and burnt. Auraṅgzeb arrived in Burhāṇpūr on 13th November 1681. He moved to Auraṅgabād on 22nd March 1682. Knowing that Sambhājī and his rebel son would work their way to the north through northern Koṅkaṇ and Gujarāt he had sent his general Śihāb-ud-din Khān with Dalpat Bundelā in that direction. Nothing was achieved by the Moghals in 1682 and 1683 and he recalled his officers to his side in April 1683. Auraṅgzeb opened up a new offensive in 1684 and sent an army in Khāndeś. The Moghal army then passed to the south. No sooner were the Moghals gone than in 1685 Sambhājī overran and plundered the whole district, and retired ravaging the country along the base of the Sātmāḷā hills towards Nāśik. "In January 1685 ten thousand horse set off from Rāyagaḍ under four generals and ravaged the Country as far as Burhāṇpūr, with more than ordinary haste and devastation. The English factors at Dharaṇgāṅv had but two hours to escape and every house in the town was either pillaged or burnt. The whole country was in flames. Auraṅgzeb sent 6,000 horse from Ahmadnagar under the command of Bahādur Khān, who never came within six days of the pursuit. He soon after sent his son Kām Bakṣ with 12,000 more, to command at Brampore (Burhāṇpūr); which was his first establishment in public business.[2]

Capture of Sambhaji.

After his daring raids into Khāndeś, Sambhājī returned to Panhālā. Auraṅgzeb marched to his conquest of Bijāpūr and Goḷconḍā. The kingdom of Bijāpūr fell in 1686 and Goḷconḍā capitulated in 1687. Auraṅgzeb was now free to deal with Sambhāji. Sambhājī was captured on 1st February 1689 at Saṅgameśvar and cruelly executed at Koregāṅv on 11th March 1689. The death of Sambhājī did not dampen the spirit of the Marāṭhā State. The people rose to the occasion and carried a ceaseless struggle against the emperor

[1] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 106.

[2] Orme, *Historical Fragments*, 143-44.

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ultimately leading to his withdrawal and death in 1707. For twenty years the struggle went on. Forts were taken and retaken and from time to time the Marāṭhās spread over the country burning and pillaging the Moghal territory.

After the death of Sambhājī in 1689 Rājāram, his brother, assumed power at Rāyagad. The Moghal general Zulpikār Khān besieged Rāyagad from where Rājārām made good his escape first to Panhālā and then to Jiñjī. The conflict between the Moghals and the Marāṭhās now shifted to Jiñjī in the south, which was besieged by Zulpikār Khān in 1690 after the fall of Rāyagaḍ in 1689. The Marāthās under the leadership of Santājī, Dhanājī Rāmcandrapant and other Marāṭhā officers inflicted crushing defeats upon the Moghals. "In 1697 Nima Sindhia (Nemājī Śinde) and other officers of Rāma Rājā with an army of 8,000 horse came to the district of Nandurbār and attacked and burned several villages. When he heard that Husain Ali Khān[1] was approaching from Thāḷner, he suspended his operations against Nandurbār and went to meet him. Husain Khān had only seven or eight hundred horse and two or three thousand provincial musketeers and archers, but he went forth to meet Nima Sindhia. The number of Sindhia's forces enabled him to surround Husain Ali Khān about three hundred of whose men were killed. The day went against Hussain Ali. He received two or three wounds. Dripping with blood he threw himself from his elephant, but he had no strength left for fighting. He was surrounded and made prisoner. All his baggage, his men, and elephants were captured. In addition to the cash which the Marāṭhās had got by plunder, they fixed two lakhs of rupees as the price of the ransom of the prisoners. After much exertion, nearly 1,80,000 rupees were raised from the *Jāgirs* and from the property which had been left in the town of Thāḷner. To make up the balance, the *sarāfs* and merchants of Nandurbār were importuned to raise a sum, small or great by way of loan. But they would not consent. The inhabitants of the town of Nandurbār had not paid the *cauth* to the Marāthās and being supported by the *faujdārs*, they had closed their gates which had greatly annoyed the Marāṭhās. Husain Ali Khān was also greatly incensed by their refusal to assist him; so he took counsel with the Marāthās and agreed that after a siege of a day or two and some exhibition of force, he would open the gates to them. He made it a condition that the *rayats* should not be plundered but that the great and wealthy men, the *sarāfs*, the merchants and the *mukādams* might be put to the rack and tortured until the balance of the ransom due to the Marāṭhās was discharged. The result was that a sum of 1,40,000 rupees was paid to the Marāṭhās instead of 80,000. Husain Ali Khān himself realised 30,000 rupees. When this (the result of the action) was reported to Auraṅgzeb, he was very angry and said that there was no use in fighting when one was too weak to win".[2] While speaking about

[1] He later became the prime minister of the Moghal empire under the title Sayyad Abdullah.

[2] Elliot—VII, 362-63.

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the Marāṭhās, Khāfī Khān says "with large armies they invaded the *Subhās* of Deccan and Ahmadābād and Māḷvā for the purpose of collecting the *Cauth* and they plundered and ravaged wherever they went ..... when the *fauzdārs* or *zamindārs* of a place refused to pay the *Cauth* and made no proposition, the Mahrattas attacked the place and thoroughly ravaged it. If after investing a place for some days, they found themselves unable to take it, they moved away."

In this way the towns of Nandurbār, Sultānpūr and Jāmud and many other well-known towns of Burhānpūr, Berār and other Subhās of the Deccan were invested by 28,000 horsemen for two or three weeks who were finally beaten off.[1]

Towards the end of the reign of Auraṅgzeb, Rāṇī Tārābāī widow of Rājārām kept up the struggle with the emperor till the latter's death.

Munim Khān Auraṅgābādī in his work *Savāneh Dakkan* gives the following details of the province of Khāndeś under the Moghals. It consisted of six districts or *Śirkās* as they were known then. (1) Asir, (2) Bāglāṇ, (3) Bijāgarh, (4) Haṇḍia, (5) Nandurbār and (6) Gāḷṇā. The district of Asir with headquarters at Burhāṇpūr covered the major part of Khāndeś. Under the Moghals, Nandurbār was a separate district. The province of Khāndeś, excluding the districts of Bijāgarh and Haṇḍia, now in Madhya Pradeś, was composed of 74 *Mahāls* with Asir (excluding Asir and Burhāṇpūr now in Madhya Pradeś), 31 Mahāls, Bāglāṇ 30 *Mahāls*, Gāḷṇā, 7 *Mahāls* and Nandurbār 6 *Mahāls*. Munim Khān only gives the number of villages in Asir district which was 3,079. The figures of revenue given by Munim Khān for the three districts of Khāndeś, *viz.*, Bāglāṇ, Gāḷṇā and Nandurbār were Rs. 3,90,701, Rs. 2,14,179 and Rs. 6,59,039 respectively.

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In 1707 Auraṅgzeb died leaving behind him the fields of these provinces devoid of trees and bare of crops, their places being taken by the bones of men and beasts. Instead of verdure all was black and barren. There have died in his armies over a hundred thousand souls yearly and of animals pack-oxen, camels and elephants etc. over three hundred thousand. In the Deccan provinces from 1702 to 1704 plague and famine prevailed. In these two years there expired over two million souls. After Auraṅgzeb's death the disorders increased still further. The province of Khāndeś had been totally desolated. Auraṅgzeb's son Āzam Śāh who was in the Deccan proceeded to the north to contest his claim to the throne against his elder brother Muāzzam *alias* Śāh Ālam. Śāhu, the son of Sambhājī who was in confinement quitted the Moghal camp at Dorāhā and proceeded towards the Deccan to claim the Marāṭhā Kingship. With

[1] Elliot, VII, 464-65, *Tarikhe Rahatafza* states that in 1703 Nemaji Shinde and Parsoji Bhosle with 30,000 troops besieged Burhanpur. They burned all the suburbs. After some time for a period of two or three years the conditions in Burhanpur grew so worse that dead people could be found in the streets. Parents were willing to sell their children for a loaf of bread (*Marathe va Nizam*, p. 27).

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fifty or sixty men he went off to Mohan Siṅgh Rāval, a rebellious ruler in the difficult mountain country of Bijāgarh, Sultānpūr and Nandurbār. He supplied Śāhu with some necessary equipment. Śāhu then went on to a Marāṭhā named Ambu but more famous under the name of Paṇḍ (probably Amṛtrāv Kadam Bāṇde) who was an active rebel against the Moghals. He held the fort of Kokarmaṇḍā in Sultānpur and ravaged the whole country from Surat to Burhāṇpūr. He furnished Śāhu with a body of men and sent him to his native country. Śāhu succeeded in claiming royalty by defeating Tārābāī, the wife of his uncle, Rājārām. In the Moghal war of succession for the throne Śāh Ālam succeeded against his brother in the battle fought at Jājāu and ascended the throne under the title of Bahādur Śāh. Though one of the conditions of Śāhu's release from the Moghal confinement was the recognition of the right of the Marāṭhās to collect *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* from the six Moghal provinces of the Deccan, the formal deeds were yet to be obtained.

Episode of Tulsi Bai.

In the year 1709-1710 Tuḷśī Bāī, widow of the Marāṭhā chief Nimbāḷkar with fifteen or sixteen thousand horse came demanding payment of the *Cauth* to the town of Rāmvir seven *kos* from Burhāṇpūr. Having surrounded the *sarāī* of Rāmvir, in which a great number of travellers and villagers had taken refuge, she sent a message to Mir Ahmad Khān *subhedar* demanding payment of eleven lakhs as *Cauth* to save the town and the men who were besieged in the *sarāī*. Mir Ahmad in his contempt for a female warrior, having got together a force of eight or nine thousand horse, part his own and part obtained from the *faujdārs* of the vicinity and with all the officials of Burhāṇpūr, marched out of that place on the 9th of *Muharram*.

The enemy (Tuḷśī Bāī) having got intelligence of his approach, left three or four thousand men in charge of their baggage and marched to meet Mir Ahmad Khān with four or five thousand veteran horse. The remainder of the Marāṭhā force was sent to invest and plunder the suburbs of Burhāṇpūr. Mir Ahmad Khān was severely wounded in the sharp encounter which he had with the enemy in the course of two or three days; but hearing of the investment of Burhāṇpūr he turned to succour the besieged. Wherever he went, the enemy hovered round him and kept up a continuous fight. Zafar Khān was wounded fighting bravely, and finding that the enemy's force was increasing he deemed it necessary for saving his life to take a son of Ahmad Khān with him and go to the city. The men of his rearguard were nearly all killed and his remaining men endeavoured to save their lives by flight. Many were made prisoners. Mir Ahmad Khān, who was left alone fighting with the enemy, received several wounds, and fell from his horse; but he dragged himself half dead under a tree where he breathed his last.

Jahandar Shah.

In 1712 Bahādur Śāh died and after a short reign by Jahāndār Śāh, Farrukhsiyār ascended the throne on 17th January 1713. The new emperor conferred the viceroyalty of the six provinces of the Deccan

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upon Cinkilic Khān (the son of Gāziuddin Firoz Juṅg, a nobleman of Auraṅgzeb's time) with his headquarters at Auraṅgābād and deputies in each of the component provinces. The title of Nizām-ul-mulk Khān-i-Khānān was also conferred upon him. The viceroyalty of Nizām-ul-mulk was, however, short-lived. He was recalled to Delhi and in his place Amir-ul-umrā Sayyad Husain Ali Khān was appointed in 1715.[1] At the same time Najābat Khān was appointed *subhēdār* of Burhāṇpūr for civil affairs and Haider Quli Khān his *diwāṇ* for revenue matters. Nizām-ul-mulk accordingly left Auraṅgābād with the intention of proceeding to court and got as far as Burhāṇpūr. There he found two or three Marāṭhā leaders who were making threatening demonstrations; so he took horse and went forth to attack them. The Marāṭhās were unable to make any resistance and after chastising and pursuing them for forty *kos*, he returned to Burhāṇpūr and resumed his journey to the court.

Husain Ali Khān who was on his journey from Delhi towards the Deccan passed within one or two *kos* of Nizām-ul-mulk. At the fort of Akbarpūr, on the Narmadā, Husain Ali heard that Dāud Khān Panni, *subhēdār* of Ahmadābād, was appointed to the *Subhēdārī* of Khāndeś and in pursuance of these orders had come to Burhāṇpūr. Intelligence also reached him that Dāud Khān had received, secret orders to do away with him (Husain Ali Khān) and the emperor had also held a promise to Dāud Khān of his being appointed to the *subhēdārī* of the Deccan. Dāud Khān, under these circumstances refused to make his submission to Husain Ali Khān, and a conflict between the two seemed inevitable. Dāud Khān relied upon his close alliance with numerous Marāṭhā chiefs including Nemājī Śinde[2] who had already accepted service with the Moghals. He had come with several other chiefs and had encamped near Burhāṇpūr, so that at the proper time he might join the stronger party. The dispute came to the test of battle. Husain Ali Khān had 15,000 horse with him while Dāud Khān had not more than three to four thousand Afghāṇ horse. A great battle was fought in the plain of the Lāl

[1] During his short viceroyalty of two years, Nizam-ul-mulk tried to settle the country but could not do much against the Maratha Officers who had stretched everywhere for the collection of *chauth*. In 1713 the Marathas looted a caravan going from Surat and Ahmadabad to Aurangabad and killed Muhammad Ibrahim Khan Tabrizi, Bakhshi and Kakinigar of Baglan. (*18th Century Deccan* p. 51). Lala Mansaram in his biography of Nizam-ul-mulk, *Masire Nizami*, says that Amboji, the *zamindar* of Sinnar had a rift with Khandoji Dabhade. He arrived at the Nizam's camp with 1,000 horsemen and represented to the Nizam that "Khandoji Dabhade has constructed a fort at the village of Mahur in the taluka of Baglan". The *parganas* of Sultanpur and Nandurbar were within the jurisdiction of the Nizam. Amboji further submitted that "Khandoji has fixed Mahur as his place of residence. He plundered merchandise coming from Surat and Ahmadabad. He has spread devastation in the whole area. If the Nizam were to appoint a small force, Khandoji could be put down successfully". The Nizam appointed Umar Khan with 1,000 horsemen to this campaign. Umar Khan penetrated into the enemy territory and dismantled the *gadhis* of Khandoji. He captured a number of his dependents and brought them to the presence of the Nizam (*18th Century Deccan*, p. 54).

2. Farrukhsiyar had sent orders to Shahu to resist Hussain Ali Khan.

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Bāgh of Burhāṇpūr. Victory seemed imminent for Dāud Khān when he defeated Mir Muśrif, his opposite number in the field of battle and confusion seemed to prevail in Husain Ali's ranks. But a chance musket ball struck Dāud Khān at this moment and killed him. Victory thus declared for, the Amir-ul-umrā Husain Ali Khān. Nemājī Śinde and the other Marāṭhā chiefs who had joined Husain Ali Khān offered their congratulations to him on his victory.

After the defeat of Dāud Khān, Husain Ali Khān went to Auraṅgābād and busied himself in settling the country. Śāhu had appointed in each of the two *subhās* of the Deccan, a Marāṭhā chief as *subhēdār* for the collection of Marāṭhā *cauth* in the same way as imperial *subhēdārs* were appointed. Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāde held the *subhā* of Khāndeś. On the road to the port of Surat he had built a mud fort and placed a garrison in it. All caravans that passed were required to pay the *cauth*. If they agreed to pay, they passed safe; if not they were plundered, the men were made prisoners and were not released until a ransom was paid for. Husain Ali sent his Bakhṣī, Zulfikār Beg with three or four thousand horse and five or six thousand musketeers to chastise Khaṇḍerāv. After Zulfikār Beg had passed through the pass beween Auraṅgābād and Khāndeś he learnt that Khaṇḍerāv was near the confines of Bāglāṇ and Ġāḷṇā. Zulfikār Beg attacked Khaṇḍerāv but Khaṇḍerāv withdrew with a view to drawing the enemy in pursuit. His plan succeeded and Zulfikār Beg along with his contingent was killed. The rest of his army surrendered and were made prisoners. Not one bullock, camel or horse belonging to that army was saved.[1]

Husain Ali now sent Rājā Muhakkim Siṅgh, his *divān* with a suitable force against Khaṇḍerāv. He also directed his own brother Saif-ud-din Ali Khān, the *subhēdār* of Khāndeś to support the Rājā. Saif-ud-din had gone out of Burhāṇpūr towards Sultānpūr and Nandurbār for settling the country. These two pursued Khaṇḍerāv in the hope of retaliating upon him or of removing his posts so that they might no longer trouble the country and the people of Khāndeś. But they accomplished nothing. His garrisons which were posted in various places held their ground.

Two or three years of Husain Ali Khān's government passed in quarrels with the emperor. Although he raised a large army he could not show the vigour that was necessary nor effect such a settlement as he himself desired. Neither could he put down the Marāṭhā encroachment in the six *subhās* of Deccan and in the provinces of Māḷvā and Gujarāt. Ultimately Husain Ali Khān acting upon the advice of Anvar Khān, one of the *Śaikh Zādās* of Burhāṇpūr and other trusted nobles availed himself of the services of a Brāhmaṇ named Śankarājī Malhār Nargundkar. Negotiations were opened

[1] The details given by Khafi Khan in his *Muntakhab-ul-lubab* and by Lala Mansaram in his *Masire Nizami* are substantially the same.

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through him with Rājā Śāhu and a treaty was made on the following terms among others with the Marāṭhās :

(1) That all territories known as Śivājī's *Svarājya* together with the forts therein should be delivered to Śāhu in full possession ;

(2) That such territories as had been recently conquered by the Marāṭhās in Khāndeś, Berār, Goṇḍvana, Hyderābād and Karnāṭak as described in the annexure to the treaty should also be ceded to them as part of the Marāṭhā kingdom ;

(3) That the Marāṭhās should be allowed to collect *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* from all the six Moghal *subhās* of the south ; in return for the *cauth* the Marāṭhās were to serve the emperor with a contingent of 15,000 troops for his protection and in return for the *sardeśmukhī* the Marāṭhās were to be responsible for maintaining order by preventing roberry and rebellions.[1]

Besides this there were in many places villages which had been laid waste by the Marāṭhās and which had been again brought into cultivation under special agreements such as the districts about Nandurbār in Khāndeś, in Berār and in other places. The Marāṭhās paid no heed to special contracts made by Husain Ali Khān but conceding the third share belonging to the *Jāgirdār* they made the following arrangement. They recognised three shares, one was for the *Jāgirdār*, one they took for themselves and the third they left to the *rayats*.

Farrukhsiyār refused to agree and ratify the terms of this treaty. He appointed his own nominees to several important offices in the Deccan. They were, however, put down by Husain Ali Khān. Farrukhsiyār, in apprehension of his powerful minister now recalled Nizāmul-mulk from Morādābād, Sarbulandkhān from Pāṭṇā and Ajit Siṅgh from Gujarāt. Husain Ali's brother Sayyad Abdullāh also sent urgent calls to his brother to repair to Delhi. Husain Ali proceeded towards north accompanied by Bāḷājī Viśvanāth, Sāhu's *Peśvā* and a Marāṭhā contingent of 15,000 horse. The arrival of Husain Ali with the Marāṭhas rendered the situation in Delhi more critical. The Sayyad brothers, however, soon assumed supremacy, deposed Farrukhsiyār and after successively putting on the throne two princes, one after the other, finally installed Muhammad Śāh as the emperor. As soon as the palace revolution was over the Sayyad brothers, prepared the formal grants for *Svarājya, cauthai* and *sardeś-*

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[1] Shahu after his return from the Moghal captivity conferred the rights of collecting *chauthai* and *sardeshmukhi* (*Mokasa*) in the Moghal Deccan upon his numerous officers. There is a mention in Maratha historical documents that the *Mokasa* of Berar, Khandesh, Nemad, Handia, Malwa and Bhaganagar was conferred on Kanhoji Bhosle by Shahu on 24th January 1717. With the incursions of the *Peshwas* in Khandesh, it appears that Kanhoji never did actually execute his rights of collecting *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in Khandesh.

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mukhī and delivered them to Bāḷājī duly ratified under the imperial seal. Husain Ali, in the meanwhile, had appointed his nephew, Ālam Ali Khān as his deputy in the *subhēdārī* of the Deccan. Nizām-ul mulk was appointed to the *subhēdārī* of Māḷvā. The new emperor soon became tired of the high handedness of the Sayyad brothers and wrote to Nizām-ul-mulk about it. When the Sayyad brothers came to know of it, they decided to reduce the power of Nizām-ul-mulk, cancelled his appointment to the *subhēdārī* of Māḷvā and asked him his choice for the *subhēdārī* of any of the *subhās* of Āgrā, Allāhābād, Multān or Burhāṇpūr. Nizām-ul-mulk disregarded these orders and proceeded to the Deccan at the head of 12,000 troops. When he crossed the Narmadā he was joined by Rustam Beg Khān, *Faujdār* of Bijāgarh. An envoy from Usmān Khān, an officer from the fort of Asir, also met him and proposed to surrender the fortress. On the 16th *Rajab* he took possession of this important stronghold. Nizām-ul-mulk then sent Muhammad Ghiyās Khān to reduce Burhāṇpūr. Alam Ali Khān sent Muhammad Anvar Khān to defend Burhāṇpūr. This man was, however, wanting in courage and gave up in despair. At Burhāṇpūr Nizām-ul-mulk was joined by Ivaj Khān, the Governor of Berār. Nizām-ulmulk remained there for some time to get his artillery in order. Alarmed at this development the Sayyad brothers sent their trusted and spirited partisan Dilāvār Ali Khān to put down Nizām-ul-mulk. They at the same time instructed Ālam Ali Khān to obstruct the southward march of the Nizām. But Nizām-ul-mulk defeated and killed both of them in the battles fought at Khāṇḍvā on 19th June 1720 and at Bāḷāpūr on 10th August 1720 respectively. The victory of Nizām-ul-mulk threw the Sayyad brothers in consternation. The Emperor Muhammad Śāh shortly afterwards brought about their downfall. Confrontation between the Marāṭhās and Nizām-ul-muḷk seemed inevitable now, because Nizām-ul-mulk refused to uphold the claims of Śhau to the *cauthāī* and *sardeśmukhī* of the six *subhās* of the Moghal Deccan. The new *Peśvā* of Śāhu, Bājīrāv had two meetings with Nizām-ul-mulk but no compromise was effected. Nizām-ulmulk was absent from the Deccan for two years from 1721 to 1723 when he was called upon by the emperor to take charge of the office of the *Wazir*.[1] He was, however, soon disgusted of the fickleness of the emperor and the court intrigues and refusing to obey the order of the emperor appointing him to the charge of Oudh he straightaway marched to the Deccan. The emperor wrote to Śāhu and Mubāriz Khān to put down the rebel Nizām-ul-mulk. Śāhu, however, did not take an immediate decision but dispatched Bājīrāv with orders to act as circumstances would permit. Bājīrāv welcomed this opportunity. He left Sātārā in January 1724 and passing some time in north Khāndeś crossed the Narmadā on May 8, 1724. He arrived in close

[1] Nizam-ul-mulk left the Deccan after appointing as his deputy his aunt's husband, Iwaj Khan Azduddowlah. During the Wazirship of Nizam-ul-mulk Abdurrahim Khan Nasiruddowlah was the governor of Khandesh. He was the step brother of Shahbuddin Firoz Jung, the father of Nizam-ul-mulk. He continued in his post till 1729.

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proximity to the Nizām's camp at Sihore. Mubāriz Khān was in two minds but ultimately decided to oppose Nizām-ul-mulk when he received orders confirming him to the viceroyalty of the Deccan. The issue was fought in the field of battle at Sākharkheḍlā on 30th September 1724 in which Nizām-ul-mulk emerged victorious. The Marāṭhās fought on the side of Nizām-ul-mulk.[1] Nizām-ul-mulk now became supreme in the Deccan. The *subhā* of the Deccan along with the province of Khāndeś now passed under Nizām-ul-mulk who maintained only a formal pretence of relationship with the Delhi emperor.[2]

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The period that followed the battle of Sākharkheḍlā witnessed the mounting struggle between the Marāṭhās who tried to enforce the rights received by them in 1719 and Nizām-ul-mulk who opposed the enforcement of these rights. To sustain his attitude Nizām-ul-mulk set up Sambhājī of Kolhāpūr against Chatrapati Śāhu. Sambhājī left Kolhāpūr in September 1726 and joined Nizām-ul-mulk. Nizām-ul-mulk had won over many of Śāhu's officers and instigated them to create trouble in the Marāṭhā State. He also prepared a vast army to invade the Marāṭhā territory. Śāhu, who had first thought of reaching a compromise with Nizām-ul-mulk accepted the challenge and ordered Bājīrāv to deal with Nizām-ul-mulk. Nizām-ul-mulk made the Pooṇā district his main objective. Bājīrāv decided to attack the outlying provinces of the Deccan *Śubhā*. He crossed the Godāvari near Puṇtāmbe and plundered Jālnā and Sindkheḍ defeating Ivaj Khān who opposed him on November 5, 1727. Bājīrāv then proceeded through Berār and then suddenly directing his course to the north-west entered Khāndeś, crossed the Tāpī at Kokarmuṇḍā and with lightning speed entered eastern Gujarāt. Here he learnt of the ravages of Nizām-ul-mulk in the environs of Pooṇā. To draw away the Nizām from Pooṇā, Bājīrāv gave out that he would devastate Burhāṇpūr and reached Betāvad in Khāndeś on February 14, 1728. Bājīrāv's calculations proved correct and Nizām-ul-mulk moved northwards and crossed Godāvari to find himself suddenly trapped on February 28 in difficult terrain near Pālkheḍ. Nizām-ul-mulk was left with no alternative but to surrender on the terms dictated by the Marāṭhās. Of the principal terms of agreement, the following were important *viz.*, all administrative or diplomatic measures for the government of the six Moghal *subhās* should be executed through the agency of the Marāṭhās, who would fully guard the imperial interests. The previous grants of *Svarajya* and *Sardeś-*

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[1] *Eighteenth Century Deccan*, p. 24.

[2] In 1720 Anwar Khan Qutubuddowlah was the governer of Khandesh. He was replaced after the battle by Nizam-ul-mulk with Dilawar Khan. Marahmat Khan (1720-1722) was appointed in his place. Ali Akbar Khan was appointed as the *diwan* and Muhammad Muali Khan as the Bakhshi of Burhanpur. Marahmat Khan was made a *mansabdar* of 5,000 with the title of Gaznafar Jung. Later due to complaints received against him, he was transferred by Nizam-ul-mulk as the *Faujdar* of Baglan.

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mukhī should be confirmed.[1] Thus Nizām-ul-mulk acknowledged the Marāṭhā claims long ago ratified by the Moghal emperor during the time of the Sayyads. Śāhu's collectors were restored to all their former places. The treaty, however, could not bring lasting peace to the Deccan as Nizām-ul-mulk could not tolerate the growing power of the Marāṭhās, either in the south or in the north. In 1728 Bājīrāv and his brother Cimājī Āppā planned an invasion of Māḷvā. Cimājī took the western route through Bāglāṇ and Khāndeś and Bājīrāv took the eastern route through Ahmadnagar, Berār, Candrapur and Devgaḍ. Cimājī won a decisive victory over Giridhar Bahādur, the Governor of Māḷvā, on 29th November 1728 at Amjherā. In the following year Bājīrāv rescued Chatrasāl of Bundelkhaṇḍ from the clutches of Muhammad Baṅgaṣ, the Moghal Governor of Allāhābād. These events greatly perturbed Nizām-ul-mulk. In 1729, Khaṇderāv Dābhāḍe, to whom Gujarāt and parts of Khāndeś were assigned by Śāhu, died. In 1730 Cimājī entered the province of Gujarāt and wrested from Sarbuland Khān, the governor, the Marāṭhā claims of *chauthāi* and *sardeśmukhī*. Trimbakrāv, the son of Khaṇderāv lodged a complaint against the *Peśvā* with Śāhu. Śāhu could not give a quick decision and Trimbakrāv prepared Kaṇṭhājī Kadam, his brother Raghujī, Trimbakrāv and Pilājī Gāikvāḍ for an armed conflict. They carried out raids in the territory of Khāndeś for which they were severaly reprimanded by Śāhu.[2] Bājīrāv now seduced many powerful local chiefs of Bāglāṇ, Khāndeś and east Gujārāt. They were Bhāusinh Ṭhoke of Mudane, Dalpatrāv Ṭhoke of Appone, Kuvar Bahādur Deśmukh of Sinnar, Lakṣadhir Dalpatrāv of Peṭh, Bajājī Āṭoḷe, Āvajī Kāvaḍe and others. Trimbakrāv and his mother Umābāī now approached Nizām-ul-mulk for help. Nizām-ul-mulk welcomed the opportunity and proceeded towards Bāglāṇ Khāndeś and East Gujarāt with his artillery to suppress the above chiefs who had sided with Bājīrāv. Bājīrāv and his brother Cimājī

Battle of Dabhai.

[1] The details of this conflict are as under : when war was declared between Nizam-ul-mulk and the Marathas on 6th November 1727, an action took place between Bajirao and Nizam-ul-mulk near Jalna. From Jalna Bajirao marched towards Khandesh. Previous to that, in the month of October the Marathas had invaded Khandesh with 12,000 troops and had besieged Burhanpur. Nasir-uddowlah, the Governor of Khandesh, dispatched his Bakhshi Abdul Vahab Kashmiri to oppose the Marathas. He was defeated and his entire camp equipage was looted. He fled into the town. In the action Sadat Khan Jamdar was killed. Subsequently Khanderao Dabhade twice or thrice attacked Burhanpur and burned its suburbs. In the meanwhile Bajirao reached Burhanpur. From Burhanpur he marched towards Nasirabad. Iwaj, Khan closely pursued the Marathas upto 44 miles to the north of Burhanpur. Nizam-ul-mulk also reached Burhanpur and halted there for two days. He appointed Mir Ali Akbar as the *diwan* of Khandesh in place of Muhammad Akil Khan. Bajirao then moved towards Gujarat. Nizam-ul-mulk followed him upto Surat but turned backwards with a view to ravage the country of Poona district. Bajirao also turned back and invaded the Vaijapur *pargana* of Aurangabad district. The Nizam also moved towards Vaijapur and was caught at Palkhed (*Maharashtra Ani Marathe*, pp. 129-130). The account of the episode in the *Tarikhe Rahatafza* does not differ substantially (*Marathe va Nizam*, pp. 27-28). Also see *Itihasik Tipne*, 2-35 ; P. D. 18. 35.

[2] *Shahu Rojnishi*, 49, 218.

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marched towards Khāndeś. Cimājī remained behind to watch the movements of Nizām-ul-mulk but the danger to the Marāṭhā State was two fold, coming as it did not only from the Dābhāḍe and Nizām-ul-mulk but from the possible combination of Nizām-ul-mulk and Muhammad Baṅgaṣ, the new governor of Māḷvā. Both carried consultations on the Narmadā where they met in March 1731. But before the powerful artillery of Nizām-ul-mulk could come to the succour of the Dābhāḍe, Bājīrāv had destroyed his power in the battle fought at Dabhāī on 1st April 1731. After the battle Bājīrāv hastened to Sātārā. In this letters to the Emperor, Nizām-ul-mulk boasts of having given a chase to Bājīrāv during the latter's return from Gujarāt *via* Nandurbār, Surat and Bāglāṇ. Bājīrāv easily brushed the opposition from Nizām-ul-mulk and reached Sātārā on 29th May 1731. Unsuccessful in his efforts Nizām-ul-mulk adopted an apolegetic attitude towards the Marāṭhās. In 1732 he wrote to Śāhu requesting a meeting with Bājīrāv. Accordingly Bājīrāv and Nizām-ul-mulk met on 27th December at Rohe Rāmeśvar. Nothing useful seems to have resulted from the meeting. Marāṭhā invasions of the north continued year after year. Hoping that the central Government would be kept busy dealing with the Marāṭhās and yet keeping up an appearance of loyalty to the Emperor, Nizām-ul-mulk constantly conspired with the Portuguese, the Siddis of Jañjirā and other adversaries of the Marāṭhās. The Nizām used to move out in the provinces every winter and return to Auraṅgābād or Burhāṇpūr for cantoning during the rainy season. He attended to the normal administration following his usual practice of changing the local officers every two years. These years were, however, momentous to the Marāṭhās in regard to their northward expansion. The Marāṭhās had already staked their claims over Māḷvā. Bājīrāv in July 1732 effected a division of Māḷvā between Śinde, Hoḷkar and Pavār. In February 1733 Hoḷkar overcame Jaysinh, the new governor of Māḷvā, near Mandsor. Marāṭhā rule was now firmly planted in Māḷvā and Bundelkhaṇḍ by Pilājī Jādhav, Śinde and Hoḷkar by early 1734. The Marāṭhā gains created a deep concern in the Delhi court and in 1735 Khān Daurān and Qamruddin Khān opened an offensive against the Marāṭhās. On February 13, 1735, Śinde and Hoḷkar defeated the Moghals near Rānpurā. On 2nd March Following, Pilājī Jadhav routed Qamruddin Khān in Bundelkhaṇḍ. Jaysinh now realised the futility of opposing the Marāṭhā claims and suggested to the emperor a meeting with Bājīrāv. An invitation was sent to Bājīrāv. Bājīrāv obtained Śāhu's consent for such a venture and proceeded towards north through Nandurbār and Sultāṇpūr. He reached Udaipūr on February 1736 and met Jaysinh. The emperor now refused to fulfil the pledge he had given to Jaysinh of meeting Bājīrāv. Bājīrāv stationed his troops in Māḷvā and returned to Pooṇā determined to visit Delhi again and wrest from the emperor by force what he

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failed to secure by diplomacy. Accordingly in November 1736 Bājīrāv left Pooṇā for the north.[1] He was near Gwālior in March 1737. The Moghals were encamped at Mathurā. Bājīrāv decided to surprise Delhi by a sudden attack. He reached Delhi on 28th March. A contingent sent to oppose him was routed by him on the outskirts of Delhi. Thinking that this chastisement was enough for the emperor, he retraced his steps towards the Deccan. The march of Bājīrāv towards Delhi had greatly perturbed the Nizām who feared that once the Marāṭhas gained a dominant position in Delhi, his own position in the south would be threatened. When Bājīrāv left for the north in November 1736 he moved from Auraṅgābād and encamped at Burhāṇpūr. When Bājīrāv was in the north, his brother Cimājī with Āvjī Kavaḍe, Raghujī Bhosle, Vyaṅkaṭrāv Ghorpaḍe and others had kept a watch over the situation in the south. At Burhāṇpūr, Nizām-ul-mulk received permission from the emperor to repair to Delhi. Nizām-ul-mulk immediately proceeded north leaving his son Nāsir Juṅg in charge.[2] He reached Siroñj on 10th May 1737 and found Bājīrāv returning to the south. Customary greetings were exchanged. Nizām-ul-mulk reached Delhi in April. He manœuvred the emperor to grant him the *subhās* of Āgrā and Māḷvā for his son and those of Allāhābād, Ajmer and Gujarāt to his nominees on the promise of destroying the Marāṭhās. Bājīrāv accepted the challenge and proceeded to the north on 15th October 1737 to meet Nizām-ul-mulk. In the meanwhile Nāsir Juṅg had in the beginning of 1737 dispatched Sayyad Jamāluddin towards Khāndeś to counter the activities of Āvjī Kavaḍe. He was also making frantic preparations to crush the Marāṭhās by planning to join his father in the north. To prevent the movement of Nāsir Juṅg's troops towards north Bājīrāv stationed Cimājī Appā at Varaṇgāṅv on the banks of the Tāpī. He himself marched towards Nizām-ul-mulk who had encamped at Bhopāḷ. By masterful tactics of guerilla warfare, Bājīrāv besieged Nizām-ul-mulk at Bhopāḷ on 14th December 1937. Within a fortnight of the beginning of the siege Nizām-ul-mulk, was reduced to miserable straits. He sued for peace. He agreed to secure the province of Māḷvā to the Marāṭhās under the imperial seal and deliver over to them all the territory between the Narmadā and the Yamunā. Nizām-ul-mulk then repaired to Delhi. Delhi was subsequently rocked by the invasion of Nādir Śāh who made the Emperor, Nizām-ul-mulk and Sādat Khān, the *Wazir*, his captives.

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[1] It may be noted that till 1730 Nasiruddowlah was the governor of Khandesh. In that year he was transferred to Aurangabad and Hafiz-uddin Khan was appointed in his place with Abul Khair Khan to assist him. This arrangement continued till 1736 when Hafiz-uddin Khan was transferred to the *faujdari* of Baglan and Nandurbar and Nasiruddowlah was reappointed to the *subhedari* of Khandesh.

[2] When Nizam-ul-mulk left for Delhi, he put 5,000 troops under the command of Nasiruddowlah, to keep a watch over the movement of the Marathas. To prevent any help reaching Nizam-ul-mulk from the south, Chimaji Appa also entered Khandesh with 10,000 troops. He camped in front of Burhanpur. Nasiruddowlah fearing an attack took heavy precautions. After the treaty of Bhopal, Chimaji retired from Burhanpur.

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It was a frustrated Nizām-ul-mulk who was to return to the Deccan in November 1740. In the meanwhile Raghujī Bhosle had secured Devgaḍ, and Candrapur, and was effectively collecting *cauth* from the *mahāls* of Berār. Cimājī Bhosle also raided the environs of Burhāṇpur. In April 1739 Bājīrāv began to confiscate grants near the capital of Khāndeś. Nāsir Juṅg invaded the domains of the *Peśvā* in retailiation. On hearing of the action of Nāsir Juṅg, Bājīrāv and Cimājī moved against Nāsir Juṅg and surrounded him near Auraṅgābād. Nāsir Juṅg sued for peace which Bājīrāv granted after Nāsir Juṅg agreed to cede the districts of Haṇḍia and Khargāṅv.[1] Bājīrāv did not live long to consolidate the fruits of his gains and expired suddenly at Rāver on the southern bank of the Narmadā on 28th April 1740. It has already been stated that Nizām-ul-mulk had left his son Nāsir Juṅg as his deputy in the Deccan. The discomfiture of his father at Delhi encouraged Nāsir Juṅg to rebel and declare his independence. Nizām-ul-mulk suddenly left Delhi in August 1740 to suppress the rebellion of his son.[2]. The new *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv was proceeding northward to take the possession of Māḷvā by force if necessary. When he was in Khāndeś he learnt of the movements of Nizām-ul-mulk. The *Peśvā* was approached by Nizām-ul-mulk for help. Bāḷājī and Nizām-ul-mulk both met at Edlābād on the Purṇā in Khāndeś on 7th January 1741. Bāḷājī then proceeded to the north. In the battle fought between Nizām-ul-mulk and Nāsir Juṅg, the latter was defeated and captured.[3] Bāḷājī had decided to remain neutral and had already proceeded north towards Māḷvā. The appearance of the *Peśvā* in Māḷvā forced the emperor to concede the demand of the Marāṭhās for the cession of Māḷvā (7th September 1741). The next few years saw the expansion of the Marāṭhā sphere of influence in the north. Nizām-ul-mulk, during this time, was engaged in exacting tribute from refractory dependents in the Deccan and consolidating his power in the Karnāṭak. In 1747 a terrible famine broke out in Gujarāt and the Deccan desolating the country. Grain was sold at 1½ seers a rupee. The ageing Nizām-ul-mulk had

Peshva Balaji Bajirav.

[1] These two districts then belonged to the *subha* of Khandesh.

[2] Nizam-ul-mulk reached Burhanpur in August 1740 and immediately left for Aurangabad taking Nasiruddowlah with him.

[3] During the campaign against Nasir Jung, Nasiruddowlah was given the title of Mubariz Jung. He was then transferred (1742) to Aurangabad where he shortly afterwards died. Till the death of Nasiruddowlah, Mujahid Khan, his son worked as deputy to his father in the *subha* of Khandesh. After the death of Nasiruddowlah, Nizam-ul mulk appointed Mir Ali Akbar Khan, as governor of Khandesh. In 1743, for some days, Mujahid Khan was appointed governor of Khandesh with Ali Akbar Khan as his deputy. However as the two of them could not get along well, Akbar Khan was confirmed in the post and Mujahid Khan was recalled by Nizam-ul-mulk. In 1746 after the death of Ali Akbar Khan, Abul Khair Khan was appointed as *subhedar* of Khandesh. In the following year (1747) Khaja Momin Khan, the son of Iwaj Khan Ijdudowlah, was appointed as governor of Khandesh in place of Abul Khair Khan.

It may be mentioned here that Nasir Jung regained his father's favour and was sent to Karnatak to collect tributes from the various *Zamindars*. After his return to Aurangabad he was entrusted with the task of putting down the Marathas. In this he was assisted among others by Abul Khair Khan, the governor of Khandesh.

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now grown weaker since his return from the Karnāṭak expedition. He died at the Mahān Nālā outside Burhaṇpūr on 1st June 1748.[1] A year after, on December 15, 1749 died Chatrapati Śāhu. The death of these two personalities changed the entire course of politics in the Deccan. With the death of Nizām-ul-mulk, the Deccan lost one of the most shrewd and cunning politicians of the time. Though the confrontation between the Marāṭhās and the successors of Nizām-ul-mulk did not come to an end with the death of Nizām-ul-mulk, it lost its original verve and sting because the successors of Nizām-ul-mulk lacked the qualities he possessed. On the other hand with the death of Śāhu, the Marāṭhā royalty became weak. The *Peśvās* as the representatives of the State were left free to deal with the enemies of the State in a manner they considesred to be in the best interests of the State. After the death of Śāhu, Rāmrājā was installed on the throne. Nizām-ul-mulk was succeeded by his son Nāsir Juṅg to the viceroyalty of the Deccan. He was, however, murdered by his Pathāṇ allies on December 5, 1750 and Muzaffar Juṅg, his sister's son, was raised to the office. He met with a similar fate on January 31, 1751 when Salābat Juṅg, another son of Nizām ul-mulk, was proclaimed Nizām by Bussy, the French general, and the partisan of Salābat Jung.[2] The *Peśvā* was watching with interest these developments and decided to make the best use of them for the advantage of the Marāṭhā power. He issued orders for occupying the Khāndeś territory of Nizām-ul-mulk between Auraṅgābād and Burhāṇpūr. The *Peśvā*, however, did not desire a direct confrontation with the well trained artillery of Bussy, as he was deeply concerned with the happenings in the environs of Sātārā and Pooṇā. Tārābāī (the wife of Rājārām), who was still living did not approve of the assumption of power by the *Peśvā* and she instigated Damājī Gāikvāḍ and Dābhāde against the *Peśvā*. She also secretly corresponded with the Nizām and the Portuguese. Damājī Gāikvāḍ, with 15,000 troops, attacked Dhulia and devastated it. He then proceeded to Thāḷner. Bāpujī Bājīrāv Reṭharekar was at Bahādarpurā in Khāndeś. On hearing of the predatory raids of Damājī Gāikvāḍ, Hari Dāmodar Nevālkar, Baḷvantrāv Mehandaḷe and Mahipatrāv Kavaḍe hurried into Khāndeś from Pooṇā. On 18th February 1751 an action was fought at Bahādarpurā about 10 miles from Amaḷner

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Salabat Jung.

[1] After the death of Nizam-ul-mulk Nasir Jung who succeeded him appointed Ahmad Mir Khan to the *subhedari* of Khandesh.

[2] During this time when these events were taking place Khajam Kuli Khan acted as the governor of Khandesh. He, however, could not get along well with Ahmad Amir Khan. After the death of Nasir Jung, the *Peshwa* Balaji Bajirao confiscated many *paraganas* of Khandesh. Khajam Kuli Khan tried to resist the Maratha incursions but could not do so successfully due to lack of support from Ahmad Amir Khan. At this time Muzaffar Jung appointed Abul Khair Khan Samsher Jung as governor of Khandesh. Many actions were fought between the Marathas and the troops of Khandesh. The Maratha Officers Manaji Nikam, Hari Pandit and others defeated the Khandesh troops. Muhammad Khurram, Govindram Peshkar and other officers of the Khandesh army were killed and the troops of Khandesh fled to Burhanpur pursued by the Marathas. The Marathas took control of Mandi Shahganj, Jahanabad and Bahadarpura adjacent to Burhanpur.

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between the forces of Gāikvāḍ and those of *Peśvā*. The latter's forces were routed. Damājī moved on towards Pooṇā devastating the territory on the way. He then marched to Sātārā. The *Peśvā* therefore hurriedly entered into a settlement with Salābat Juṅg who agreed to pay a sum of 17 lakhs. The *Peśvā* also agreed to cancel his previous orders of occupying Khāndeś on receiving a sum of three lakhs more and returned to Sātārā to deal with the recalcitrant Damājī Gāikvāḍ. He attacked Damājī Gāikvāḍ and defeating him, made him a captive. The affairs at Sātārā were settled to the satisfaction of the *Peśvā* who now turned towards subjugating the forts in Nāśik belonging to the Nizām. He instigated Gāziuddin, the eldest son of the late Nizām-ul-mulk to come to the Deccan and assert his claim to his father's dominion.[1] The treaty of friendship between the Marāṭhās and Salābat Juṅg was thus not destined to last long and the latter made preparations for an eventual conflict with the former. Actual hostilities broke out between the two in November 1751.[2] For two months a sort of desultory warfare continued leading to a temporary truce under the treaty of Siṅgvā. Hostilties, however, soon erupted and the Māraṭhās surrounded Salābat Juṅg at Bhālkī. Salābat Juṅg sued for peace and a treaty was concluded. Under this treaty Salābat Juṅg agreed to the cession of the whole of Khāndeś, Bāglāṇ, Gaḷnā and Saṅgamner. Nāśik, Trimbak and other important forts in that region thus passed into Marāṭhā hands and were soon put in an efficient state of management and government.[3]

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The next five years saw the extension of the Marāṭhā influence in the Karnāṭak. The affairs of Salābat Juṅg who was a mere puppet in the hands of his successive regents gave the Marāṭhās an opportunity to invade his possessions. Nizām Ali, the younger brother of Salābat Juṅg and the Governar of Berār, in the monsoon of 1757 arrived in Auraṅgābād. The Marāṭhās also moved from Pooṇā towards Auraṅgābād. Severe fighting took place before Sindkheḍ from December 12 to 16, 1757. On December 17 Nizām Ali acknowledged defeat and sued for peace. Territory worth 25 lacs along with the fort of Naḷdurg was ceded to the Marāṭhās. The peace was,

[1] The Marathas agreed to extend their support to Gaziuddin in his claims to the *subhedari* of the Deccan but in return demanded the cession of the *subha* of Khandesh. Gaziuddin agreed and when he reached Burhanpur in August 1752 gave a *sanad* to that effect in writing to Holkar and other Maratha chiefs. He proceeded from thence to Aurangabad with a considerable number of Maratha troops. Gaziuddin, however, died of poisoning before the whole plan could be executed.

[2] Salabat Jung put Abul Khair Khan, the *subhedar* of Khandesh in charge of the campaign against the Marathas.

[3] Shahanawaz Khan, the *Diwan* of Salabat Jung strongly opposed the cession of the *subha* of Khandesh to the Marathas. He requested with great earnestness to reconsider the terms of the treaty. He wanted to move away from the scene of battle one or two stages so as to extract a more favourable treaty. The efforts of Shahanawaz Khan came to naught due to the duplicity of Sayyad Lashkar Khan, the chief minister of Salabat Jung. He approached the Marathas on behalf of Salabat Jung to secure their help against Gaziuddin but in reality sought service with Gaziuddin through the help of the *Peshwa*. Salabat Jung in the absence of Sayyad Lashkar Khan acted against the advice of Shahanawaz Khan and signed the convention of Bhalki ceding the province of Khandesh and the district of Galna and Sangamner to the Marathas, (*18th Century Deccan*).

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however, short-lived and hostilities again broke out in 1759. The Marāṭhās had gained added strength due to the employment of Ibrāhīm Khān Gārdī who had been dismissed by Nizām Ali. A vast Marāṭhā army under the *Peśvā's* brother Raghunāthrāv and cousin Sadāśivrāv, with Ibrāhīm Khān's artillery, began the invasion of Nizām's territory. The fort of Ahmadnagar was seized by the Marāṭhās. Fighting commenced between the two forces in the vicinity of Udgīr in which the forces of Nizām-ul-mulk Salābat Juṅg and Nizām Ali were routed (3rd February 1760). The army of Salābat Juṅg was in no condition to fight and peace was concluded on his agreeing to cede territory with an income of 60 lacs of rupees in the province of Auraṅgābād, half of Bijāpūr and Bidar, the forts of Asir, Daulatābād and Mulher and the cities of Bijāpūr and Burhāṇpūr (13th February 1760). In the following year the Marāṭhās were defeated at Pānipat by Ahmad Śāh Abdālī. *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv died soon after. These events considerably weakened the Marāṭhā position in the Deccan. Taking advantage of this Nizām Ali who had usurped power from his brother Nizām-ul-mulk Salābat Juṅg invaded the Marāṭhā territory in November 1761. The new *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv and his uncle Raghunāthrāv marched with a force of about 70,000. Raghunāṭhrāv, the uncle of the *Peśvā*, had other intentions and instead of imposing harsher terms upon Nizām Ali, he ceded territory worth 40 lacs of rupees to Nizām Ali in return for the *jāgirs* which Ramcandra Jādhav had held from the Nizām and who had now joined the Marāṭhās. This was done to secure the friendship of Nizām Ali. The rift between the *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv and his uncle Raghunāthrāv came into the open resulting in the battle fought at Alegāṅv on 12th November 1762 between the two. Nizām Ali extended his full support to Raghunāthrāv and demanded territory worth sixty lacs surrendered at Udgīr. Raghunāthrāv agreed to return the major portion together with the fort of Daulatābād but before the actual exchange of territory took place, hostilities broke out between the Marāṭhās and the Nizām. Raghunāthrāv effected many changes in the administration of the State and by his action made enemies of the Paṭvardhans and the Pratinidhi. He soon received the news of the coalition of these officers with Jānojī Bhosle and Nizām Ali. Nizām Ali made heavy and insulting demands upon the *Peśvā*. The first shot was fired by Nizām Ali who started ravaging the Marāṭhā territory. Marāṭhās retaliated by attacking the possessions of the Nizām. The *Peśvā* now tried to seduce the Marāṭhā alies of Nizām. He succeeded in detaching Jānojī Bhosle, Gopāḷrāv Paṭvardhan and others. This considerably weakened the position of Nizām Ali who started retreating towards Auraṅgābād, being hotly pursued by the Marāṭhās. He crossed the Godāvarī leaving the bulk of his army at Rākṣasbhuvan. The Marāṭhās fell upon this army and totally destroyed it. Nizām Ali, after protracted negotiations agreed to surrender to the *Peśvā* territory worth 82 lacs, that is, all that had already been secured at Udgīr but which Raghunāthrāv had agreed to give back at Uruḷī and Alegāṅv. Mādhavrāv who was reconciled to Raghunāthrāv now returned

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triumphant to Pooṇā. During 1764 and 1765 the *Peśvā* was busy with his campaign in the Karnāṭak against Haider Ali. On his return from the campaign a meeting took place between the *Peśvā* and Nizām Ali lasting for ten days (5th to 14th February), 1766.[1].

From now on till the death of the *Peśvā* on 18th November 1772 the Marāṭhās reestablished their lost prestige in the north. Gohad was invested in June 1766. Āgrā and Mathurā were occupied in April 1770. Eṭwā was captured on December 15, 1770. With the capture of Najibābād on April 14, 1772 the Marāṭhās recovered the spoils of Pānipat and their lost glory too. The death of Mādhavrāv spread a gloom over the Marāṭhā State. Nārāyaṇrāv, his brother succeeded him as *Peśvā*. But he was soon after murdered (August 30, 1773) with the connivance of Raghunāthrāv who now assumed the robes of Peśvāship (October 10, 1773). The Pooṇā ministers, however, declined to support him and declared him an usurper. Raghunāthrāv now became a fugitive and moved towards Paṇḍharpūr with Trimbakrāv Peṭhe closely upon his track. The dispute in the Marāṭhā court gave the English an opportunity to attack the Marāṭhā possession of Ṭhāṇā and take it by assault. The Marāṭhās, however, soon retaliated by blockading the English trade. This respite gave Raghunāthrāv an opportunity to regroup his forces and attack Peṭhe near Kāsegāṅv and defeat him. But the flush of his victory was short-lived and he had to beat a hasty retreat against the determined assault of Haripant Phaḍke who was joined by the forces of Bhosle and Nizam Ali. In the middle of April 1774 he crossed the Godāvārī and fled to Burhāṇpūr and thence to Narmadā. The Pooṇa ministers' hands were strengthened by the birth of a son to Gaṅgābāī, the wife of the late *Peśvā* on 18th April 1774. The new born child was invested with the robes of Peśvāship on the 40th day of its life. Haripant Phaḍke who was pursuing Raghunāthrāv could not overtake him and established his base camp at Burhāṇpūr. Raghunāthrāv tried to secure help from Śinde and Hoḷkar and failing in his attempts, sought the assistance of the English at Bombay. Śinde and Hoḷkar dissuaded him from adopting such a course and invited him for a conference in the vicinity of Burhāṇpūr. Raghunāthrāv agreed. He, however, suddenly marched towards Bhopāḷ. He was, however, forcibly brought back by Śinde and Hoḷkar, and together they crossed the Narmadā at the end of July 1774. Nānā Phaḍṇīs left for Burhāṇpūr for a conference with Raghunāthrāv. When the talk were going on, Raghunāthrāv becoming suspicious, escaped to Gujarāt on the night of December 10, 1774. He was, however, overtaken by Haripant and routed near Vasad on 17th February 1775. Raghunāthrāv took to flight and joined the English

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[1] When these events were taking place a pretender of Sadashivraobhau, who was killed in the battle of Panipat, appeared in Northern India. In 1764 he crossed the Narmada and appeared in the Deccan on January 14, 1765. Madhavrao issued orders for an enquiry to verify the truth or falsity of the statement of the man who called himself Sukhlal. Accordingly Malharrao Holkar held an enquiry at Sultanpur on 12th August 1765 and declared that he was not the real Bhausaheb. The impostor was arrested and put in confinement.

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at Surat where he signed with them an ignominious treaty on 6th March 1775. A force of 2500 was given to Raghunāthrāv by the English to help him oppose the Marāṭhā army in Gujarāt and eventually to reach Pooṇā. An indecisive action was fought between the two at Aḍas in which the English lost 300 of their men. Haripant retired to Songad. At this time, Warren Hastings who had been appointed as the Governor General of English possessions in India, disapproved of the action of Bombay authorities and sent his own ambassador Upton to negotiate a settlement with the Marāṭhās. The Pooṇā court was intrigued at this diversity of policies of the English authorities at Bombay and Calcutta. The Pooṇā ministers unsuccessfully tried to settle with Raghunāthrāv directly. He, however, could not be conciliated. On the contrary he excited the Koḷis of Khāndeś to rebel and encouraged Gulzār Khān of Ranāḷā to commit depredations against the Marāṭhā government in the same region. The negotiations between the Marāṭhās and the English taking place at Purandar failed to yield any result due to the unreasonable attitude of the English and hostilities were resumed. However, the ministers were forced to come to terms with the English due to the escape of the pretender of Sadāśivrāv Bhāu from Ratnāgirī on 18th February 1776 and the treaty of Purandar was signed on 1st March 1776. The terms of the treaty were favourable to the English. The English at first agreed to withdraw protection to Raghunāthrāv. They, however, refused to surrender him as demanded by the Marāṭhās. The discomfiture of the Pooṇā ministers encouraged the enemies of the Marāṭhās such as Nizām Ali, Haider Ali, the Kolhāpūr Rājā, the Pratinidhi, the Koḷis of Khāndeś and a number of other vassals of the Marāṭhā State to rise in all directions and endanger the very existence of the Marāṭhā State. The English decided to take advantage of the situation, to break the treaty of Purandar and to reinstate Raghunāthrāv at Pooṇā. The Pooṇā ministers took up the challenge and decided to fight it out with the English. The matters soon came to a crisis and the Marāṭhās inflicted a crushing defeat upon the English at Vaḍgāṅv in January 1779. Warren Hastings had dispatched general Goddard commanding the Beṅgāl forces to reinforce the English troops fighting the Marāṭhās. Before Goddard reached Burhāṇpūr he learned of the disaster that had befallen the English forces at Vaḍgāṅv and the proceeded to Surat from Burhāṇpūr with a view to crippling the Marāṭhās in Gujarāt. Under the convention of Vaḍgāṅv, the English agreed to surrender Raghunāthrāv and return Sālsette, Ṭhāṇā and the territory captured by them in Gujarāt. Raghunāthrāv after much hesitation signed and took oath on an agreement acknowledging Mādhavrāv Nārāyan as *Peśvā*, relinquishing his claim to that post and retiring from public affairs and reside at Jhānśi. Raghunāthrāv accordingly left for Jhānśi on 24th February 1779. He was restless and discomfited at the restraints placed upon him by the Pooṇā ministers. On his way he instigated some of his ardent followers, Mānājī Phākḍe, Bājīrāv Barve, Kero Kṛṣṇa Dātār and others to gather their forces in north Khāndeś where some rebellious elements such as the local Koḷis, Gulzār Khān of

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Sultānpūr, Khaṇḍerāv Pavār of Dhār and others had been already creating troubles for the Poonā government. Anandībāī, the wife of Raghunāthrāv was residing at Mṇḍaleśvar. She travelled to Burhāṇpūr to join her husband and kept a close contact with general Goddard. Raghunāthrāv reached the vicinity of Burhāṇpūr in April 1779 and the bank of the Narmadā in May. While in the camp Raghunāthrāv suddenly fired his guns upon the guards, killed his keeper Hari Bābājī and made good his escape to Goddard at Surat where he was readily welcomed. Goddard won over Fatesinh Gāikvāḍ of Baroḍā and together they started a fresh war in Gujarāt against the Marāṭhā government of Poona.[1] This consequently meant the repudiation by the English of the convention of Vaḍgāṅv. To oppose the English in distant Gujarāt with the Gāikvāḍ joining hands with them and with Khāndeś in open rebellion against them was a difficult task for the Marāṭhās. Nānā Phaḍṇīs roṣe to the occasion and in consultation with Mahādaji Śinde and Tukoji Hoḷkar formed what is known as the grand quadruple alliance composed of the Marāṭhās, Nizām Ali, Haider Ali and the Bhosle of Nāgpūr against the English. Hastings succeeded in detaching Nizām Ali and the Bhosle from the alliance but the confederacy was strengthened by the Siddi, the Portuguese and the French joining the combination. Nānā Phaḍṇīs undaunted by the weaning away of two of the important members of the confederacy by the English formed plans to oppose the English in Gujarāt. Mahādajī Śinde and Tukojī Hoḷkar moved towards Gujarāt through Khāndeś. They put down to troublesome elements such as the Koḷis, Candrarāv Pavār and others on the way. Gaṇeśpant Behere and Visājī Āppājī, the two commanders of the *Peśvā* co-operated with Śinde and Hoḷkar and fought several actions in Khāndeś. In one of the actions Candrarāv Pavār, the youngest son of Udājī Pavār was killed (December 1780). Gulzār Khān of Sultānpūr who was an ally of Raghunāthrāv was also humbled and made innocuous. The hostilities continued during February and March 1780 when Mahādajī played for time by offering a negotiated settlement. The stalemate continued and when rainy season approached Goddārd retired to Surat while Mahāḍajī and Tukojī returned to Māḷvā. In the meanwhile Haider Ali worked havoc in the English possessions in the coastal plain of Madrās. Warrent Hastings sent reinforcements by sea to Madrās and by land through Bundelkhaṇḍ and Māḷvā. Nānā Phaḍṇīs advised Mahādajī who was on his way to Māḷvā to canton for the monsoon in Khāndeś between Burhāṇpūr and the famous pass known as Koṇḍāī about 50 miles west of Dhulia. Mahādajī as an experienced general refused on the ground that the best way to defend Deccan was to prevent any reinforcement reaching the English from Beṅgāl, and Māḷvā was the proper place to do

[1] Goddard on his march from central India to Surat found Khandesh most prosperous. Many of the grain carts collected at Burhanpur were left behind by the speed at which the army moved (300 miles in ninety days), and the troops had to depend for provisions on the villages along their line of march. The supply was abundant, and the people, industrious, happy and humane, did not fly from their villages, but voluntarily offered provisions and grain. For eighty miles west of Burhanpur, the country was full of villages, fertile prosperous, and well tilled. [Account of Bombay (1781), 289, 290].

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so. He wrote to Nānā Phaḍṇīs to defend Gujarāt and Koṅkaṇ with the help of the southern chiefs and advised him to allow Tukojī Hoḷkar to hold Khāndeś. The war continued and places changed hands. Bassein fell to the English who now proposed an attack on Pooṇā under Goddard and Hartley. Haripant Phaḍke and Paṭvardhan advanced to oppose them. While Mahādajī stayed in Māḷvā, Tukojī Hoḷkar came through Khāndeś to support the Pooṇā forces in north Koṅkaṇ. The English campaign, however, failed due to the guerilla tactics of the Marāṭhas and Goddard had to retire to Bombay in May 1781. The stubborn fighting by Mahādajī Śinde in Māḷvā made the position of the English worse in that region. Negotiations for settlement were initiated by the English and after protracted negotiations the treaty of Sālbye was concluded on 17th May 1782 on terms favourable to the Marāṭhās. Raghunāthrāv did not live long after the treaty of Sālbye and died on 17th December 1783 at Khaṇḍeśvar. The next few years saw intense Marāṭhā activity in the north under Mahādajī Śinde and concerted action by the Marāṭhās and Nizām Ali against Ṭipū Sultān of Mysore. On June 1, 1790 the Marāṭhās, the English and Nizām Ali formed tripartite alliance against Tipū resulting in the defeat and submission of Tipū on February 11, 1792. However, cracks now began to appear in the friendship that existed between the Marāṭhās and Nizām Ali on the question of payment of *Cauth*. Nizām Ali refused to pay the dues which had accumulated since the treaty of Sālbye. Negotiations failed to solve the dispute and both the parties had recourse to arms. The English maintained a strictly neutral attitude in this conflict. This was based on an appraisal of Nizām's weakness and the strength of the Marāṭhās. Nizām Ali suffered a crushing defeat in the battle fought at Kharḍā on 11th March 1795. In Khāndeś after grants had been made to the great Marāṭhā chiefs, especially to Hoḷkar and Śinde, the part left to the *Peśvā* was formed into a separate charge or *Subhā* which was composed of Gāḷṇā, Khāndeś proper, Mewār Bijāgaḍ, Pāl Nemāḍ and Hiṇḍia (Haṇḍia).[1] The *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv died shortly afterwards on October 27, 1795. There were only three surviving members form the *Peśvā* family *viz.*, Bājīrāv, Cimṇājī and Amṛtrāv, all sons of Raghunāthrāv. Nānā Phaḍṇīs favoured Cimṇājī. However, Bājīrāv who longed to acquire Peśvāship which had evaded his father won to his side Daulatrāv Śinde. However, he decided in the end to come to a compromise with Nānā Phaḍṇīs. Under the agreement Bājīrāv was to become the *Peśvā* and Nānā, his principal minister. This enraged Daulatrāv who adopted an intransigent attitude. Nānā fearing danger to his life escaped to Mahāḍ. Nānā now approached Nizām Ali for help. This aliented Nānā from Śinde and Paraśurāmbhāu Paṭvardhan. Nizām Ali agreed to help Nānā with the latter agreeing to barter away all the hard won gains of Kharḍā. Nānā, however, won over several Mārāṭhā chiefs and gained the sympathy of the rulers of the neighbouring States. To crown it all he got Bājīrāv to his side. Tables were turned now against Daulatrāv who

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[1] Hamilton's *Description of Hindostan*, II, 95.

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Tripartite alliance and defeat of Tipu.

in rage plundered Pooṇā. Nānā introduced one more evil genius, Sarzārāv Ghāṭge into Śinde's camp, to his own advantage. The matters now came to a head and Paraśurāmbhāu, the partisan of Cimṇājī was attacked by Hoḷkar and captured. Cimṇājī was removed from palace. No sooner he got this news than Nānā left Mahāḍ for Pooṇā which he reached on 25th November 1796. Bājīrāv was now proclaimed *Peśvā* with Nānā as his chief minister. The ceremony of installation took place on 5th December 1796. These disturbances which followed the death of *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv II were two years later increased by the disputes among the sons of Tukojī Hoḷkar who had died on August 15, 1797. Tukojī had four sons Kāśirāv, Malhārrāv, Viṭhojī and Yeśvantrāv. Of these Kāśirāv was supported by Daulatrāv Śinde, whereas the other three made a common cause against Kāśirāv and enlisted the support of Nānā Phaḍṇīs. On 14th September 1797 Daulatrāv sent a detachment to secure the person of Malhārrāv. Malhārrāv was suddenly attacked and killed with a few of his followers. It is said that Kāśirāv incited Daulatrāv to this deed by a bribe of Rs. 3,50,000. On this Viṭhojī and Yeśvantrāv fled and took to a life of brigandage devastating Śinde's territory. They gathered a band of freebooters, laid waste the Khāndeś Narmadā districts, ravaged the hill country between the Narmadā and the Tāpī, took Indore and succeeded in driving Kāśirāv into exile. Daulatrāv managed to take possession of Jijābāī, the wife of Malhārrāv along with her infant son Khaṇḍerāv and kept them secure in his camp.

Affair of the ladies.

This episode was symptomatic of the trouble that plagued the families of the leading chiefs of the Marāṭhā State. It may be recalled that Mahādajī Śinde had left behind him three wives *viz.*, Lakṣmībāī, Yamunābāī and Bhāgirāthibāī. They demanded independent maintenance from Daulatrāv. On his refusal they took up arms against Daulatrāv and marched upon Pooṇā. On this many of their partisans were arrested and Nānā Phaḍṇīs was removed from the scene altogether and confined in the fort of Ahmadnagar on 6th April 1798. Daulatrāv met the ladies. He arranged for their residence at Burhāṇpūr. They, however, refused to move and demanded their property and the surrender of Sarzārāv. Muzaffar Khān, another military chief of Śinde joined the ladies' party and a civil war broke out on the outskirts of Pooṇā. Neither party agreed to budge an inch from the positions taken by it. Daulatrāv and Bājīrāv felt that Nānā Phaḍṇīs alone could set the matters right. Nānā was brought back. He insisted upon the departure of Śinde to the north. Bājīrāv, however, could not allow such an eventuality to take place due to his insecure position and fear of Nānā's ability. The ladies' affair was still unsettled. They started depredations southwards making common cause with the Sātārā and Kolhāpūr Rājās. Two of their followers, Yeśvantrāv Śivājī and Bāḷājī Kṛṣṇa, started independent depredations in the *Peśvā's* districts of Nāśik and Khāndeś. Joining in the struggle between Daulatrāv Śinde and the ladies, Yeśvantrāv attacked Daulatrāv's forces, plundered their camp and drove them from

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Khāndeś. He wandered through the wild regions of Tāpī and Narmadā. He collected a faithful band of Bhil followers and commenced raiding the territories of Sultānpūr and Nandurbār in north Khāndeś. He moved to Dhār when he heard that his brother Kāśirāv was marching against him. He had to leave that place when Daulatrāv Śinde instigated the Rājā of Dhār, Anandrāv Pavār, to expel him. He was, however, determined to fight a war against Śinde. He proclaimed Khaṇḍerāv as the rightful heir of the Hoḷkar estate and thus won over many of the old servants of the Hoḷkar house. One of the ladies, Yamunābāī was stabbed on 14th January 1800 and in desperation the ladies moved to the north to renew hostilities there. Yeśvantrāv paid them a visit and offered them help against Daulatrāv. In the meanwhile attempts of the *rājā* of Sātārā to achieve independence were put down by Bājīrāv with the help of Daulatrāv Śinde. On March 13, 1800 Nānā Phaḍṇīs died. With his death was removed one of the great personalities from the Marāṭhā political scene. Daulatrāv, on hearing of the depredations of Yeśvantrāv, left Pooṇā in December 1800, appointing Bāḷojī Kuñjar and Sarzārāv Ghāṭge to look after the administration and safety of Bājīrāv. Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar now returned to the Narmadā to face the advancing army of Daulatrāv Śinde. When Yeśvantrāv moved like lightning his brother Viṭhojī did not remain idle. He carried fire and sword through Mahārāṣṭra, having been joined by all the refractory elements that had so long suffered at the hands of Bājīrāv and Daulatrāv. The region between Khāndeś and the Kṛṣṇa became one general scene of anarchy and chaos. Plunder and fire raged everywhere and no vestiges of organised rule could be seen. Viṭhojī Hoḷkar declared Bājīrāv as incompetent and proclaimed himself as the agent of Amṛtrāv. Viṭhojī was, however, captured by a contingent sent by Bājīrāv under Bāpū Gokhale. Viṭhojī was done to death by Bājīrāv. When these events were taking place in Pooṇā, Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar was engaged in a fierce struggle with Daulatrāv on the banks of the Narmadā. Daulatrāv had reached the Narmadā at the end of May 1801 and the fight continued for four months. He sent repeated summons to Śarzārāv to come to his help. Śarzārāv reached there on 9th October leaving behind him a trail of plunder and devastation. Both of them defeated Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar. However in another action fought on 30th October, Yeśvantrāv inflicted a crushing defeat upon Śarzārāv. Daulatrāv now offered to negotiate. Yeśvantrāv refused and collecting round him a band of devoted followers started the year (1802) with resounding exploits. He had already secured the person of Kāśirāv, his brother, and now desired the custody of his nephew Khaṇḍerāv who was in the possession of Daulatrāv. Bājīrāv now directed him to take up his residence at Thāḷner in Khāndeś and accordingly Yeśvantrāv pitched his camp on the banks of Tāpī. Yeśvantrāv now demanded of Bājīrāv a redress of his grievances. Foolishly Bājīrāv refused to listen. Yeśvantrāv now sent two of his chiefs Fatesinh Māne and Śahāmat Khān to exact retribution from Bājīrāv's domains. He himself moved south from Thāḷner. Forgetting the assassination of his

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brother Viṭhojī, Yeśvantrāv demanded the surrender of Khaṇḍerāv. Bājīrāv, to add fuel to the fire, confiscated the estates of Hoḷkar and paid no heed to the advice rendered by Parāśar Dādājī and Ahilyābāi's trusted secretary Govindpant Gānū to conciliate Yeśvantrāv. On the contrary Śarzārāv put Khaṇḍerāv with a few others in fetters in the fort of Aśirgaḍ. To checkmate Yeśvantrāv, Daulatrāv marched from the north. Thoroughly exasperated, Yeśvantrāv moved south from Thāḷner where he learnt of the arrival of the Śinde's army at Burhāṇpūr. Yeśvantrāv again wrote a respectful letter to Bājīrāv requesting him to undo the wrong. Bājīrāv sent an evasive reply asking Hoḷkar to withdraw. Yeśvantrāv moved on, crossing the Kāsārbari pass near Cāḷisgāṅv. Bājīrāv perhaps wanted to gain time pending the arrival of the disciplined troops of Śinde to his succour. Yeśvantrāv realised the trick and pressed on to the Godāvarī. Passing through west Khāndeś, Yeśvantrāv utterly ruined and laid it waste. He descended upon Ahmadnagar and sacked it with great fury. The helpless and terror stricken Bājīrāv wanted to send an agent to Yeśvantrāv with dresses, for negotiations but was prevented from his task by the strong protestations of Śinde. Sadāśiv Bhāskar, the Bakṣī of Śinde arrived in Pooṇā on 22nd October 1802. In the meanwhile Yeśvantrāv had arrived at Bārāmati. He informed Bājīrāv of his desire to negotiate, adding that his enmity was not with the *Peśvā* but with Daulatrāv Śinde and that he (*Peśvā*) should act as the master. But all this proved to be of no avail and the issue was settled on the battle-field at Haḍapsar when Hoḷkar completely overwhelmed Śinde (25th October 1802). Bājīrāv fled from Pooṇā and inspite of the hand of friendship again offered by Yeśvantrāv, sought the protection of the English. Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar, with the support and backing of all the Marāṭhā chiefs except the Gāikvād, declared Amṛtrāv as the *Peśvā* replacing Bājīrāv. A council consisting of Hoḷkar, Bhosle and Paṭvardhan was proposed with a place for Śinde. Appeals were sent to Bājīrāv to refrain from taking any unilateral decisions with the English. But Bājīrāv would have none of it and he practically surrendered the sovereignty of the Marāṭhā State to the English by the treaty of Bassein which was concluded on 31st December 1802. The issue was not now confined as a mere conflict between the Śinde and the Hoḷkar. It assumed the nature of a struggle between the English and the Marāṭhā State. The English forces now advanced against Poona under Colonel Wellesley. Wellesley informed Yeśvantrāv that he would not be disturbed if he withdrew from Pooṇā. Hoḷkar had suffered heavily in his recent clash with Śinde. In the absence of a firm support from Śinde or any other Marāṭhā chief, he thought it wise to agree and accordingly withdrew from Pooṇā. Passing through east Khāndeś on his way north, Hoḷkar ruined it as utterly as he had before ruined the west. The English plan was to temporarily oppose Hoḷkar and make him innocuous, lull Bājīrāv into inactivity and destroy Śinde whose power was yet to be reckoned with. Wellesley reached Pooṇā on 20th April 1803 and on 13th May Bājīrāv was installed as *Peśvā*. Śinde was at this time at Burhāṇpūr. He decided

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a plan of concerted action with Bhosle of Nāgpūr against the English but valuable time was lost before these chiefs could come together. In the meanwhile the English succeeded in detaching Amṛtrāv from the coalition formed against them by giving him a permanent provision. Bājīrāv on the other hand, when the Marāṭhā State was faced with the grim realities of the intentions of the English, failed to take the cue and wasted his life in pleasure and merry-making. Neither the English nor any of his so-called followers trusted him. He wanted the Hoḷkar to be punished. He wanted to free himself from British thraldom. But he neither had the capacity to face the situation or the ingenuity to organise the rescoures of the State against the English. The English motives were clear. They wanted to destroy Marāṭhā independence and disarm the principal chiefs of the Marāṭhā State *viz.*, Bhosle, Hoḷkar and Śinde. A messenger, Colonel Collins, was sent to the Śinde's camp at Burhāṇpūr who reached there on 27th February 1803. An unsuccessful dialogue went between the two about Śinde accepting the treaty of Bassein. On 4th May 1803 Śinde left Burhāṇpūr to meet the forces of Bhosle who had moved from Nāgpūr. The English prepared for war at the same time waiting for a definite reply from Śinde and Bhosle who met at Boḍvād on 4th June 1803. The wranglings went on till 31st July 1803. The English ultimately declared war on Śinde and Bhosle. Śinde and Bhosle sent a communication to Hoḷkar to join the alliance against the English. Yeśvantrāv in his reply to Raghujī Bhosle said "I have already explained my requirements to your *vakils* at Pooṇā and have repeated the same to you in writing. I have kept myself perfectly ready to join you in defence of our State and religion. Instead of complying with my request you simply asked me to return from Khāndeś to Cāndvaḍ. I at once came back. You know how during the last few months I have been begging you for the restoration of the Hoḷkar territories seized by Śinde. As soon as he satisfies this request I am ready to join you. I await your reply at Bhikaṇgāṅv."[1] Daulatrāv failed to satisfy these demands and by his duplicity alienated Hoḷkar who left for Māḷvā. Hostilities now started and the English won a decisive victory over Śinde and Bhosle in the battle fought at Asai on 23rd September 1803 at an enormous cost. The English under Stevenson entered Khāndeś and captured Burhāṇpūr (15th October 1803) and the fort of Asirgaḍ (21st October 1803). After the further defeat at Āḍgāṅv (28th November 1803) Śinde was forced to sue for peace. Under the terms of the treaty then made a portion of his territory in Khāndeś was restored to Śinde. Another portion was given to the *Peśvā*. The treaty is known as the treaty of Surjī-Añjangāṅv. It was signed on 30th December 1803. The power of Śinde was so much reduced that within two months of the treaty of Surjī-Añjangāṅv, Daulatrāv begged the English to supply him with a subsidiary force. For this a supplementary treaty was concluded on 27th February 1804 which is known as the treaty of Burhāṇpūr. A separate treaty known as the treaty of Devgāṅv was made with Raghujī Bhosle on 17th December 1803.

Treaty of Surji-Anjangaon.

Treaty of Devgaon.

[1] *Aitihasik Patravyavahar*, 373.

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Yeśvantrāv continued his predatory activities in the north by collecting *Cauth* and claiming it to be his traditional right. War was therefore declared upon Hoḷkar. While Yeśvantrāv was occupied in the north all his possessions in the south, *viz.*, Cāndvaḍ, Lāsalgāṅv, Dhoḍap, Gāḷṇā and his share of Khāndeś were occupied by the English during September and October 1804. It may be noted that the Marāṭhā chiefs had accepted the terms of treaty under duress. Daulatrāv Śinde became restive. He left Burhāṇpūr and proceeded to Bundelkhaṇḍ with a view to joining Hoḷkar and organizing an anti-British confederacy. Śinde and Hoḷkar met at Sābaḷgaḍ. The offensive and aggressive policy of the G. G. Lord Wellesly was regarded as mainly responsible for the state of disorder that prevailed in the country. He was recalled and Lord Cornwallis was appointed as the new G. G. Cornwallis started for the upper provinces and it was left to Malcolm and Lake to restore the situation. A threatening letter to Śinde separated him from Hoḷkar. He was immediately reconciled by the confirmation of the treaty of Surjī-Añjangāṅv by a fresh treaty. The English agreed not to enter into any engagement with Śinde's tributaries and not to interfere in his conquests from Hoḷkar between the Tāpī and the Cambaḷ. This treaty is known as the treaty of Mustafāpūr. It was concluded on 21st November, 1805. The conflict with Yeśvantrāv, however, was protracted. The English offensive against him was tarnished by Colonel Manson's retreat and by the failure of the siege of Bharatpūr. Ultimately Hoḷkar sued for peace receiving back all his land south of the Cambaḷ. The treaty was concluded on 24th December 1805 and is known as the treaty of Rājghāṭ. The elimination of the alliance against the English and the signing of separate treaties with the three principal Marāṭhā chiefs ended all semblance of *Peśvā's* control over them. He became one like them. His jurisdiction extended to Khāndeś in the north and the river Tuṅgabhadrā in the south.

Khandesh Famine.

Khāndeś was now in a miserable plight. On the top of the ruin wrought by Hoḷkar came a failure of rains. No harvest was reaped, the whole stock of cattle perished and the people dying or flying to Gujarāt left many parts of the district desolate. It was depopulated and the roads were not practicable except with a guard that might almost be called an army. The Bhils who were among the chief hill tribes and who had before lived with the other inhabitants now commanded the passes where their power was considerable[1]. They had worked as village watchmen and had been the great instruments of policing the area. They retired to the hills. The whole range of hills was subject to the command of their chieftains who had not only the aboriginal Bhil race at their command but generally a few Arab and Hindustani soldiers whom they retained to assist in enforcing contributions from merchants and travellers. It was through these hills that marauders penetrated, and pillaged the rich plain villages and escaped, the hills were almost inaccessible to detachments of regular

[1] Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan*, II, 96.

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troops. Against such an enemy no weapons were thought too cruel or too base. In 1808 at Kopergāṅv one Bāḷājī Lakṣmaṇ tempted from the hills a large body of the Cāndor Bhils. He then surrounded and massacred them. This treachery only made the Bhils fierce, and the Marāṭhā officers retaliated by most cruel massacres at Cāḷisgāṅv, Dharaṇgāṅv and Antūr. Unable to protect themselves, the chiefs and large land-holders called in the aid of Arab mercenaries. These foreigners soon rose to power. Saving their pay and giving it out at interest they became the chief money-lenders of the district, levying large sums both from their employers and from the general body of the people. Besides the Bhil plunderers and Arab usurpers, the district suffered from the exactions of its fiscal officers, who farming the revenues for a year or for a short term of years left no means untried in their efforts to wring money from the people.

There were also the Karnāṭak mercenaries, entertained by every petty proprietor, who had made themselves very obnoxious. Gulzār Khān Ṭhoke, the holder of the strong fort of Lāsūr, enlisted a body of Arabs to oppose them Unable to pay or control his Arabs, he used to let them loose on the country around, till at last the other proprietors, entering into a league against him, bribed his Arabs to assassinate him in Lāsūr, and his eldest son, Alliyār Khān in Copḍā. A second son, Alif Khān, escaping from Lāsūr, took refuge with Suryājīrāv Nimbāḷkar of Yāval. Returning to Lāsūr with some Karnatak mercenaries lent him by Nimbāḷkar, Alif Khān, on pretence of paying the Arabs their arrears, entered the fort with the Karnāṭak troops, and seizing the Arabs, put them to death. Instead of being in possession of his fort, Alif Khān found that the Karnāṭak troops had orders to hold the fort for their master, Nimbāḷkar. Driven to despair Alif Khān allied himself with the Bhils and plundered without mercy. At last Nimbāḷkar agreed to give up the fort for a money payment of Rs. 10,000.[1]

Nasirābād, locally known as Sol Nimbhorā, from its having sixteen villages under it, was several times plundered by the Sātmāḷā Bhils. In 1807 it was plundered by a freebooter named Jubā, and again, just before the great famine of 1803, by one of *Peśvā's* officers.[2] Thāḷner was made over to Hoḷkar by the *Peśvā* but Hoḷkar, in about 1800, pledged it to Nimbāḷkar.

Disturbances (1796-1818).

Sultānpūr was a handsome town as late as 1803. The local story of the destruction of Sultānpūr is that Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar, escaping from Pooṇā, came to Sultānpūr, then part of Hoḷkar's dominions and forming an alliance with the Bhils, plundered such of the people as would not acknowledge him as their king. Among those who refused allegiance was Lakṣmaṇrāv Desāī, the chief man of Sultānpūr. Taking up his quarters at Cikli[3] whose Bhil chieftain Jugar Nāik was

[1] This sum Captain Briggs advanced to the Thoke family and occupied the fort with British troops. Bom. Gaz. XII, 454-55.

[2] After this the village wall was built by one of the Purandares to whom the town was given in grant—Bom. Gaz. XII 460.

[3] A village about six miles west of Sultanpur.

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his friend, Hoḷkar sent a letter to Lakṣmaṇrāv, calling on him to pay Rs. 500. Lakṣmaṇrāv replied by scoffing at Hoḷkar's caste and taunting him with illegitimate birth. Hearing of this and fearing Hoḷkar's vengeance, Kṛpārām Dagārām, a rich banker, went to Hoḷkar and offered him the tribute of Rs. 500. Satisfied by this that he might rely on a party in Sultānpūr, Hoḷkar, with his Bhil ally, entered the town and winning over the garrison, plundered the Desāī's house. Then the Bhils were let loose, the town was laid waste. Except one man all the people fled.[1] Rāver, too, was ravaged by Yeśvantrāv in 1800. It was, shortly after, taken by Sūryājīrāv Nimbāḷkar.[2] In the ruin that fell on the Khāndeś in 1803, Dhulia was utterly deserted. In the following year Bāḷājī Baḷvant, a dependent of Viṭhal Narsiṅg Viñcūrkar, re-peopled the village and in return received from Viñcūrkar deed granting him certain lands and privileges.[3] At the same time the fort was repaired. Being afterwards entrusted with the entire management of the districts of Songir and Lāliṅg, Bāḷājī Baḷvant fixed his headquarters at Dhulia and continued to exercise his authority till 1818, when the country passed to the British.

In 1816 a new enemy fell on Khāndeś. The Peṇḍhārīs, under the guidance of the Musalmān Bhils of the eastern hills entered by the Aśirgaḍ pass. With no troops to oppose them, they plundered at leisure, causing more misery than either the Bhils or Arabs. In 1816, every village in the neighbourhood was in ruins. The Peṇḍhārī leader, Ghodjī Bhosle, even in the early years, had plundered Gāndhī,[4] the first place of the Gujarāt Śrāvak Vāṇīs in Khāndeś. But the year 1817 had dawned and the British Government were feverishly preparing for operations against the Peṇḍhārīs.[5] The Governor-General opened the campaign on 16th October 1817. Lieutenant Davies with a body of the Nizām's horse, dispersed and drove the Peṇḍhārīs from Khāndeś. Ciṭū, the most formidable of the Peṇḍhārī chiefs, was hunted with restless and relentless vigour until he was driven into a jungle near Aśirgaḍ, where he was devoured by a tiger.

Still the district was in great disorder. The condition of Khāndeś was highly anarchical almost unexampled, as Elphinstone observed, "even in Asia".[6] Thus driven by war and pestilence of the plains

[1] *Bom. Gaz.* XII, 471-72.

[2] *Ibid.* 468.

[3] The deed states that the district had been ruined, first by rebels and then by a famine, that the few inhabitants had fled, that the country round was overgrown with brushwood, and that Balaji had cleared the thickets and brought traders and husbandmen to settle, had helped them with money to build houses, had established a mart and in other respects made the town habitable, *Bom. Gaz.* XII, 442 c/f Mr. Pollen c. s.

[4] Six miles north-east of Amalner.

[5] During the two years 1815 and 1816 the Pendharis had traversed the whole of Peninsular India twice.

[6] Shashi Bhushan Chaudhuri, "*Civil Disturbances during the British Rule in India* (1765-1857)", 157, c/f Elphinstone's letter to T. H. Villiers (pp. 1831-32 (commons), Vol. XIV, paper 735-VI, p. 154).

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against which there was no protection, the Bhils became refractory by temperament, and retired to their mountain fastnesses where they entrenched themselves strongly under the leadership of their chiefs, in "hive-like habitations" crested at the top of each hill, throwing strong defences around. This being the situation, the occupation of Khāndeś by the British in 1818 was calculated to increase the restlessness of the people. Graham noted with characteristic accuracy, smarting also under the repeatedly broken pledges of the former Native Government, and rendered savage from the wholesale slaughter of their families and relations, the Bhils were more than usually suspicious of a new government of foreigners, and less than ever inclined to submit to the bonds of order and restraint.[1]

In the north, the Sātpuḍās were the nest of these disaffected Bhils, in the south, Sātmāḷā and Ajaṇṭā Bhils, in different organised groups, were led by 32 leaders, and started up in every direction with fire and sword. In the insurrection of 1817, in Khāndeś, the complicity of Trimbakjī was suspected by the British authorities. It appears that after his escape from the fort of Ṭhāṇā, he sought security in the Bhil settlement and excited a rising there by engaging the Bhils in their predatory incursions. Elphinstone asked the *Peśvā* to secure the seizure and arrest of the rebel minister, but Bājīrāv asserted that Trimbakjī had never been with the insurgents, to which Elphinstone was obliged to reply: "Many persons had seen Trimbakjī, and that his two nephews, Goḍājī Deṅgḷe and Malupā Deṅgḷe were now at the head of the insurrection in Khāndeś, and that the number of the insurgents was about 8,000."[2]

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Meanwhile the last great Marāṭhā alliance against the English was completed. The events leading to it were as under: When the treaty of Bassein was concluded Bājīrāv virtually surrendered his right to control the Marāṭhā chiefs to the English. Bājīrāv, at the time, had not understood implications of this. As soon as he returned to Pooṇā he expected the English to support him in his bid to exercise his authority over the Marāṭhā chiefs. The English indirectly made separate treaties with Bhosle, Śinde, Hoḷkar and Gāikvāḍ and made the position very clear in the award signed at Paṇḍharpūr on 19th July 1812. Bājīrāv now considered it necessary to have a disciplined corps of infantry. The Governor-General granted the permission and a force was raised under Major Ford. The troubles with the English had not stopped and Bājīrāv expecting a war sooner or later started preparations by augmenting his forces. A dispute arose between Bājīrāv and Gāikvāḍ of Baroḍā in regard to the payment of yearly tribute which had accumulated. Fatesinh Gāikvāḍ sent his agent Gaṅgādhar Śāstrī to Pooṇā to conclude a settlement with Bājīrāv. The Śāstrī arrived in Pooṇā in January 1814. Soon however the Śāstrī found that Bājīrāv was bent upon

[1] *Historical sketch of the Bhil Tribes of Khandesh* (1843) 4. Chaudhuri, o. c. 157.

[2] Chaudhuri, o. c. 157.

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extracting money rather than arriving at a settlement. The events culminated in the murder of Śāstrī at Paṇḍharpur on July 20, 1815. The author of the plot was Trimbakjī Deṅgle, a henchman and adviser of Bājīrāv. The English forced Bājīrāv to surrender the rebels. Trimbakjī had been confined in the fort at Ṭhāṇā from where he made good his escape on the evening of September 12, 1816. He rode through jungles to north Khāndeś and lived for some months with the wild tribes of the region. Bājīrāv covertly supported Trimbakji and it appeared that hostilities would again start between the English and the Marāṭhās. In June 1817, the English imposed another treaty on Bājīrāv with strict terms, thus depriving him of all power and authority. Exasperated, Bājīrāv resorted to war with the English. On the 5th of November 1817, the *Peśvā* declared war against the British. Twenty days later the Nāgpūr chief followed his example. After Yeśvantrāv Hoḷkar's death his wife Tuḷśībāī possessing more than common ability for public affairs, assumed power in the name of Malhārrāv, a son of Yeśvantrāv from another wife, then four years old, and managed with considerable ability the concerns of the Hoḷkar State with the help of Gaṇpatrāv and his associate Tatyā Jog. Her greatest difficulty arose from want of funds, without which she could not maintain the army. Without the army she could not govern. Daulatrāv Śinde, too, pounded upon the undefended possessions of the Hoḷkar with great vehemence. In the midst of such unbearable situation, urgent calls arrived from the *Peśvā* at Pooṇā for her forces to join in an anti-British drive. Malcolm gave her terms but real power had now passed from her hands into those of the Pathāṇ leaders who controlled the soldiery, particularly Rośan Beg, who was at the head of the disciplined regiments and Rāmdin who commanded the Marāṭhā horse then considered the finest in India. They resolved to help the *Peśvā* with an army of 26,000 men. The military chiefs believed that Tuḷśibāī and her advisers were willing to sell them to the British and determined to baffle her design.

On the evening of the 19th December 1817, they seized the regent and the Minister. At day break on 20th, Tuḷśibāī was beheaded, on the banks of the Sipna river at Mahidpūr (about 30 miles north of Ujjain) and the insurgent generals began their southward march.

They were met, immediately, by Sir John Malcolm and Sir Thomas Hislop and were defeated on 21st December 1817. By the treaty of Mandsaur on 6th January, 1818, concluded after this defeat, all the Hoḷkar territory south of the Sātpuḍās including the entire province of Khāndeś, was ceded to the British.

Meanwhile the *Peśvā* was defeated at Kirkee (5th November 1817) and again at Aṣṭā (19th February 1818). He was joined by his faithful friend Trimbakjī with his bands of marauding troops, in his flight. Despairing of aid either from Nāgpūr or Śinde, the *Peśvā* retired, after the action fought on 17th April near Śivnī, between Māhūr and Umarkhed, against Col. Adams, to save his life, towards

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Northern India. He crossed the Tāpī on 5th May, hoping to find shelter at Aśirgaḍ then in Śindes' possession. The keeper of the fort Yeśvantrāv Lāḍ had indeed received secret orders from his master to admit the *Peśvā* and offer him safety. But large parties of British forces poured upon the spot from different directions and Lāḍ found himself unable to extend any help to Bājīrāv. On 31st May, Malcolm escorted by 300 men moved to a village named Kheri where the *Peśvā* had arrived with about 2,000 horse, 800 infantry and two guns. On 1st June, Malcolm went to the *Peśvā's* camp and fixing up some of the terms of the treaty, insisted that Bājīrāv must go to the British camp within 24 hours. In addition Malcolm demanded the surrender of his minister Trimbakjī Deṅgle. The *Peśvā* urged that it was not, in his power to apprehend Deṅgle, as the latter commanded a strong force.[1] By 10 o'clock, on the morning of 3rd June 1818, the *Peśvā* surrendered himself[2].

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Sir Thomas Hislop, to whom fell the duty of bringing to order the bands of Arabs and other mercenaries entered Khāndeś from Sindvā and passed unopposed to Thāḷner in February 1818. But the capture of Thāḷner[3] proved one of the bloodiest incidents in the conquest of Khāndeś.

"A sick officer in a palanquin was passing alone towards the new ground but was obliged to turn back by a fire of matchlocks directed at him from the walls of the place" at the same time, a gun opened with round shot on the head of the baggage entering the plain, and obliged it, likewise, to fall back. The unexpected occurrence of this hostile demonstration on the part of Thāḷner was announced to Sir

[1] The Peshwa repudiated his minister and informed Malcolm that the British might deal with him as they liked.

[2] Bajirao's military following was disbanded when he crossed the Narmada on 12th June 1818. He proceeded to the North with a retinue of 600 horsemen and 200 footmen with Ramchandrapant Subhedar and Baloba Salkade and other dependents. Lt. Low was permitted to accompany Bajirao at his request. Malcolm; *Political History of India*, 1521; II Appendix V, p. ccxv.

[3] A fort which commands a ford over the Tapi river, situated on the north bank, 83 miles west from Burhanpur. By Abul Fazal it is noticed as the capital of Adilshah, A. D. 1406. After the dissolution of the Moghal empire it came early into the possession of the Marathas, and was one of the cessions made by the Holkar family, at the Treaty of Mundenor-Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan II, 10*. One side of Talneir fort rises out of the Taptee and the three other sides are surrounded by a hollow way varying in width from one hundred to one hundred and fifty yards. The walls rise to the height of about sixty feet above this hollow and the interior of the fort has the same elevation. The only entrance is on the eastern side, and secured by five successive gates, communiting by intricate traverses, whose enclosures gradually rise to the height of them in wall. A winding ramp, interspersed in some places with steps, ascends through the gates to the terre-pleine of the rampart. Great native ingenuity had been exercised to render this part as strong as possible, apparently under the idea that the profile of the rest rendered it secure, notwithstanding the absence of a ditch. The ground immediately surrounding the hollow way, is cut by deep ravines, which run into it, Blacker, *Memoirs on Maratha War, I*, 229.

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Thomas Hislop by a spy.[1] A summons was sent to the commandant and a close reconnaissance was made. The party descended into the ravines surrounding the fort and then ascended into the town, driving out a small party of the Marāṭhās. As it was ascertained that the enemy had no guns on the western face, where there was water and comparatively clear ground on the river bank, General Hislop resolved to encamp there, and attack the place from the north-east angle. With this object two five-and-a-half-inch hovitzers with ten sixpounders, which were the only guns in the camp, were moved down the beds of the ravines. They were carried to positions in the town, where the houses gave tolerable cover to batteries which opened within 250 and 300 yards of the north-east angle of the fort. In a few hours, during which, by the well aimed fire of match-locks from the walls, several casualties had occurred, the Marāṭhās were nearly silenced but no progress had been made in reducing the garrisons, who it was thought would surrender as soon as any serious demonstration was made against them. Further examination of the place showed that the outergate was in a ruinous state and promised cover in the traverses, while a commanding position immediately opposite to it overlooked the nearest defences.[2] For these reasons it was determined to attack the gates. Two guns were opened on the traverses, with considerable effect, while two others were, by a detour, brought to a position whence with the view of blowing it open, they might easily be run up to the gate. At the same time a storming party, consisting of the flank companies of His Majesty's Royal Scots and of the Madrās European Regiment, under Major Gordon of the former corps, was brought down to the same place. Indifferent as the Marāṭhās had hitherto been, the preparation against the gate did not fail to alarm them and they sent out to demand terms to capitulation. In reply they were told that unconditional surrender alone would be accepted and they were invited to avail themselves of this offer before the assault of the gates should commence.[3]

The evening was now advanced and the Marāṭhās probably trusted to the approaching darkness for an opportunity of abandoning the place. To prevent this the guns and storming party were ordered to advance to the gate. This was done without loss. It was found that in consequence of its ruinous state there was a passage for single files between the wall and the gate frame; and no opposition being offered from within, the storming party followed by the pioneers, entered, though tediously, without difficulty. After the passage of the storming party, endeavours were made to blow open the outer gate so that the guns might be advanced to the remainder. But before

[1] It never was apprehended that this insulated place would be resisting inasmuch as, Sindva, a place with much greater name or strength, had immediately surrendered on the production of Holkar's note—Blacker, *Memoirs on Maratha War, I*, 228.

[2] Such in the present instance, was the injudiciousness of having the outer walls lower than those within, *Blacker, o. c.* I, 230.

[3] *Blacker o. c.* I, 230.

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that was effected, the storming party had passed through the second gate without opposition. At the third it was met by the commandant, accompanied by a number of the Bunyans whom he had forced into the fort, on the previous evening.[1] The commandant himself gave up to the Adjutant General Lieutenant Colonel Conway.

Lieutenant Colonels Conway and Murray, with several others, had entered with the storming party and it was still doubtful whether resistance would ultimately be made, for at this time, there was none. They accordingly passed through the fourth gate, which as well as the second, appeared so much out of repair as to be incapable of being shut; but at the fifth or last gate they were stopped though the wicket was opened. The Arabs within insisted on terms. A hurried conversation about the terms of surrender now took place. It was probably little intelligible under the circumstances of noise and apprehension which attended it. Colonel Murray, in this state of uncertainty, concluding that there was an urgent necessity for establishing a footing such as would secure eventual success to the attack, should the enemy hold out, entered by the wicket with Major Gordon and three grenadiers, but refrained from drawing his sword, to show that he had no intention of breaking the parleys.[2] He expected to be followed by as many men as should be able to maintain themselves in a confined situation, but four or five persons only had got in, when the enemy, apprehending the consequences, attacked most furiously and in a moment laid them all dead, except Colonel Murray, who covered with wounds fell towards the wicket.[3] Then they attempted to close the wicket but their efforts were rendered ineffectual, by a grenadier who thrust his musket into the aperture while Lieutenant Colonel Mackintosh[4] and Captain MacCraith forced it open. In this state it was held while the captain with one hand was dragging Colonel Murray through it, and warding off blows with his sword in the other. A fire was now poured in through the wicket, which cleared the gateway sufficiently for the head of the storming party, under Major MacGregor of the Royals to enter; and the place was carried without further difficulty, but at the expense of that officer's life.[5] As soon as the supporting detachment could open the gate, many troops poured in, the garrison was shortly put to the sword, and the commandant was hanged on the same evening to a tree on the flag-staff tower.[6]

[1] Blacker, *o. c.* I, 231; Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan*, II, 101.

[2] Blacker, *o. c.* I, 231.

[3] Major Gordon and Captain MacGregor, lost their lives and Colonel MacGregor was wounded severely, as also Lieutenant MacGregor and Lieutenant Chauval Hamilton, *o. c.* II, 101.

[4] This officer belonging to the commissariat, accompanied the storming party like a few other staff officers, without orders. Blacker, *o. c.* I, 232 F. N.

[5] Two tombs, erected to the memory of the officers killed bear the following inscription: No. I, "Here lie entombed, the remains of Major R. MacGregor of H. M.'s Royal Scots, who fell in the assault and storming of this fort on the 27 February 1818". No. II "Here lie entombed the remains of Major J. Gordon of H. M.'s Royal Scots, who fell in the assault and storming of this fort on the 27th February 1818".

[6] The Marathas lost about 250 killed, and the loss in British troops amounted to twenty-five. Blacker, *o. c.* 232; Appendix L; p. 459, Hamilton *o. c.* II, 101.

From Thāḷner, Sir Thomas Hislop marched on Beṭāvad. A Brāhmaṇ named Dājī Gopāḷ, with about 300 followers had held Beṭāvad and driving out the Māmlatdār levied contributions from the country round. On the surrender of Thāḷner[1], he left the fort. It was quietly taken by the British troops. At Beṭāvad the force divided, the commander-in-chief marching along the Borī and General Doveton keeping to the banks of the Girṇā.[2] By the end of March 1818 except Sultānpūr, Nandurbār, Aḍāvad and Rāver, all Hoḷkar's possessions south of the Sātpūḍas were held by the British. Nandurbār was taken possession of in June 1818 by a detachment under Major Jardine.[3]

Amaḷner fort, one of the chief posts in Khāndeś, nominally held for the *Peśvā* by Mādhavrāv Rājā Bahādūr, was really in the hands of his Arab soldiers. On leaving the fort in obedience to orders, he gave the garrison strict injunction to surrender it to no one, not even to the *Peśvā*. This order was strictly obeyed, for after the chief had succeeded in re-establishing himself in the good graces of his master, the garrison refused to admit him. They afterwards acknowledged him and he returned. But when he wished to hand over the place to the British authorities, they would not allow him to do so. After many attempts to purchase their submission had failed, they were declared rebels. A force under Colonel Huskinsson, amounting to 1,000 European foot, 800 infantry and 250 irregular horse, had marched from Mālegāṅv. Summoned to unconditional surrender the garrison at first refused. But finding all way of escape blocked, after some delay they laid their arms outside of the fort and advancing into the bed of the river were made prisoners. The exactions of this garrison and their commandant Ali Jamādār were remembered long by the people in that area.[4] The grenadiers of the 67th regiment had captured Amalner[5] on 30th November 1818. Next day Bahādurpūr[6] which, in most respects was the counterpart of Amaḷner surrendered in the same manner to their irregular horse under Lieutenant Swanston, which were sent to demand its submission and as there was no further occasion for the force in its collected state, it was broken up. "The headquarters returned to Mālegāṅv, for the occupation of Khāndeś, in which were left, of Madrās corps,

[1] Daji Gopal was one of Trimbakji Dengle's retainers.

[2] Blacker, Map accompanying the Memoirs, II, p. 7.

[3] Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan*, II, 101.

[4] *Blacker, o. c.* I, 399-401.

[5] In 1818, the fort was described as 200 feet square, surrounded on three sides by the town, and on the fourth washed by the river Bori. The wall on the riverside as well as the corner towers were lined with stone. The inside, filled nearly to the foot of the parapet, commanded the town, which was inclosed by an eight feet high wall, whose river face was likewise lined with stone. The three gates and the traverse thrown out to cover them were greatly out of repair. The place was of little importance as it was commanded by a hillock about 250 yards off, on the opposite bank of the river, Blacker, *o. c.* I, 400.

[6] This place, though it contained but a few Arabs, was of some importance, from its strength, and from its containing the residence of the chief of consequence and manufacturing of gunpowder, Blacker, *o. c.* I, 400.

the 1st Battalion of the 12th, the 2nd Battalion of the 13th, and the battalion of the 14th regiments of native infantry, with the sappers and miners and some pioneers.[1]"

Earlier in April of 1818, Cāḷisgāṅv and three other *Peśvā* territories were, in the British interests, taken by Mir Fast Ali, *Jahāgirdār* of Antūrgaḍ and Songīr, and the country around surrendered to Lieutenant Rule. To the north-east, where large bodies of Arabs harassed the plain country, Mir Fast Ali, supported by a battalion of infantry, two field guns, and 500 horses, pressed forward and clearing the country, placed it under the charge of Lieutenant Hodges, the Assistant Political Agent. Driven from the east, the Arabs retired to the west and massed their troops in the neighbourhood of Sultānpūr. To bring back the situation to order, Colonel MacGregor advanced on Sultānpūr and Nandurbār, Major Innes moving from Gāḷṇā to support him.

After the fall of Mālegāṅv, a body of troops was stationed at Songīr, another at Pāroḷā and a third at Dharaṇgāṅv. By the first of July 1818 except some isolated spots, the whole of Khāndeś was in the British hands.

On the 12th February 1819, as its commandant Jasvantrāv Lāḍ was believed to have given shelter to Āppā Sāheb the *ex*-ruler of Nāgpūr and to the famous Peṇḍhārī chief Ciṭū, Sir John Malcolm's force, consisting of Horse Artillery, the Third Cavalry and the First Battalion of Bombay Infantry marched against Aśirgad. He encamped within five thousand yards of the fort and remained there. On being joined by the Bombay Brigade and the battering guns which had been left in the rear, he moved to a position north-west of the fort. About this time, Lieutenant General Smith was engaged in closing the passes north of Aśirgaḍ with a view to intercept the escape of fugitive Peṇḍhārīs supposed to be concealed in the forests near the fort, if not within its walls. In the course of these operations he made a march of thirty-five miles and was on the point of taking Ciṭū prisoner, when his party dispersed. Āppā Sāheb likewise narrowly escaped.[2]

While trying to persuade Sir John Malcolm that he meant to surrender, it was now that Jasvantrāv Lāḍ was making active preparations for defence. Accordingly, as soon as reinforcements arrived from Jālnā, Mālegāṅv and Nāgpūr, an attack was planned. The forces set apart for the attack on the town were ordered to meet at midnight on the 17th March and to move a short time afterwards. The column of attack commanded by Colonel Fraser of the Royal Scots consisted of five companies of that regiment, the flanked companies of His Majesty's 30th and 67th Foot, and of the Madrās European Regiment, five companies of the First Battalion of the 12th Madrās Native Infantry and a detail of sappers and miners. The

[1] Blacker, *o. c.* I, 401.

[2] Blacker, *o. c.* I, 412-13.

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reserve under Major Dalrymple of His Majesty's 30th was composed of the companies of that regiment not employed in the column of attack, one company of the King's 67th Foot and one of Infantry from the First Battalion of the 7th Regiment, the First Battalion of the 12th and the Second Battalion of the 17th, with detachments from the 2nd and 7th Madrās Native Cavalry, and four Horse Artillery guns.[1]

The attacking column advanced along a stream bed running parallel to the works on the south side, till arriving within convenient distance of the town, they made a rush for the gate, and succeeded in gaining it. The reserve in the meantime in two parties, occupied points in the stream by which the column of attack had advanced and in another stream that ran parallel to it sufficiently near to allow of their rendering support. Sir John Malcolm had directed to distract the attention of the Marāṭhās by operations on the northern side and the duty was performed by a force composed of the 3rd Cavalry, the Second Battalion of the 6th Regiment, Madrās Native Infantry and the First Battalion of the 14th, the First Battalion of the 8th Regiment of Bombay Native Infantry, six howitzers, and two Horse Artillery guns. The town was carried very expeditiously and with small loss,[2] the troops finding immediate cover in the streets. In the course of the day a battery for six light howitzers was completed in the town and directed against the lower fort. On the night of the 19th March the Marāṭhās made a sally upon one of the British posts which was considerably advanced, but were soon repulsed. In the course of the same night a battery of eight heavy guns was completed. On the 20th at daybreak, its fire opened, and by the evening had effected a formidable breach in the lower fort, besides inflicting serious injury on some of the upper works. On that evening the Marāṭhās made another sally into the town and gained the main street. They were repulsed but success was accompanied by the loss of Colonel Fraser who fell in the act of rallying his men. On the morning of the 21st an accidential explosion in the rear of the breaching battery proved fatal to two native officers and about a hundred men. The disaster did not extend to the batteries, which continued firing with good effect. In the afternoon a mortar battery was completed, and some shells were thrown from it. For several days little occurred except the erection, on the night of the

[1] The Khandesh force moved from Malegaon, on the 25th of February, towards Amalner and from thence detached the engineers department, detail of sappers and miners and eight companies of His Majesty's 67th foot, with a company of pioneers, all of whom joined on the 9th March—Blackers, *o. c.* I, 413.

When all the detachments had joined, the besieging army under General Doveton and Sir John Malcolm amounted to 20,000 men. Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan*, II, 102.

[2] General Staff, Major Mecleod, Deputy Quarter-Master-General, wounded; H. M. Royal Scots, Lieutenant James Bland, wounded, one private killed, eleven privates wounded; one from Lascars or Deoley-bearers wounded—Blacker, *o. c.* I, Appendix Z, p. 476.

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24th of another battery three hundred and fifty yards to the left of the breaching battery. Two other batteries were subsequently erected, one on the south side to breach the lower fort in second place, the other designed to silence a large gun on the north-east bastion of the upper fort.[1] On the 29th two batteries were constructed for an attack on the east side of the fort. On the following morning the Marāṭhās abandoned the lower fort, which was immediately occupied by the British troops. The batteries which had been solely directed against the lower fort were now disarmed, and the guns removed from the town into the place which their fire had reduced. In the situation which had been gained, the firing against the upper fort was speedily resumed from various batteries, aided by others below. This continued for several days, and so many shots had been fired that a deficiency began to be feared, and a reward was offered by the besiegers for bringing back to the camp the shot previously expended. This expedient stimulated the activity of the camp followers and succeeded in producing an abundant supply. The operations of the siege were vigorously pursued till the 5th of April, when Jasvantrāv Lāḍ expressed a wish to negotiate.[2] Some intercourse took place, but the efforts of the besiegers so far from being slackened were increased. On the 8th Jasvantrāv Lāḍ repaired to General Doveton's headquarters to endeavour to procure terms, but in vain, and on the morning of the 9th British party took possession of the upper fort, the garrison descending into the town and grounding their match-locks in a square of British troops formed for their reception.

The Marāṭhās lost forty-three killed and ninety-five wounded and the British eleven European officers, four native officers, and ninety-five European and two hundred and thirteen native non-commissioned rank and file killed and wounded.[3]

The fall of Asirgad[4] closed the Marāṭhā campaign of 1818-1819. His Majesty's 67th Foot marched for Amalner, to join Colonel Huskinsson's force on the 12th April 1819.[5] Except Sindva, Songir, Lāling and others in important lines of communication, which were garrisoned by armed police, most of the hill forts were dismantled. The headquarters of the regular troops were fixed at Mālegāṅv and Captain Briggs as political agent took up his residence at the Central Station of Dhulia.[6]

[1] Blacker *o. c.* I, pp. 415-21.

[2] Blacker, *o. c.* I, 423.

[3] Blacker, *o. c.* I, *Appendix A, A.* p. 478.

[4] *Ibid*, 429; Hamilton, *Description of Hindostan* III, 102-103.

[5] Yeshwantrao Lad was at last captured, but so impressed were the captors by his chivalry that they allowed him freedom to go home instead of putting him to death. He died in misery in 1820. A large amount of secret correspondence of Daulatrav Shinde, Appasahib Bhosle and others was discovered at Ashirgad, of which Malcolm made ample use in writing his memories.

[6] For its central position and because it was on the highroad between Poona and Khandesh.

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At this time, on account of the maintenance of a body of horse, Śinde owned the British a considerable sum. To clear off the debt and meet future charges, it was arranged (1820) that Pācorā[1], Yāval,[2] Copḍā[3] and twelve villages in Lohāṛā should be made over to the British. Suryājīrāv Nimbāḷkar, son of Rāv Dhār Nimbāḷkar, entertained large bodies of troops known as Karnāṭak Śibandīs, which he lent to neighbouring proprietors. In 1821, when in the possession of Suryājīrāv Nimbāḷkar, Yāval was handed over to the British Government. For some time Yāval was the cause of considerable uneasiness and difficulty, as in the hope of recovering it, Śuryājīrāv Nimbāḷkar actively aided the Bhils and Peṇḍhārīs in their raids and efforts to cause disturbance.[4] Immediately after the acquisition of Khāndeś (1818), a detachment under Captain Briggs was stationed at Kukarmuṇḍā petty division.[5]

Bhil Disturbances.

Active measures were taken (1818) to put a stop to the irruption of the Bhils.[6] Captain Briggs hunted out several of their leaders.[7] Troops were posted along the passes of the hills to check their movements and to cut off their supplies.[8] These military measures together with a policy of forbearance adopted by Elphinstone, providing liberal provision for pensions and allowances for Bhil watchmen on the resumption of the police duties which were formerly discharged by them, were calculated to render the country

[1] Thirty-five miles south-east of Dhulia, on the railway line.

[2] Yaval was about 1788 granted to Rav Dhar Nimbalkar by the Shinde. By the payment of Rs. 3,50,000 to Kashirav Holkar, the Nimbalkars obtained possession of neighbouring districts of Raver, Thalner and Umbar and extended their territories four miles around. Yaval stands twelve miles west of Savda and nine north-east of Bhusawal.

[3] Hamilton describes it as a town belonging to Holkar, *Description of Hindostan*. II, 101. In 1820,, however, when it was handed over by Shinde it was the head of a sub-division, surrounded by country much covered with forest. In 1837, it was restored to Shinde and in 1844 again received by the British.

[4] In 1837 Yaval was restored to Shinde, with whom it remained till 1843, when it was received back by the British Government.

[5] Eight miles south-west of Taloda.

[6] Khobarekar, *Ingraji Sattevirudha Maharashtrantil Sashastra Uthava* (Marathi) (1818-1860), 17.

Chaudhuri, *Civil Disturbances during the British rule in India* (1765-1857), 158.

"Anarchy and lawless oppression had reached a fearful height and murder and rapine stalked openly and unrestrainedly through the land. Fifty notorious leaders infested this once flourishing "Garden of the West" and their every command was implicitly obeyed by upwards of five thousand ruthless followers whose sole occupation was pillage and robbery, whose delight, alone consisted in the murderous foray and whose subsistence depended entirely on the fruits of their unlawful spoil" Capt. D. C. Graham, *A brief Historical Sketch of the Bheel Tribes inhabiting the province of Khandesh* (1843), 4.

[7] "*Register of the disposal of the most formidable of the Bheel leaders*". Graham gives on page 22, the details of 48 Bheel chiefs.

[8] *Memorandum regarding the past and present state of the force employed for the protection of Chalisgaon, Bhurgaon and Jamner Talukas-Southern Agency*, Graham, *o. c.* 23.

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free of this "species of invasion". Experience had shown that in dealing with these refractory tribes the most effective policy would be to govern them through their native chiefs which would attach them to the interests of the Government. This attitude was undoubtedly much favoured by Elphinstone and the scheme of raising a Bhil Militia was also an expedient course taken to make the Bhils conform to the British system. Nādir Singh, a Bhil chief of great notoriety was apprehended through the influence of his associates.

In 1818, Goomania, the Aranuddy Nāīk, Feghy Khān, Jawā Wassāvā, the Boodavāl Rāṇā, Devjī Nāik, Rāmjee and Oochit, Bhylia and Cundoo received pensions from the British government. Goomania, though he accepted the terms, never personally visited the Political Agent. Guṅgā Nāik having attacked a detachment of Regulars, at Copḍā was killed in the fight. At the same time, an attempt to employ the Turfee Bhils as a Police corps failed. The British detachment marched against Kania Turvee Bhils. Dusrut sacked and destroyed a village. Malhārjī Deśmukh, too attacked Soorungana. The Aranuddy Nāiks returned their pensions and the money they had received from the British declaring that they would collect for themselves. The Thāḷner Parganā was plundered by the hill Bhils, whereupon Major McBean burned Kania's huts. But the ravages continued and Colonel Jardine's force had to move against them.

In 1819, the Bhils broke out in a general insurrection on all sides; the leaders holding out the different outposts of the hill area and sending out marauding parties to ravage the plains. Several detachments were employed against the rebels. Some of the outposts which provided access to their mountain strongholds were captured, but fresh leaders appeared to defend these key positions, and the jungle-war continued. Proclamations of amnesty were unheeded, not one of the tribes repaired to take advantage of the offer.[1] Expeditions were sent against many leaders but the whole district was in utter chaos and even the village police aided the plunderers. Cil Nāik was apprehended and hanged.

In 1820 Dusrut commenced the usual process of indiscriminate devastation and was joined by the famous Peṇḍhārī Śaikh Dullā, but Major Morin imposed considerable restraint on their excesses by occupying posts for hundred miles which forced the southern hill Bhils to surrender.[2]

1. Chaudhuri, *o. c.* 158. "Chumar Wulvej and 50 of his clan were killed by the Gaikwad Bhils and Koor Wussawa tendered his submission, Laxman Parvee was taken and pardoned. Boorhan Khan and Meer Khan received pension"—Graham, *o.c.* 15—16.

2 "Oochit cut down a Patel. Jundhoola, Jukria and Mohun with 1,200 followers surrendered to Major Morin, Sindhava road was impassable. Nowappor was attacked. Palaji Deshmukh was taken and executed. Koor Wussawa of Sackbassy ravaged Nowappor and Kokarmoonda with 400 followers—Soor-mull escaped" Graham, *o. c.* 16.

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Bhil Disturbances.

In 1821, there was no decrease in gang robbery. Military operations continued without success. The disturbances caused in the villages round Pāroḷā[1] and an attempt to assassinate Captain Briggs, brought on Lālā Bhāu Jhānśikar, the proprietor, the wrath of the British Government and though allowed to keep his estate, he was forced to give up his fort.

In 1822, a fresh incursion of the Bhils under the famous leader Hiria threw the country into a state of complete lawlessness. Anarchy and oppression reached a fearful height, gangs of Bhils scoured the country plundering in every direction, and the mamlatdars reported extreme alarm of the people.[2] Colonel Robinson who took the field in April 1823, obtained some success[3] in scattering the rebels and destroying their settlement. Then for two years, fierce retribution followed, the Bhils were caught and killed and many of them were also subjected to severe punishment. But though many were caught and killed fresh leaders were never wanting, their scattered followers again drew together, and quiet and order were as far off as ever.[4]

In 1825, the situation further deteriorated. These aboriginals were now used as tools in the hands of the interested political leaders. Śivrām, a blacksmith, produced forged papers from the Rājāh of Sātārā. He enticed the Bāglāṇ Bhils to rise up in an insurrection. The marauders, a party of 800 men, attacked and plundered Antāpūr and carried off the spoil to the hill fort of Milair (Murlimhar), but shortly after Lieutenant Outram surprised and dispersed the insurgents, and recovered a great part of the plunder. Later on, Śivrām and his followers were successfully encountered, most of whom received pardon and returned to ploughs.[5] Other leaders like Pendyā, Bundee, Sutvā committed depredations.

[1] In the Amalner Sub-division, twenty miles east of Dhulia, Parola was one of the largest and most prosperous towns in Khandesh with many weavers and a considerable trade.

[2] "The Burgaon and Errandole districts were infested with three large gangs, under the control of the famous fleet Heeria, Saiboo came in and was entertained to preserve the peace of the Chalisgaon district". Graham *o. c.* 17.

[3] Chaudhuri, *o. c.* 158 Khobarekar, *o. c.* 18. "The Political Agent left Khandesh in 1823. During his administration, continued settlements had been made only to be broken and force employed, by which for a time submission was obtained; when the collector took charge, Nahals in Satpooras, Ankoos in Saatmullas and Heeria in the districts of Burgaon and Errandole were plundering. Russola was seized and Poonia was killed"-Graham, *o. c.* 17.

[4] "Sahib Khan joined the insurgents. Anund was apprehended, Goomany refused to deliver up delinquents traced to his huttie. Roop and Yeshwant, his brother, seized. Goomany taken and transported. Large detachments under Major Deschamp moved on. Mamlatdars reported extreme alarm of the people. Military force penetrated into the hills." Graham, *o. c.* 17.

[5] Raising threatened the purganas of Kanapoor and Pemplee. On Sowram's surrender necessary arrangements were made by Mr. Graham the 2nd Assistant Collector. The country still continued in a very disturbed state and crime did not decrease. Dharis Naik was seized. Rore Naik, Sutwa, Krishna and Bayjee were settled. Dadma was seized. Village Patils were discovered to be in league with the Bhils. Pando was apprehended. Graham, *o. c.* 18.

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Bhil Disturbances.

As force had failed, Mr. Elphinstone, the Governor of Bombay, determined to try gentler measures. In 1825, orders were given that fresh efforts should be made to encourage the wild tribes to settle as husbandmen and to enlist and form a Bhil Corps. With these objects Khāndeś was divided into three Bhil Agencies, which were apportioned to as many officers, who were expected to reside within the limits of their respective districts. The one in the north-west included Nandurbār, Sultānpūr, Pimpaḷner, and the Dāṅgs; a second, in the north-east included Copḍā, Yāval, Sāvdā, Eraṇḍol, Amaḷner and Naśirābād and the third in the south included Jāmner, Bhadgāṅv, Cāḷisgāṅv, and the districts near the Sātmāḷā range. To the officer in charge of the second Agency, the duty was likewise entrusted of raising a Bhil Corps under active Native and Non-Commissioned Officers. At Dharaṇgāṅv, Lieutenant, afterwards Sir James Outram busied himself, from 1825 to 1830, in raising the Bhil Corps.

The duties of the agents were heavy and varied. Gangs still in revolt had to be reduced and order kept, offenders punished and pensions paid and the people led to settle to steady work. As far as possible registers of the different tribes were kept, the chiefs were won by rewards and pensions, their hereditary claims to guard the passes were carefully respected and the tillage was fostered by grants of land, seed and cattle. The Bhil Corps was very hard to start. Their shyness, restlessness and suspicions hindered the Bhils from enlisting. But lieutenant Outram's skill and daring as a tiger-hunter, his free-handed kindness, and his fearless trust in his followers won the Bhils' hearts. Nine men joined him as a bodyguard and on the conclusion of the monsoon, he left the Headquarters of Dharaṇgāṅv at the head of sixty men. During the rest of the season, fresh recruits joined and at its close when they entered Mālegāṅv Cantonment, the troops welcomed the Bhils as fellows—soldiers Men of the highest caste visited the wild recruits and gave them betel-nuts. The success of the corps was assured.[1]

In 1826, a gang plundered Burgaon. The Sindvāghāṭ was shut by Dhursiṅg and Soobhania returned from transportation. Sultānpūr was plundered. Detachments were sent against Deocand and thirty of his followers were killed in Sultānpūr but Soobhania repulsed the party of regulars sent against him. He was seized by Rania Nāik and was sent to Dhulia where he died in the jail. The system of reformation continued and upwards of 300 ploughs were established. Pendya was apprehended, and Bowajee was murdered. Bodvad was disturbed by large gangs. Two notorious Bhils were seized by the reformed Bhils. The Bhil levy amounted to 200 recruits who were inspected by the Collector[2]. In 1827, a gang formed under Khundoo and Mahādev, near Sindvā, attacked the village of Boorwaree but

[1] Graham, *o. c.* 8.

The troops who did this good service were the XXIII Regiment, Bombay Native Infantry, *Ibid.*

[2] Graham, *o. c.* 18.

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Bhil Disturbances.

Lieutenant Outram with a detachment of the Bhil Corps surprised them after a night's march and the gang was completely dispersed with the loss of one of its leaders and several of the followers killed[1]. Recruits came in and when inspected by the Brigadier, the corps was found highly efficient. This strength was raised from 400 to 600 and afterwards to 690. The Agent reported that the colonies were increasing and that he was successful in settling many of the predatory Bhils on the Eastern frontier of Jāmner, who were reckoned as the wildest of the tribes.[2]

Meanwhile the Bhils continued to settle in the plains; the south colonies prospered and many of the wild Bhils in the east of Jāmner took to agriculture. The Kukarmuṇḍā Bhil Agency was abolished in 1827, and the control of the predatory Bhils was made over to the Second Assistant Collector, then placed in charge of the western districts.

The Bhil tribes were now reclaimed. The Collector in 1828 reported that, for the first time in twenty years, the district had enjoyed repose for six months. The Bhil corps was employed throughout the district, in pursuing marauders and in escorting prisoners and treasurers.

In 1830, all the available force of the Bhil Corps and the Auxiliary Horse, together with a strong detachment of regular troops marched on Dāṅgs and subdued the chiefs. However, great sickness prevailed among the troops after their return from the Dāṅgs. In 1831, the Taḍvī Bhils of Adāvad were plundering in the north-east. A detachment of the Bhil Corps under Lieutenant Outram marched to Yāval and 469 of the rioters were apprehended and 158 were sentenced by the criminal court Judge. Major Evans reported the increasing prosperity and reformation of his colonies and the total success which had crowned his arduous labours. 641 Bhils were at the plough and 6,018 acres (8,024 *bighās*) were under tillage.[3]

In 1832, the district remained quiet. Owing to the efforts of the Bhil Corps, 113 Bhil villages were re-established in Cālisgāṅv, Bhaḍgāṅv and Jāmner. In 1837, at the request of the Gwālior Resident, the districts of Yāval, Copḍā, Pācorā and twelve villages of Lohāre, were restored to Śinde. This greatly added to the difficulties of keeping order and the crime suddenly increased and the Bhils gave much trouble. These disturbances were soon repressed, and in 1839 the Bhil Corps had become so efficient, that the Regiment of the line was withdrawn from Khāndeś.[4]

[1] Graham *o. c.* 19.

A Jamadar and 7 of the corps were wounded on this occasion.

[2] While in the north-east Lieutenant Outram was raising the Bhil Corps, in the south Major Evans and Lieutenant Graham were bringing the Satmala Bhils to form settlements and engage in tillage, and Captain Ribby was quieting the wilder western chiefs.

[3] Graham, *o. c.* 20.

[4] *Ibid.*

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Bhil Disturbances.

In 1840, Pratāpsiṅg, Rājāh of Āmlī, from southern Dāṅgs, throwing off his allegiance, allowed his followers to plunder the villages in the British territory and refused to obey the summons of the Magistrate. The Bhil Agent with a small party of the corps and horse, after a forced march of sixty miles, surprised his principal location and seized his family, flocks and arms. Next year (1841) a large party of Ahmadnagar Bhils plundered the Government treasury at Pimpaḷner which had been left without adequate means of defence. The Bhil Corps pursued the marauders and secured a portion of the plunder. During the same year, Bhamnia Nāik broke into rebellion and attacked a village in Sultānpūr. He was met by the Bhil Agent on the banks of the Narmadā and was shot and his followers seized, and brought to Dhulia. Next year (1842), the Tāḍvī Bhils, plundering Sāvdā and Yāval under their leaders Beekarai and Bangchund were defeated, and Beekarai was seized and Bangchund killed.[1] Whatever success was achieved was due to the humanising influence of Lieutenant Outram, the Baird of India.[2] The Bhils were gradually weaned away from their predatory propensities, and incorporated into the British system by bounty and patronage.[3]

In accordance with the treaty of Gwālior, in April 1844, Yāval, Copḍā, Pācorā and Lohāre were again made over to the British. Lālji Sakhārām *alias* Lālā Bhāu who was the Māmlatdār of Yāval refused to surrender the Yāval fort and made preparations to defend the fort with his clerks and three hundred troops. This compelled the Collector, Mr. Bell who had advanced to take charge of the district, to retire. Mr. Bell, thereupon summoned troops from Aśirgaḍ and Mālegāṅv and the Bhil Corps under Captain Morris. The troops arrived and encamped at Sākli and Bhālod on both sides of Yāval, and Lālji Sakhārām, in consequence of a message from Śindeś officer at Burhānpūr, delivered up the fort in April 1844. Lohāre and Pācorā also resisted in the same way. The Rajput Pāṭil of the village of Vārkheḍā shut himself in his fort and refused to yield. Force had to be used, and a detachment of the line and a couple of nine-pounder guns, with the Bhil Corps under Captain Morris, were sent against him. After a long and obstinate resistance, in which the attacking force lost sixteen killed and wounded, and the Manśārām Pāṭil was shot dead and his only son mortally wounded, the fort was captured and dismantled. In 1845, the Western Bhil

[1] Graham, *o. c.* 21.

[2] "Leaving unattended for weeks together amongst their 'Hutties' by the fearless and manly confidence which he evinced on their honour and good faith by so unhesitatingly entrusting his life to their keeping, he succeeded in inspiring them with a conviction that the British Government was sincere in its profession." Graham, *o. c.* 8.

[3] The total amount advanced by Government to establish the colonies was Rs. 85,348. Of this sum Rs. 44,137 had been recovered; Rs. 16,960 were still outstanding, of which one half might be recovered and thus total deficit would amount to Rs. 32,500; Graham, Statement of advances and balances due by the British colonies in the Chalisgaon, Bhadgaon and Jamner, under the Kunhur Agency. *The Bhil Tribes of Khandesh* p. 24.

Agency was restored and a house for the use of the Western Bhil Agent was built at Nandurbār. In 1846, the chief of Cikhlī, Kuvar Jivā Vasāvā, disliking the Bhil Agent's interference, took to the woods, and as he refused to listen to offers of pardon, detachments were sent against him.[1] Though surprised he made a fierce resistance and was not captured without bloodshed. He was sentenced to ten years rigorous imprisonment. His son Rāmsiṅg with his cousin Sonjī was sent to Pooṇā for studies.[2] In 1849, Burhāṇpūr was the scene of a desperate and sanguinary affray between Muslims and Hindus.[3]

The order of the Revenue Commissioner in 1849 that the landholders should provide stone boundary marks for their lands, met with a strong opposition. In 1852, the cultivators of Sāvdā, Rāver and Copḍā in Khāndeś made strong demonstrations, when a revenue survey party led by Davidson was about to begin their work there.[4] The demonstrator pleaded that neither stone nor labourers could be found to put the boundary marks. On intimation from Davidson, other civil and military officers arrived to help him, but on ascertaining the strength of the demonstration, it was decided to stop the survey operations for the time being.[5]

After a few days Davidson moved his camp to Rengāṅv a small village on the Tāpī about five miles from Sāvdā to resume his operations when he was joined by other officers of the party.[6] But finding

[1] Malegaon Brigade, the Poona Irregular Horse and the Bhil Corps.

[2] For sometime both boys did well. But as they grew up, they gave Major Candy, the Principal of the College much trouble, and finally running away, were not found for several months. When he came of age and was entrusted with the management of his estate, Ramsing's conduct was far from steady. Known to share in gang robberies and suspected of murdering his wife, he was seized (1872) and deported and the management of his estate was assumed by Government.

[3] Sir George Clerk in his minute of 28th April 1848, stated "It is now thirty years since we acquired the Government of the Deccan and Khandesh, with much of the country we rule over Gujarat. But it is quite clear from records before me that crime has not decreased, that we are affording no increased protection to our subject". Chaudhuri, *o. c.* 207 c/f pp. (Lords), 1852-53. Vol. XII, paper 162; minutes by Right Hon. Lord Falkland, dated February 28, 1850. p. 40 and p. 24.

[4] Davidson, the officer in charge of the survey, had arrived with his party and pitched his tents at Yaval.

[5] Two or three thousand men gathered and surrounded the tents of Davidson.

[6] The crowd had threatened to pull down the tents of the survey officers who did not at once leave. Davidson had sent an express to the Collector at Dhulia, and to Major Morris, the Commanding Officer of the Bhil Corps at Dharangaon. The Collector, Mr. Elphinstone deputed his first and second assistants. Mr. Havelock and Mr. Boswell, to Yaval and Major Morris accompanied them with a detachment of the Bhil Corps and the Poona Horse. Mr. Havelock told the people that the survey operations would be stopped till a statement of the circumstances could be made to Government. On this the people dispersed, and shortly afterwards Mr. Havelock, Major Morris, Mr. Boswell and the survey party retired across the Tapi. The survey officers encamped near Boraval on the Tapi and the other officers returned to headquarters. After a few days Mr. Davidson resolved to move his camp to Rangaon. Chaudhuri, *o. c.* 172.

that Mr. Bell, the Civil Engineer was at Sāvdā, he joined him with the survey officers, Mr. Waddington and Mr. Baker.

This became the occasion for a tremendous upheaval. Sāvdā peasantry began to assemble in hundreds, "in less than an hour a mob surrounded the tents, and seized the tent ropes, shouting '*Din*' '*Din*' and '*No Survey*'[1]". So violent did they become that the European officers fled away in panic, the Māmlatdār and the Mahālkari who tried to pacify the mob were assaulted.[2] On getting the news of the disturbance, Mansfield, the Collector, who had succeeded Mr. Elphinstone at Dharaṅgāṅv, called in the aid of Major Morris and the Bhil Corps from Dharaṅgāṅv. Mansfield had issued a proclamation declaring that the orders of the Government must be obeyed, but the Government was practically boycotted by the people. The people of Eraṇḍol refused to land their carts for public and military services, Māmlatdār's messengers were intercepted, and a Subhedar-Major was kept confined at Eraṇḍol.[3] Major Morris with 300 men of the 11th and 16th regiments of Native Infantry and two companies of Bhil Corps fell upon the insurgents at Eraṇḍol.[4] The occupation of the place was effected after the gates of the town were broken through and precautionary measures were taken by keeping in custody the landed gentry, the Deśmukhs, Deśpāṇḍes and Pāṭīls. Though Eraṇḍol was recovered, Sāvdā and Faizpūr remained strong centres of disaffection. There the rebels had set up a government of their own in supersession of the existing one.[5]

A Committee called Pañcāyat conducted the local administration, collected the revenues and punished the offenders. On 15th December, 1852, Major Morris was joined by Captain Wingate and the Collector and on the 16th, they reached Faizpūr an hour before day-break. The Bhil Corps surprised the rebels by surrounding the town. The gates were guarded by the men of the line. The ring leaders were seized simultaneously, a force moved to Sāvdā, where the persons who had made themselves most conspicuous were apprehended, and later on a proclamation was issued commanding the cultivators to return to their homes. As resistance was impossible, the peasants submitted. Two days after, Mr. Mansfield held

[1] The cultivators had sent a deputation to the Survey Officers' tents, demanding a written assurance that the survey should be abandoned. This the survey officers refused to give.

[2] Chaudhuri *o. c.* 172. The mamlatdar was severely hurt and the Mahalkari saved himself only by flight.

[3] The Subhedar-Major was despatched to Erandol with fifty men of the Bhil Corps and thirty horse, but the people assembled to the number of several thousands, shut the gates, surrounded the party, and refused to let them leave the town. The news of this riot reached Dharangaon at 10 a.m.

[4] Chaudhuri, *o. c.* 172, Fifty men of the Poona Horse also accompanied this force. The Collector, too, accompanied the force.

[5] The orders of the mamlatdar and other government servants were set at defiance. They refused to pay their revenue and the leaders formed themselves into a committee.

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a *Darbār* at Sāvdā in which he explained the object of the survey in relation to agricultural conditions which was generally understood.[1]

The Revolt of 1857 : Kājarsiṅg or Kājīsiṅg, who on several occasions had been treated kindly by Mr. Mansfield, the Collector, went into rebellion. Kājīsiṅg, the Nāik of the Bhils, had been in the service of the British from 1851, with a good record to his credit. He was in charge of the police force, stationed to guard the forty mile road from Sindvā to Śirpūr. So vigilant has been his watch that not a single theft or murder was recorded on the road, during these twenty years. To add, he had loyally served Major Graham, Major Morris, Captain Rose and Major Keir in tracing and bringing to terms some of the notorious Bhils from the locality. However, in 1851, one Bhil, found in the act of crime was severely beaten by him, with the effect that the Bhil criminal died. Kājarsiṅg could not escape the murder charge and was confined for ten years. When he was released in 1855, in spite of the strong recommendations from Captain Rose and others, he could not find any gainful occupation. When in May of 1857, it was sufficiently known that the Bhils would not be silent spectators to the events in the north, Kājarsiṅg was given the charge of the pass in June 1857.[2]

Kājarsiṅg in the meanwhile had been watching with keen interest the events in the North and Central India, and had judged that success, perhaps, would not be in favour of the British, this time. He decided to rely on his own, agelong, means of livelihood. The headquarters of the Mutineers instructed Kājarsiṅg, Bhīmā and Mavāsia Nāik to rise in rebellion. Kājarsiṅg labouring under some imaginary grievance[3] went into rebellion, plundered villages below the hills, and shut the Sindvā pass. His ranks were filled by the mutineers, as well as by the disbanded soldiery from Holkar's army.

A large amount of treasure, on its way from Indore to Bombay, fell into his hands. In September 1847, Bhīmā Nāik attacked Lieutenant Kennedy and warned the police officers of Khāndeś. Bhīmā Nāik even posed as the representative of the Delhi Emperor. The Government declared a prize of Rs. 1,000 for his arrest. But on the night of 29th October 1857, Bhīmā Nāik, Kājarsiṅg and other Bhil Chiefs, leading 1500 Bhils attacked and plundered Śirpūr. Captain Birch pursued them for fifty-six miles without any tangible

[1] This incident, however insignificant, showed how little was needed to bring the government into disrepute and danger. The deep-seated discontent of the masses lay dormant, ready to gush out in an upheaval at the slightest provocation. Resistance to survey was obviously a resistance to the imposition of the revenue system and more particularly to assessment. The survey riot was only an indication of the dread of the peasantry at the burden of assessment which would follow as a sequel to survey and measurement of land-Chaudhuri. *o. c.* 172.

[2] Khobarekar, *o. c.* 61.

[3] Kajarsing was insulted by Captain Birch and his risaldar.

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effect. On 1st November, Kājarsiṅg and Bhīmā plundered two villages, six miles from the British district headquarters. At the same time Khālā Nāik plundered another village in Sultānpūr tālukā. Information was forwarded to the Bombay Government that a big assemblage of Bhils in Pāṭodā tālukā shortly to be joined by 400 Bhils, from Sinnar, would start their plundering activities, at any time. The Collector pleaded strong measures against the Bhils.

By 17th November 1857, the Bhil force under Kājarsiṅg and Bhīmā had risen to 1,500 and after plundering the great treasures worth seven lakhs of rupees, in the Sindvā ghāṭ, the Bhils came down and attacked villages in the Sultānpūr area. Bhāgojī Nāik, too, with his followers started supporting Kājarsiṅg and Bhīmā Nāik. The Arab mercenaries, disbanded from the Dhār army, joined Kājarsiṅg.[1] It was known, by April 1850, that the provisions for this band of Bhils were supported by Rājāh of Barwānī.

Major Evans had tried to win over Bhīmā Nāik and Mavāsia by negotiations but with no effect. Kājarsiṅg, Daulatsiṅg and Kālu Bābā organised formidable defence against Major Evans. The British officers were wounded and one Indian officer died in the action that followed. The Bhils lost 65 men and had 170 wounded. This action was fought at Ambāpāṇī on 11th April 1858. Four hundred Bhil women, who had been earlier successfully helping their men against the British, were arrested. "The Drum Trials" passed capital punishment on 57 Bhils.

This was resented much by the Bhils from Ahmadnagar. Bhāgojī Nāik, in 1859, made a bold raid into Cāḷisgāṅv. He was surprised by a body of the Ahmadnagar police under Sir Frank Souter. The skirmishes continued throughout the year at Śirpūr, Sultānpūr, Pācorā, and Yāval.[2]

During these troubles considerable alarm was felt by the approach, to the very borders of Khāndeś, of the troops under Tātyā Ṭope. On the 3rd November 1858, news came that Tātyā had crossed the Narmadā and was marching on Khāndeś. Troops were at once moved into the district, and a regiment of Native Infantry, with detachments of the 18th Royal Irish and of Artillery supported by the Pooṇā Irregular Horse, protected Aśirgaḍ[3] and Burhānpūr,[4] while a wing of the 23rd Native Infantry and a detachment of European Artillery and Infantry, with a squadron of Dragoons, held the area round Ajantā. The Bhil Corps and a strong body of Pooṇā Horse were stationed at Bodvād. The intelligence proved true, and Tātyā Ṭope with his forces passed within thirty miles of Burhāṇpūr, marching west. Great alarm was felt for the safety of Khāndeś and troops were rapidly marching on Copḍā, as it was expected that

[1] These were 2,000 in number.

[2] Khobarekar, *o. c.* 63-64.

[3] Captain Birch held Ashirgad during the revolt of 1857-58, with a party of the Bhil Corps.

[4] In June 1857, Captain Birch, with 100 men of the Bhil Corps had marched on Burhanpur and disarmed a mutinous detachment of Shinde's contingent.

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Tātyā would attempt to enter by the Dhaulibārī pass. On the 23rd Tātyā plundered Kargund,[1] and on the following day, robbed the post and destroyed the telegraph wire on the Āgrā road. Sir Hugh Rose[2] arrived at Śirpūr on the same day to take the command of the forces of Khāndeś. News next came that the revolters planned a retreat northwards, and Sir Hugh resolved at once to press on their rear with all his available force.[3] Finding that Brigadier Parke had already gained on the revolters from the north and turned them west troops were hurried to Śahādā, and the force at Dhulia was strengthened by the Ahmadnagar Flying Column.[4] After 18th December, it was feared that the revolters would recross the Narmdā and attempt to enter Khāndeś through Akrāṇī. Troops were sent to Sultānpūr and Taḷodā, but the alarm subsided. Before the end of the year the need for further military dispositions in Khāndeś had ceased.

Khandesh Bheel Rebellion.[5]

Khandesh Bheel Rebellion.

(The Bheels were a backward but warlike community inhabiting larg areas in Central India, Gujarat and Khandesh. Greatly cherishing their traditional independence, the community was naturally stirred by the news of the rebellion in the North; and under the leadership of Kajee Singh, Bhagoji Naique and others they raised the banner of revolt in Khandesh. The revolt was of course suppressed, but after a stubborn resistance on the part of the rebels, Kajee Singh, the leader, was given unconditional pardon.

In fact, Kajee Singh had been in the service of the East India Company for some time, but in 1851 was court-marshalled for misuse of power and sentenced to 10 years imprisonment. The "Sadre Adalat", however, released him after five years.)

The proprietors of Pāroḷā[6] were found to be disloyal and their estate was confiscated in 1857. In 1859, the town and fort of Pāroḷā, which belonged to a member of the Jhānśī family, were confiscated by the Government and the fort was dismantled.

Since 1859, the peace of the district has been unbroken. In 1860-61. Burhāṇpūr was ceded to the British by Śinde and has since formed part of the district of Nimār in the Central Provinces. The other important changes had been, in return for the cession of territory near Jhānśī in Central India, the acquisition, in 1860, of the Eraṇḍol petty division.[7]

[1] A village, 30 miles from Sindva.
[2] Lord Strathnairn.
[3] Mr. Mansfield, the Collector, objected to his district being left exposed, but as there could no longer be any doubt that the revolters intended to recross the Narmada and make for Malwa, Ujjain or Gujarat, Sir Hugh started through the Sindva pass.
[4] But the revolters contrived to force their way through Bhavni and reached Chota Udepur, where on the 18th December, they were overtaken by Brigadier Parke and routed.
[5] Taken from *Source Material for a History of the Freedom Movement in India*, Vol. I.
[6] Twenty-four miles east of Dhulia.
[7] Along with the Varangaon petty-division, Varangaon was, earlier, handed over to the British by Shinde in 1861.

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Reward for Bheema Naik's Apprehension
(P. D. Vol. 28 of 1857, p. 125)

Extracts from letter No. 52 of 1857 from the Commissioner of Police to the Secretary to Government, Secret Department, dated 28th September 1857, Poona :—

"Sir,

I beg to submit for the consideration of Government that a reward of one thousand rupees be offered for the apprehension of Bheema Naik who is issuing proclamations to the Khandesh Police, stating that he is acting under the authority of king of Delhi and threatening them as if they remain faithful to Government.

2. I am of opinion that were a reward of a thousand rupees offered it would tend materially to destroy his influence and most probably ensure his capture.

3. This Bheema Naik is the leader of the Bheels who attacked Lieutenant Kennedy's party."

Attempt of Seerpoor Village

(P. D. Vol. 30 of 1857, pp. 113 to 114—Letter, dated 30th October 1857).

A letter from S. Mansfield, Esq., Magistrate of Candesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esquire, Secretary to Government, S. D., Bombay, regarding attack by Bheel rebel leaders, viz. Bheema Naik and Kajee Sing on Seerpoor.

"Sir,

I beg to report for the information to Government that fifteen hundred (1,500) Bheels under Bheema Naik, Kajee Sing and other Naiks made an attempt at a descent on Seerpoor last night but their hearts failed them at the last moment and they turned back after they had reached within a mile of the place. Intelligence was brought to us at 4 a.m. and Captain Birch whom I accompanied after collecting all the men he could went in pursuit for about six (6) miles when they entered the hills where it was impossible to follow them owing to the thickness of the jungle at this season of the year.

2. From information I have received it appears that the Naiks are determined to make another attempt at Seerpoor. I have therefore directed the officer in command of the company of the 19th Regiment N. I. en route to the Sooltanpoor district to march on this place. I am also raising a considerable number of Peons to relieve the Bheel corps to admit of their being employed in the hills against these marauding Bheels.".

Villages plundered by Bhil Naiks
(P. D. Vol. 30 of 1857, pp. 137–143)

A letter from S. Mansfield, Esq., Magistrate of Candesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esq., Secretary to Government, Bombay, regarding insurrection of Bheels—Letter, dated 2nd November, 1857.

"Sir,

In continuation of my letter No. 1725 of 30th ultimo I have to report that two (2) villages within six miles of the place I am

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writing from were plundered yesterday by Kajee Sing, Bheema and other Naiks. Another village in the Sooltanpoor Talooka has been plundered by one Rewallea Naik.

2. I have also received intelligence by Telegraph that a band is assembling on the borders of the Khandesh and Ahmadnagar Zilas in the Patoda Talooka of the latter and four hundred (400) of the Sinner Bheels are supposed to be making for Khandesh.

3. From the assemblage of so many separate bands for plunder it is evident that the whole Bheel population are in insurrection and most strongest measures are required to put them down."

(Rest of the letter is devoted to arrangement to suppress the insurrection).

(P. D. Vol. 31 of 1857, pp. 455 to 457)

Government Treasure Plundered.

Extract from a letter from S. Mansfield, Esquire, Magistrate of Khandesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esquire, Secretary to Government of Bombay, dated 19th November, 1857. Serial No. 1883 of 1857.

"Sir,

I regret to have to report for the information of Government, that several carts containing seven (7) lacs of treasure, were plundered on the 17th instant by the Bheels beyond Sindwa, about thirty (30) miles from the Candeish Frontier, in His Highness Holkar's territory".

(P. D. Vol. 31 of 1857, pp. 525 to 530)

Fifteen Hundred Bhils in Rising.

Extract from the proceedings of Government in the Military Department No. 6370 of 1857. Letter from the quarter master general of the army to the Secretary to Government military department :—

"2. The Khandesh Bheels under their Naiques Khajee Sing and Bheema have united and number it is supposed some fifteen hundred men ; they occupy the Satapoora range from where they have already descended and committed serious depredations in the Sooltanpoor districts and threatened the village of Shada and several other."

(P. D. Vol. 32 of 1857, pp. 77 to 81)

Complicity of Holkar's Officials.

Extracts from a letter from Samuel mansfield, Esq., Magistrate of Candesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esq., Secretary to Government, Bombay, regarding Holkar's attitude towards Khajee Sing and his friends. Letter, dated 30th November 1857. Serial No. 1957 of 1857 :—

"3rd. Captain Birch reports what I had already heard that the want of energy displayed by His Highness the Holkar's officials and troops at Sindwa to protect traffic and disperse the bands of Bheels is so great that the only inference to be drawn is that they render assistance to Khajee Sing and other Bheel Naiks and participate in their illgotten gains. Khajee Sing's headquarters are close to Sindwa which he visits every day. Captain Birch states there were hundreds of opium carts detained at Sindwa itself to pay toll to Khajee Singh and notwithstanding this, not the slightest effort was made by Holkar's officials to seize him or protect the opium. Moreover the post has been stopped and the rider and his horse carried away into the jungles within musket shot of Sindwa and the telegraph wire has only been cut in its neighbourhood."

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"4th. His Lordship in Council will perceive that all my efforts to protect the Agra and Bombay road are in vain if such a state of things is allowed to continue and beg strongly to recommend that the fort of Sindwa should be placed temporarily if not permanently under Khandesh and garrisoned by the Bheel corps. From what I know of what has occurred there and in its neighbourhood during the last two months I am quite convinced that unless a European officer is stationed there in charge of troops, order will not be restored and postal and telegraph communications will be continually subject to interruption."

(P. D. Vol. 20 of 1858, pp. 69 to 77 Serial No. 4 of 1857)

Bhagojee Naik's Mother Captured.

Summary of a letter from Captain T. Nuttall, 29 Regiment N. I. on Special Duty, to Mr. Rattington, Esq., Commissioner of Police, regarding a fight between Bhagojee Naik and his band and himself and the result of the fight, Letter dated 23rd December, 1857 :—

Whilst at Peint Captain Nuttal came to know that Bhagojee Naik and his band were beyond Harsole and were making for Macodah. Upon getting this news Captain Nuttal with few Sowars marched towards that place without taking rest anywhere. At Harsole Patel of the village brought one prisoner who gave full information about Bhagojee Naik and his band. On receiving the information that Bhagojee is driving towards Macodah, Captain Nuttal immediately rushed on. At Deurah village one scout brought the tiding that Bhagojee was within two miles distance. Captain Nuttal with his Sowars drove towards that place and surprising Bhagojee and his band fell on them. In the skirmish Bhagojee lost some of his followers but ran away.

In this little fight some women were caught, amongst them Bhagojee's mother.

Complicity of the Raja of Burwanee.

(Pages 678, 680, P. D. Vol. 25 of 1858)

Letter No. 198 of 1858 from Major Haselwood, Superintendent of Police and Political Assistant to the Collector to Mr. Mansfield, Magistrate of Khandesh, dated 5th April 1858 :—

Major Haselwood writes that on his arrival in Burwanee territory with field force, he "naturally expected after what Colonel Stockly had written to me that he was sure I might depend on the Rajah to aid me to the utmost of his power and that he was to request him to furnish me with good and faithful guides". When the force was

within two miles of Burwanee the Kotwal of Burwanee came. Major Haselwood tried to get information regarding Bheema and Menwassia Naiks from Kotwal of Burwanee but he got most evasive answers. He could also find out that supplies in large quantities were sent to the Hills. The confession of one Chattersing (connection of Rajah's) also disclosed the fact that clothes etc. were supplied to Dowlutsing. He writes in Para. 3, " From all the above circumstances and from the evidence which I have obtained, the complicity of the Raja of Burwanee in aiding and abetting in rebellion appeared to me to be so clearly demonstrated that I felt but one course open to me namely to place Rajah's Brother under surveillance and to disarm his followers and to address Captain Waterman commanding Malwa Bheel corps with whom the Rajah of Burwanee was reported to be at Singda and request him to place the Rajah a prisoner pending an inquiry into his conduct."

I

(P. D. Vol. 25 of 1858, pages 383 to 387)

The Battle at Amba Pani.

Extracts from a letter from Major Evans, camp Satpoora field, to the Secretary to Government, Bombay, regarding Amba Panee battle with Bheels :—

" Sir,

I have the honour to report for the information of the Right Honourable the Governor that soon after my arrival at Burwanee I ascertained that Bheema and Mowasia Naiks had in reality no intention whatever of submitting to terms and that their only object in negotiating was to gain time.

2. I, therefore, determined on attacking them, on the morning of the 11th instant; as also Kajee Singh, Daulatsing and Kaloo Bhawa, who I learnt, were encamped with them at this place.

5. The chiefs with three thousand followers consisting of Mackranees and Bheels took up their stand on the summit of a narrow and steep range of Hills, the tops of which afforded excellent cover, owing to their being crowned with rocks and large stones.

8. The troops were soon on the summit of the range when a most determined resistance was offered under cover of the rocks, especially by the Mackranees, who have fought desperately and it was not till 3 p.m. that the Hills were cleared of them.

9. Many of the enemies escaped eastward or from the right of the position.

12. The enemy could not have lost less than one hundred and fifty killed. The number of wounded is unknown, sixty two men were taken prisoners out of which fifty seven have been shot by sentence of a Drum Beat Court-Martial. About two hundred women and children have also been taken prisoners. I enclose the list of casualties.

List of casualties.—16 Killed, 45 Wounded, 1 Horse wounded, 7 Missing (men), 69 Total."

II

(P. D. Vol. 26 of 1858, pp. 9 to 13)

Extracts from a letter from Major A. M. Haselwood, Superintendent of Police and Political Assistant to the Collector, to S. Mansfield Esq., Magistrate of Khandesh, dated 12th April 1857, regarding the resistance to Bheels :—

" 2. Major Evans and Captain Langston will doubtless give full particulars of the part they took in the engagement which commenced at 8 a.m. and terminated at 1/2 past 3 p.m. in the total discomfiture of the insurgents, who fought, particularly Mukranees, Arabs and Rohillas, with the desperation of men, who knew that if taken prisoners, nothing but death awaited them. Many of these are known to be men who formed a portion of the escaped garrison of Dhar. A good idea of the obstinacy and desperation with which the insurgents fought may in some measure be derived from the persual of our Casualty Return, which I regret to say is very heavy—being 2 European Officers severely wounded, Captain Birch and Lieut. Basevi, one Native officer of the 9th Regiment killed and about 56 rank and file killed and wounded 170; of these 86 were Makranees and Rohillas, 19 Mussalmans, 11 Seedees, the rest Bheels. Dead bodies of the enemy have been counted, and doubtless there are many more lying about in the Nallah and long grass undiscovered. Their number of wounded must of course have been very considerable. The number of women and children taken exceeds 460 and amongst them are the wives of Kajee Sing and Mowassia Naiks and of Bhow Ravol of Kurree, also the sister of the former and the niece of Bheema Naik. Kajee Sing Naik's only son Polad Sing is said to have been killed. (170 *plus* 72 = 242 killed, 46 women missing). 72 male prisoners were also taken, amongst them the Sindee who cut down Lieut. Basevi. Of these 55 were tried last evening by Drum Beat-Court Martial and shot and the rest similarly disposed of to-day.

3. I beg to bring particularly to your notice the gallant conduct of Lieut. Stanley Scott, who in conjunction with the Rifles under Lieut. Coghlan, after turning the enemy's left flank and driving them back on the main body of the column, at the earlier part of the engagement, persisted in an attack upon some Makranees who had posted themselves on the summit of a high Hill surrounded with huge boulders of stone, where they held out shooting down numbers of our men, for at least two hours. In this attack he was assisted by Lieuts. Hanson and Sibthorpe of the 9th Regiment and Esree Pursad Subedar Major of the 2nd Bheel Corps whose gallantry also was most conspicuous on the occasion. After fighting their way up step by step to within 12 paces of the summit of the hill, they rushed with a shout upon the enemy shooting and cutting down the whole. 23 dead bodies were counted within the enclosure".

III

(P. D. Volume 25 of 1858, pp. 557-561)

Major Evans report to the Secretary to Government dated 14th April 1857 on the battle at Amba Panee (11th April 1857) :—

Major Evans gives information regarding "the entire defeat on the 11th April of the insurgent chief at Amba Panee where a large number of their followers were attacked by a portion of the Field force under my orders, and driven from a strong and well chosen position, the approaches to which excepting from one point they had reason to believe inaccessible" and praises the very gallant and spirited manner, of the officers and men of all arms in which they commenced and followed up the attack in spite of "an obstinate resistance of seven hours' duration and gained complete possession of the enemy's stronghold."

The Field force made an attack on a strong position of insurgents situated on a summit of a hill, protected by large boulders of stone and defended by a number of Mackranees who offered a most determined resistance.

"The officers taking advantage of the little cover the ground afforded continuously but perseveringly advanced in skirmishing order to within twelve paces of their enemy keeping their men loaded for the final rush. They lost four of their number at the onslaught but twenty three of the Mackranees were left dead on the scene of action."

Major Haselwood pleads for a wild Policy

(Pages 495-502, P. D. Vol. 27, 1858)

Extracts from a letter from Major Haselwood, Supdt. of Police and Political Assistant to the Collector, to L. Mansfield Magistrate of Khandesh dated 5th May 1858, No. 270 of 1858 :—

3. "The outrages which have been perpetrated by the majority of the Naiks and their followers have certainly been of a heinous description, but it must be borne in mind, that the Bheels are proverbially a suspicious race, easily tampered with and led away. It is an established fact that Kajeesing, Bheema and Mowassia Naiks received Purwannah either direct from the King of Delhi or from some high authority in the city directing them to rise in rebellion against the British Government and there is every reason to believe that they received similar instructions from Holkar's Durbar, and that they obeyed those instructions under the firm conviction that British Rule could not last, and that Holkar himself was in actual rebellion against it.

4. There is also little doubt that large amount of treasure which fell into Kajee Sing's hands was forwarded through the Sindwa Pass with the purposed intention of its falling into his hands, in order that he might be given the means of raising and paying Mukranees and Wulayutees to oppose the British government. Though doubtless all these Naiks merit punishment, still a great and generous

government should remember that they are dealing with wild and ignorant race, who have not embraced their hands in the blood of our country-women and their little ones; that the Bheels are men who are naturally of a generous and humane nature and very different to the ruthless and savage mutineers our armies in the upper provinces have had to deal with. These considerations lead me most earnestly to urge upon government that a considerate and mild policy be adopted towards these misguided people. The death of the Naik can be of little consideration to the British government, and if the chief Naiks would come in on the promise of their lives being spared them, and being permitted to live at the named places under surveillance, I am of opinion that the course should be unhesitatingly adopted.

5. Admitting that the government act on the recommendations contained on my letter No. 245 dated 24th ultimo, and locate regular troops at Burwanee and Rajpur, at Shirpur, Shada, Sallodar, and other place along the Khandesh Frontiers, admitting that detachments of the Bheel Corps are located all along the Sindwa road, still I would be bold to point out that our every arrangement, let it be ever so complete, cannot ensure the safety of the 'dawks' or the security of the telegraph wire between Shirpur and Akhurpoor on the Narbudda. It is impossible, however well and constantly the road may be patrolled, to prevent the occasional plunder of the one or the constant cutting of the other. Government are fully aware of all the great public inconveniences which were felt from the interruption of the telegraph communication during last monsoon. The question therefore for consideration is whether to carry out a relentless policy against free, ignorant and wild men who have been seduced into rebellion or whether generous and enlarged policy should be displayed towards them. My own feeling and I unhesitatingly express it, is, that being satisfied that the Naiks are not likely to be caught before the monsoon we adopted the latter policy on grounds of public inconvenience and that the lives of these wretched men between whom and the blood thirsty mutineers of Bengal a wide lines should be drawn, should not be held as of regular importance for the speedy tranquillity of this difficult and for eight months in the year inaccessible part of the country".

Mansfield against general amnesty

(Pages 492-493, P. D. Volume 27 of 1858)

Extracts from Letter No. 851 of 1858 from S. Mansfield, Esquire, Magistrate of Khandesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esquire, Secretary to Government, Bombay, dated 10th May 1858 :—

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3. "I anticipate little benefit from proclaiming a general amnesty to followers of the different chiefs who are very differently situated to those residing in our own territories."

4. "They each have large trusts of country which they rule over, independent of all control, and their followers look up to them with

the greatest respect and veneration, and would no more think of acting in opposition to their wishes than the Highlanders two (2) centuries ago, would have done with regard to their own chiefs."

Major Haselwood appears to be of opinion that a pardon should be granted not only to all the Bheels but to all the Naiks who have been in rebellion during the last eight months notwithstanding they have fought against the Government and have committed the most heinous crimes of every description simply because we have not yet been able to destroy them and their remaining unsubdued will cause a great deal of inconvenience. It is for government to determine whether such proceedings are calculated to increase its dignity and secure the safety of its subjects residing in the neighbourhood of the Naik's countries and whether by postponing the retribution the Naiks so fully deserve, government will not be subject to greater expense and trouble hereafter."

Mansfield disagrees with Haselwood's conclusion.

(Pages 539-540 P. D. Vol. 28, 1858)

Extracts from a letter from Mr. S. Mansfield, Magistrate of Khandesh, to Mr. H. L. Anderson, Secretary to Government, Bombay, dated 22nd May 1858 No. 929 of 1858 :—

2. "I do not consider the explanation now furnished warranted Major Haselwood in asserting that the Naiks had purwanahs from the King of Delhi or letters from Holkar; much less do I think that the treasure plundered was ever intended by its owners to fall into the hands of the Bheels. The probable reason why the owners of it did not attend my warning, was that they were aware that large consignments of treasure had for some time previous been sent via the Sindwa Jungles and had reached Indore in safety, and knowing they had a very strong guard they preferred risking travelling by Sindwa to taking the circuitous route by Assarbhur."

(P. D. Vol. 29 of 1858, pp. 657 to 665, Serial No. 104 of 1858)

Extracts from a letter from the Commissioner of Police to the Secretary to Government, Secret Department, Bombay regarding capture of Bheel women as hostages, dated 1st June, 1858 :—

"5. It is well known that the Bheel women are just as trouble some and mischievous as the men, and their seizure and imprisonment undoubtedly have had the best possible effect. They obtain information and supply it for the males, cook their food and fight also.

6. I am strongly impressed with the conviction, that they should be retained as hostages and not released, till Bhagojee and other Naiques are captured. An announcement to this effect might have the result of accelerating that event.

7. Captain Nuttal's exertions are unceasing; the great difficulty he had to contend with is defective and false intelligence.

8. The women have all been compromised by their own acts. Their detention is perfectly legitimate. They have great influence with the men. It is desirable that they should be made to understand that a disturbance is attended with personal inconvenience to themselves, that Bhagojee is not their friend, but the cause of their misfortune, that his interest and theirs are in antagonism, that their liberty depends on his capture. Bhagojee's own women would not aid in it, but there are many among the number who would.

9. I deprecate therefore the release of any at present, and propose rather with the permission of Government to authorize Captain Nuttal to act on the above, and employ the services of any he may select to obtain information with promise of release to themselves and their friends, on the capture of Bhagojee and the remainder of the gang."

(P. D. Vol. 29 of 1858, pp. 665-666, Letter dated 19th June, 1858)

Extracts from a letter from Bombay Government to the Commissioner of Police regarding the capture of Bheel women as hostages :—

"2. In reply I am desired to inform you that the R. H. G. in C concurs with you in considering that the women should not be released and he does not understand this view can be deemed inconsistent with the instructions contained in the 4th paragraph of letter No. 1996 of the 28th".

(P. D. Vol. 33 of 1858, pp. 349-362, Letter No. 1340 of 1858, dated 31st July, 1858)

A letter from S. Mansfield, Esqr. Magistrate of Khandesh, to H. L. Anderson, Esqr., Secretary to Government, Bombay, regarding the story of Kajee Sing and unconditional pardon given to him :—

"Sir,

Under the authority vested in me by Lord Elphinstone's telegram of the 22nd ultimo I have the honour to report that I have granted an unconditional pardon to Kajee Singh who has dismissed his followers to their respective villages and arrived in Dhoolia a few days ago.

2. Before granting him these extremely favourable terms I made two attempts to induce him to submit conditionally. I first promised him his life only but he replied that he might still be liable to be transported or imprisoned for life to which death would be preferable and on guaranteeing to him no such restrictions should be put on his liberty he refused to come in except on the condition of a full and unconditional pardon.

3. Taking into consideration the difficult and unhealthy country in which the Naiks had their headquarters which render military operations against them almost impracticable for the next ten (10)

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months and knowing what amount of misery these men, rendered desperate by the loss of their families could inflict on the population residing on the borders of Kandesh before they could be killed or apprehended, if they were allowed to remain united, I was convinced no sacrifice could scarcely be too great if their dispersion could be accomplished and I had little doubt of breaking up the confederacy if Kajee Sing who was the head of it could be induced to submit.

4. Sufficient time has not yet elapsed to enable me to report that such has actually taken place but Kajee Sing states confidently such will be the case and that every one of the Naiks will now disperse and has requested me to meet them in person to give them an assurance of pardon as they are under the jurisdiction of Lieut. Gunning. I have obtained that officer's consent to the arrangement and I shall leave Dhoolia in a few days for the interview.

5. His Lordship says in his telegram "I have no kind of faith in Kajee Sing's promises". After what has occurred during the last year His Lordship could not necessarily have any confidence in him-but he may not be aware that for twenty (20) years, from 1831 up to 1851, Kajee Sing conducted himself most admirably. He had police charge of the road from Sindwa to Seerpoor a distance of upwards of forty (40) miles through one continued jungle, inhabited only by Bheels, who had lately been reclaimed by Major General then Lieut. Outram and no robberies or crime of any kind occurred which he was not most active in detecting. He also distinguished himself greatly under Major D. Graham, Major Morris, Captain Rose and Major Kerr in apprehending notorious Bheel dacoits and was and is still held in great respect by all classes of natives. In 1851 a petty robbery was committed on the Sindwa road, and some persons were apprehended whom he and others tortured to confess, to such an extent that one person died. For this offence (extremely revolting to European idea but very venial in the eyes of Natives) he was sentenced to 10 years imprisonment, 5 of which were remitted by the Sudr Fouzdaree Adawlat. He was released in 1855. Captain Rose and Major Haselwood both begged me to restore him to his situation but I refrained from doing so until June 1857 when I thought his great influence among the Bheels of his district might be useful in keeping the road clear and restraining the other Bheels on the frontier.

6. Notwithstanding I have been deceived in Kajee Singh, I still think he is to be depended on, and that under the circumstances he was placed in, his outbreak is not so much to be wondered at. He had seen the Burwanee Naiks plundering in all directions not only in foreign territory but in our own and no vigorous attempt made to stop them. He had heard accounts of the lamentable circumstances in the North West and in Central India, within a few miles of his own residence, all of course very much exaggerated; and like many men, not hostile to the British and much better informed-thought our rule was at an end and he might again pursue the wild life led by his ancestors.

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7. He states the immediate cause of his outbreak was some abuse Captain Birch and a Ressaldar of the Poona Irregular Horse gave him but he admits that had he not received this provocation (which Captain Birch denies as far as he is concerned) he is doubtful if he would have been able to have withstood the temptation of following the example of his neighbours.

6. As far as I can ascertain, he has not been guilty of any acts of wanton cruelty. He plundered the treasure and seized the bullocks of a number of opium carts which he compelled their owners to ransom. He assures me he was engaged in plundering only one village named Kurwund though he is aware that many acts of plunder and robbery were committed in his name.

9. He also states notwithstanding the large amount of treasures he plundered he has no money left. This appears difficult to credit but he had no means of concealing it. The treasury was so bulky that he could not bury it without the assistance of many other Bheels who he says have robbed him of all which was not taken possession of by the force under Major Evans.

10. Taking into consideration his previous character the policy of making use of him to restrain his Bheel followers numbering between eight and nine hundred men, who have now dispersed to their village but who might be tempted to break out again and the necessity of providing some support for him and his family I have restored him to his former situation and placed all the police under him as before.

11. I am afraid His Lordship will not perhaps approve of his restoration to office as he desired me in his telegram to try to arrange if he is pardoned, he does not deceive us again. But with due deference, I must observe such an arrangement was impracticable for nothing but confinement or transportation could render such a result certain because I think when treating with such a rude race as the Bheels half measures are almost certain to miscarry. They must either be treated with perfect confidence or put in such a position as to be unable to do any harm. Kajee Sing is fully alive to the merciful treatment he has received from Government and as far as promises go, is most anxious to show himself worthy of it.

12. As a necessary consequence of his pardon and restoration of office, I have released his wife and sister and the whole of the women and children who were in confinement.

13. I beg to forward a translation of an order I have addressed to him."

Sindwas' Treasury loot

(P. D. Volume 27 of 1858, page 229)

Letter from the Commissioner of Police to the Secretary to Government of Bombay, dated 4th May 1858.

"Sir,

Referring to my letter No. 61 of the 17th ultimo, I have the honour to report for the information of Government, that from a communication received on the 2nd inst. from Sir R. Hamilton, there is no doubt as to the guard having participated in the plunder of the Treasure in the Sindwa Ghaut on the 17th of last November. There is further great suspicion of preconcert and complicity with Kajee Sing gang.

2. There is also little doubt that the treasure recovered by Captain Birch as reported in my letter above quoted, is part of the same that is to say, bars of silver and five frame pieces were the component parts of both".

Statement on Sindwa Ghaut Treasure plunder

Statement of Davee Sing, Jamedar of the Convoy Sepoys in the employ of Goorsabmal Ghunasham :—

"About 300 Bheels came near the Jamlee Chowkee, and surrounded the carts. Firing was kept up for an hour. Bheels were kept off. When they did not retreat Chutter Bhooj Bummiat, Deegraj Bummiat went to the Bheels. Then Deegraj returned and began to say that he thought there was disturbance and they would deal treacherously. Chuttur Bhooj took Kajee Naik by the hand and said to Sepoys that the Naik had come to take care of the carts, and told them to plunder; there was no more fighting. When the Bheels began to plunder the convoy sepoys did the same. Those who had regard for their reputation looked after their own bundles, those who had no reputation took Rupees and silver. They came to Julwana, and Buggoo Sing Jamedar searched them. When Rupees and silver were found on the sepoys he imprisoned them. There is a Brahmin by name Sinbux. He sent me the convoy. We are here ten men present. I don't know who the other sepoys are. There are about two hundred men, and many unemployed men. No property was found on me. I do not know the Hoondeewala's name. But we engaged 50 men in Seerpoor. I don't know for certain, but men from Seerpoor were with us. They are from Marwar, but were engaged at Seerpoor. I did not see any one bring money in the jungle and among my men money was found on Lalla Maratha and Purrunsook."

Disturbances by Khandesh Bhils

(A Minute by Elphinstone)

P. D. Vol. 24 of 1858, Pages 9 to 11

Minute.—(On letter No. 448 of 15th March 1858, para 3). "It is an object of paramount importance to crush this dangerous Coalition of Wylayties (for I take it that the Arabs and Mekranees referred to in Mr. Mansfield's letter are the remains of the Dhar and Mundipur insurgents) and of Bheels. So important do I consider it that I should not hesitate to adopt the measure suggested by Mansfield viz., to detain a way of Hills 71st. H. Lt. Inf. 7 now on their way to Mhow, if no other means can be found for reinforcing the column of native troops now employed in Khandesh.

But we must also remember that Mhow is a most important point. Looking to the not improbable contingency of a body of mutineers either from Kota or Jhansi or any place to the northward, making for the south that it should be held in strength. Holkar's mutinous troops though disbanded have generally escaped without further punishment. I have no doubt that large number of them are still at Indore and in its neighbourhood. Here there is the place where the Jhansi and Kota rebels would find friends and sympathisers. In the neighbourhood, there must be many discontented people, the retainers of forfeited States of Dhar and I think it most important that the force at Mhow should be sufficient to overcome these malcontents and if they commit any act of insurrection to punish them in the most summary manner.

I am, therefore, unwilling, if it can be avoided, to detain any portion of the 71st of Sindwa, even for a short time. I would, therefore, recommend that in the first place Mr. Mansfield's letter be sent to the Commander-in-chief and that H. E. be requested to state if he can suggest any other means by which the force now on duty against the Bheels can be increased, and if not, if he considers that there would be any serious objection, bearing in mind the opinion expressed by Mr. Mansfield on the climate of Sindwa at this season, to the detention in that locality of a wing of the 71st for a fortnight or three weeks."

Disturbances by Khandesh Bhils

(*A Minute by Elphinstone*)

(Pages 285–295, No. 6511)

Minute.—"The efforts of the local authorities in Khandesh and Ahmednagar aided in the latter collectorate (or perhaps I should say superseded) by the dispatch of troops from Bombay and Poona have hitherto failed to put down the Bheel risings. The later accounts mention the plunder of villages, and of whole convoy of carts upon the high road to Mhow. One of these which was robbed on the 7th inst. consisted of sixty carts laden with opium. Each cart contains four chests. The value of the plunder therefore must have been nearly two lakhs of rupees. These carts were guarded or at least attended by one hundred peons—five of whom were wounded by the Bheels. The whole of them ran away leaving the carts to be plundered. Mr. Mansfield mentions that several other convoys of carts had been looted in the same locality.

The Nasik and Sinner Bheels under the Bhagojee Naik are said to have got in the neighbourhood of Khandesh. The following extract from a letter which I lately received from Mr. Mansfield shows the extent of the insurrection in Khandesh and also that there is no one on the spot who is capable of taking the direction of the campaign which must be carried on in order to support it.

"This state of things is most serious. There are six Naiks in this neighbourhood whose followers number upwards of two thousand. There is another body of equal number just above the Sindwa Ghaut plundering and robbing every body they can lay hold of. There are several bands in the hills bordering on Sooltanpore and before long I think the whole of the Hill Bheels from Barwapore and to Boorhanpore a distance of about 150 miles will be up. It is impossible to foresee the effect of these risings of the Bheels inhabiting the plains. They are generally a quiet inoffensive lot engaged in agricultural labours, but of course they have unquiet spirits among them, and I should not be surprised to hear of bands collecting for plunder."

Yawal Bheels Disturbance

(Pages 623 to 629, P. D. Volume 25 of 1858)

Khandesh Magistrate states that atrocities of Parsi Foujdar of Yawal moved the Bheels to rise in rebellion.

In Letter No. 604 of 1858, Mr. Mansfield, Magistrate of Khandesh, writes to Mr. Bettington, Commissioner of Police, about the misbehaviour of Parsi Foujdar of Yawal in regard to the specific charge of having cruelly and brutally mal-treated certain Bheel women and also about his general oppressive conduct. He writes that he was informed by a Native officer that certain Bheels stated that the tortures practised by the Foujdar of Yawal had driven them into insurrection.

Yawal Bheels Trial and Sentence

(Page 39 P. D. Vol. 37 of 1858)

Summary of a letter No. 691 of 1858 from Major Haselwood and Captain H. Birch Commissioners to H. L. Anderson, Esquire, Secretary to Government of Bombay, dated 18th October 1858 :

It is reported in the letter that 13 prisoners (Nahal and Turvee Bheels) concerned in the depredations of the Yawal talooka have been tried for treason and two of them sentenced to death and others transportation for life.

Nagar Bheels and British Encounter

(Pages 539–544, Vol. 21 of 1858)

Extracts from letter No. 144 of 1858 from S. Mansfield, Esquire, Magistrate of Khandesh to H. L. Anderson, Esquire, Secretary to Government, Secret Department, Bombay :–

Dated 25th January 1858.

"Sir,

I have the honour to forward for the information of His Lordship in Council a copy of a demi-official letter from my first Adjutant Mr. Neave giving an account of the disastrous affairs which occurred on the borders of the Khandesh and Nugar collectorates".

"In letter dated January 21st, 1858, Nangaum, Mr. Neave writes in detail about the encounter with Bheels on the 20th January which ended in failing to drive the Bheels out of their position".

"Lieut. Stuart with 200 foot and 50 sowars and Captains Montgomery and Thatcher with 50 men of the 19th under Lieut. Fairbrother, jointly made an attack on Bheels as they received a report that Bheels had collected in the neighbourhood of Nandgaum".

"The Bheels who numbered about 400 had taken up a very strong position in the bed of a river under cover of thick bushes, trees and poured in most deadly fire. Captain Montgomery was wounded in the first attack. Great many sepoys were knocked down in the second attack. Lieuts. Chamberlyne and Davidson of the 20th came up with 150 men and some sowars with rifles and third attack was made in which Lieuts. Chamberlyne, Stuart and Davidson were wounded. Therefore they withdrew. Lieut. Stuart died on 21st. Nearly 50 of the men of the 6th Aurangabad, 26th Co and 19th were killed and wounded. Among Bheels 25 were killed".

Trials of Bheels-Nagar District

(Pages 57 and 76, P. D. Volume 35 of 1858)

Prisoner–

1. Jairam Wullud Sheevram.
2. Jairam Wullud Rama.
3. Tulpea Wullud Bahiroo.

Judgement.–"In passing sentence the Court is thrown back as stated in the Government Resolution recorded above on regulation XIV section XII of 1827 which states that the punishment for treason shall be death and confiscation of property."

This sentence the court are constrained by law to pass, but they do so in the full confidence that Government will transmute it into transportation for life.

Mahadeo Dongur Bheels attacked

(P. D. Volume 23 of 1858, pp. 181-182)

Extracts from a letter from the Commissioner of police to the Secretary to Government S. S., Bombay regarding Hurgee Naique and Puttojee Naique being attacked by Capt. Nuttal :–

"On the morning of the 19th the detachment commanded by Captain Pottinger and the Kolee levy by Captain Nuttal attacked the insurgent Bheels under Hurgee Naique and Puttojee Naique in the hills east of Mahadeo dongur. Killed thirty (30)/number of wounded not specified/took six prisoners and a number of women. The band has dispersed and left all their baggage behind. The loss on our side being only one killed and three wounded. It appears probable that Captain Pottinger was able to bring the mountain howitzers into action."

Bheel Naik Puttogee Surrenders

(Pages 459-464, P.D. Volume 25 of 1858)

In letter No. 17 of 1858 from Assistant Magistrate Mr. C. Gonee to the Magistrate of Poona, Mr. Duncan Davidson, dated 8th April 1857, the information regarding the surrender of Bheel Naik Puttogee is given.

In paragraph 4 he writes "Having promised to be advocate of Puttogee, I feel I may urge considerations which I would otherwise not presume to be mentioned. I am not certain that any overt act of rebellion can be judicially proved against him, though he has undoubtedly displayed an attitude hostile to government. But he is an old man and too old to hand and too old to be an active rebel leader". He is pleading the case of Puttogee and expresses his view that Puttogee should not be executed and others also might be influenced to surrender.

Bheel 'Band'—Nagar

(P. D. Vol. 21 of 1858, pp. 3, 4, 5, 6)

A letter from the Quarter Master General of the Army to H. L. Anderson, Secretary to Government, Secret Department, Bombay, dated 23rd January 1858 :—

Sir,

In my letter No. 224, dated 12 instant, I had the honour by desire of His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief to submit to Government what appeared to his Excellency to be the best means of proceeding to suppress the Bheel bands on the Northern border of Khandesh in the Sautpoora range. .....

4. It would be superfluous to recapitulate what has taken place in its Western districts of Nasik and Sinner where the Bheel bands recently ravaging them under Bhagojee Naik have been severely handled and checked by combined forces of Regular and Police.

5. The Eastern portion of the Zilla is especially the subject of present report and for its protection it is necessary to adopt immediate measures.

7. Its hills and jungly character enables a small body to elude and if needs be await the attack of weak detachments of troops with every hope of success.

8. Yesterday's Telegraph brought but an imperfect account of the serious conflict that had taken place on previous day between a small body of native Infantry and Police on one side and 400 Bheels from the Nizam's country on the other, but considering this with other daring attempts in the same quarter the necessity of adopting strong and immediate measures to punish and check the marauders is evident.

9. The officers wounded in that affair have been removed to Malligaum and Lieut. Thatcher with a small force is now posted in the neighbourhood of Munwar holding the Bheels in check as well as he can.

10. The Commander-in-Chief considers it best at once to appoint an officer to the special command of the military operations that may be necessary during the next five months to preserve the Naggur Zilla from the inroads of marauders generally, and with the sanction of Government he proposes to appoint Captain Pottinger of the artillery to this duty.

11. The Eastern border just described being the quarter in most imminent danger at this moment it is proposed to order Captain Pottinger to Munwar at once for the purpose of assuring the direction of operations at that point.

Bhagojee Naik at Nandoor

(P. D. Volume 28 of 1858)

Summary of report of Lieut. Thatcher, Assistant Superintendent of Police, regarding the fight with the Bheels in front of the village of Nandoor Singotch :—

Bhagojee Naik who had risen against British Government in Khandesh, in collaboration with Kajee Sing, was heard of near Nandoor. On getting this information Lieut. Thatcher immediately demanded help from neighbourhood areas, and Captain Henry and Mr. Alexander Taylor joined him. Captain Henry took charge of the force and without listening to any advice determined to charge on Bhagojee Naik. Mr. Thatcher in his statement says, "My advice is to wait until re-inforcement by Mr. Carr and the Thanna party will go and get above them". But Captain Henry did not listen to this advice. He ordered Lieut. Thatcher to charge with him on Bhagojee Naik. In this skirmish Captain Henry died of wounds. In this battle no decisive result occurred. Again Lieut. Thatcher remarks in his report, "Before concluding this statement I feel it only due to myself to state that the attack was made against overwhelming number; that I strongly dissuaded Lieutenant Henry from making it, and that the position of the enemy from a military point of view was as strong as could be conceived". Mr. A. L. Taylor in his statements concurs with the statement of Lieut. Thatcher. Only thing that he added is that at the end the enemy's position was completely taken.

In 1862, Lālīṅg fort is mentioned as strongly situated, but with very few defences left. Sometime before 1862, Sindvā fort[1] was restored to Holkar on condition of his building a bridge over the Gohī river. Under the British, the position of Jalgāṅv, on the high-road from Aśirgaḍ to Bombay, and its central situation among the

[1] Twenty miles north of Thalner.

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local markets of Nerī, Jāmthī, Sāvdā, Faizpūr, Dharaṇgāṅv and Eraṇḍol, attracted traders and weavers, and before 1860, it could boast of more than 400 handlooms. In 1860, when the railway was opened, it remained for sometime the terminus, and rapidly increased in importance. During the American war (1862-1865), Jalgāṅv became the great cotton market of Khāṇdeś. However, at the close of the American war, Jalgāṅv suffered severely. But during 1877 and 1878 new cotton presses and a large steam spinning and weaving mill were opened. The Bombay Bank also had started a branch, at Jalgāṅv.

Floods.

In 1872, on Sunday, the 15th September, the talukas bordering on the Girṇā and the Pāñjhrā, suffered from a severe flood. At Dhulia on the Pāñjhrā, rain began to fall steadily about noon on Friday the 13th, and continued heavily the whole of Saturday and the greater part of Sunday. Before Sunday morning, the river had a very high flood, sweeping over the Āgrā Road bridge, carrying away the solid stone parapet and the whole of the roadway, and in Dhulia destroying 500 houses chiefly in the division of the town known as Briggs Peṭh[1]. On the Girṇā, rain began about midnight of the 13th (Friday) and continued till eleven on the night of the 14th, when a violent hurricane set in. About 11 O'clock on the morning of the 15th, the Girṇā began to overflow and the flood increased till, about half-past nine that night, the water was ten feet higher than it had ever been known to rise. Of 152 villages damaged by the flood fifty-six were altogether destroyed. Of the total number, fifty were on the Pāñjhrā, thirty-two of them in Dhulia, six in Girṇā, forty of them in Pācorā, thirty-six in Eraṇḍol, and twenty-six in Cāḷisgāṅv[2]. For the first five or six days, the destitute families were supported by private charity, receiving some help in the shape of grain from the balance of Khāṇdeś rice fund[3]. But this supported only those in and around Dhulia. As reports of distress began to come in from different parts of the

[1] A rest-house close to the bridge, built at a cost of Rs. 2,000, was entirely destroyed, and another was much damaged. The village of Devpur on the other side of the river entirely disappeared, and one man, a Gosavi, was drowned. A telegraph post near the bank of the river on the Dhulia side, was washed away and communications stopped. At seven in the morning the flood was at its highest, standing about forty-five feet above the level of the river bed. About three hours later, it began to fall and by noon most of the water in the town had subsided.

[2] A vast amount of property both movable and immovable was lost. Numbers of dams, bandhāras, and water channels and several large ponds, watering thousands of fields, were either completely destroyed or badly damaged. Exclusive of damage to soil, trees, crops and public works, the flood was calculated to have caused a loss of more than Rs. 16,00,000. Besides Bhils and other forest tribes, 5,493 families were left destitute.

3. The earlier three floods of 1822, 1829 and 1832 had affected West Khandesh more and Relief Fund had been organised. The present grant (1872) to East Khandesh was from what remained of a former grant by the late Mr. Rustamji Jamsetji Jijibhai of Bombay, for the relief of famine.

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district, a public meeting was held at Dhulia, and a relief fund committee formed[1].

On the 6th July 1875, a sudden local rainfall so swelled the Aruṇāvatī, a tributary of the Tāpī, that it flooded the town of Śirpūr, the water in places standing six feet deep, damaging fifty two houses and destroying property of the estimated value of Rs. 32,000. On the 5th September 1876, the back water from a heavy flood in the Tāpī overflowed its tributaries, the Girṇā, the Añjanī, and the Aruṇāvatī causing much damage to crops.

General Progress.

Still population was steadily increasing, and with the rise of prices of produce (1856), the introduction of a lighter and more even assessment (1860-1866) and the opening of the railway (1863), large numbers came to Khāṇdeś. Compared with those of 1852 the census reports for 1872, showed a total of 1,028,642 souls for the whole of Khāṇdeś, or an increase in twenty years of nearly fifty per cent. The east and central parts were populous, but the south was thinly peopled. Khāṇdeś was one of the thinnest peopled parts of the Bombay Presidency.

Under the Director of Public Instruction and the Educational Inspector, North-eastern division, the schooling in the district was conducted by local staff. Before the opening of Government schools, every large village had a private school taught by a Brāhmaṇ. Not being able to compete with the Government schools, these private institutions were confined to small villages which had no Government school. The first Government vernacular school was opened in the city of Dhulia in 1826 and the second was opened in 1843 at Eraṇḍol. Three years later, in 1846 a Marāṭhī school was opened at Jāmner. The first English School was opened at Dhulia in 1853. In 1864 the first girls school was opened at Dhulia.

The subsequent political history of Khāṇdeś district closely followed the pattern of the general political history of India. The period that followed the war of Independence of 1857 saw the gradual liberalisation of the attitude of the British in educational and cultural matters. The impact of Western education and through it, that of the ideals of political liberalism was profound on the Indian mind and the people of the district could not but respond to it. The cumulative effect was the establishment of the Indian National Congress in the year 1885, which demanded an increasing participation of the people in the administration of their country with more powers. These demands were only slightly conceded by the Councils Act of 1892. The Congress continued year after year pressing its demands. A section developed in the Congress

[1] Government placed at the Collector's disposal Rs. 20,000, Rs. 5,000 to be distributed free and Rs. 15,000 to which a further sum of Rs. 1,00,000 was afterwards added, to be given in advances or takavi. Private subscriptions amounted to as much as Rs. 35,435. Of this sum Rs. 34,895 were distributed among 1,492 families and Rs. 600 were spent in charity by the Collector and Rs. 69,739 were advanced to 1,164 persons.

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favouring action rather than mere constitutional agitation. These developments were bound to have profound effect on the life of the people in the district. This section was headed by Lokmanya Tilak. Though the Congress attracted a majority of Indians towards its aims and ideals, it could not make much appeal to the Muslims. The English helped in perpetuating the separatist tendencies by following a policy of 'divide and rule'. The strong regime of Lord Curzon intensified the desire of political advance among the people. At many places, this manifested itself in extreme form. The Dhulia district had its own share in this national awakening. The next step in the constitutional reforms undertaken by the British was the Morley Minto reforms of 1909[1]. The act increased the number of members in the executive councils of Bombay and Madras to 4, expanded legislative councils both at the centre and at the provinces and conceded the demand of the Muslims to have separate electorates. The act failed to satisfy the political aspirations of the people and political agitation continued. The result was the Montague reforms of 1919 which gave a greater measure of control to the provincial government over matters of local administration. The period that followed saw the emergence of a new personality on the political horizon of India *viz.*, Mahatma Gandhi. It also saw a radical change in the approach to the political problems of India and the development of a new technique to fight it out. The principle of non-violent non-co-operation infused a new spirit in the body politic of India. The struggle for political freedom continued relentlessly against the British for well over 20 years under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. The eruption of the Second World War did not dampen the spirit of the Indian people to win their freedom. The Muslim League under the leadership of Jinnah could not reconcile itself with the outlook of Congress and put forward the two nation theory. The Quit India movement of 1942 was followed by the Wavell Plan and the Cabinet Mission. They were unable to meet the demands of the Congress. Ultimately the British conceded the Indian demand for complete freedom in 1947 under the Mountbatten plan. The Indian people had to pay a heavy price for winning their independence. It was the division of the country into India and Pakistan. India was declared a republic in 1950. The Indian provinces were reorganised in 1956 when the district of West Khāndeś formed part of the bilingual State of Bombay. In 1960 the State of Mahārāṣṭra came into existence. Subsequently on 21st October 1960, the West Khāndeś district was renamed as Dhulia district with Dhulia as its headquarters. The district has made great strides after independence during the last twenty years. The old lethargy of the common man and his pessimistic attitude which were more the result of an alien rule are disappearing. In their place could be found a politically conscious citizen eager to achieve his own cultural, material and moral development and in-

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[1] It may be noted here that in 1906 the district of Khandesh was divided into two districts called East Khandesh and West Khandesh with headquarters at Jalgaon and Dhulia, respectively.

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fused with a spirit of self-help and self-sacrifice. There is a greater desire in the individual to contribute to the development of the society of which he forms a part. This could be seen in the greater participation of the people in the social, political, cultural and economic activities that are conducted and assisted by the State. There are more educational and cultural institutions in the district today than in the past. The number of boys and girls undergoing education has gone up considerably during the period after independence. If the number of libraries, and cultural institutions, the growth of socio-economic and cultural activities and the number of people reading newspapers both published inside and outside the district, are any indications of the progress made by the people, then the district of Dhulia could not be said to be behind the advanced districts of the State of Mahārāṣṭra. With its gradual industrialization and a relegation of the agroeconomic complex, the district, with its rich historical background, can look forward to a bright and better future in the developing State of Mahārāṣṭra.

CHAPTER 3—THE PEOPLE

AN INTERESTING REVELATION OF THE CHARACTER of the people and their culture in the district could be found in the historic references to the people of Khāndeś. Research scholars from the days of Ptolemy have discussed the currents and undercurrents which have been instrumental in moulding the fabric of the Khāndeś culture. The influx of people from the northern regions of Gujarāt and the Muslim invasions of the region have added considerable significance to the culture of the people in this district.

The following account given in the Khāndeś Gazetteer[1] of 1880, throws an interesting sidelight on the people and their culture in the district.

Few early notices of the people of Khāndeś have been traced. According to Lassen the Sanskṛt-speaking tribes passed down the Gujarāt coast and up the Tāpī valley through Khāndeś into the Deccan.[2] Another wave of settlers would seem to have entered by the east, as, according to local tradition, Rajputs of different tribes ruled from Asirgaḍ as far back as the sixteenth century before Christ.

The first known historic reference to the people of Khāndeś[3] seems to be Ptolemy's (A.D. 150) mention of the Phyllitæ and Kondali or Gondali, probably the Bhils and Goṇḍs, whom he places south of the Narmadā not far from its source.[4] The Bhils, still the most characteristic and one of the largest classes in Khāndeś, seem to show by the varieties of their dialect, Nemāḍi, Marāṭhī, and Gujarātī,

[1] *Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Khandesh District,* Vol. XII, 1880, pp. 38-42.

[2] *Indische Alterthumskunde,* I, 181.

[3] *The Mahabharat* (H. H. Wilson's Works, VII, 164) places, next to the people of Vidarbha or Bedar, Khandas or Shandas who may possibly have given their name to Khandesh. Khandesh has also been thought to be the Khandav forest of the Mahabharat, which was burnt down and brought under tillage by Arjun. These identifications are doubtful.

[4] Bertius' *Ptolemy,* Map X. and 204, Wilson (VII 139) is of opinion that the Bhils are included under the Pulindae whom Ptolemy places further to the west. Another of Ptolemy's tribes the Tabassi have been referred to Khandesh and supposed to be the Buddhist ascetics of the Ajanta and other Satamala cave temples. Yule in *Ind. Ant.* IV, 282.

that they have been pushed back into Khāndeś by later arrivals, from the east, the south, and the west. Many of the changes that have narrowed the limits of the Bhil country have taken place since Ptolemy wrote. But in his time, as at present, Khāndeś was probably one of the leading Bhil settlements. Of the Goṇḍs, traces remain in a Goṇḍ tribe of herdsmen found in Cāḷisgāṅv and in a Goṇḍ sub-division of Mhārs.

Since Ptolemy's time, the first great change in the population of Khāndeś seems to have been the arrival, apparently up the Tāpī valley from Gujarāt, of a detachment of the great tribe or nation of Ahīrs or Abhīrs.[1] The origin of the Ahīrs, who besides in Khāndeś, are found in the North-West Provinces, Beṅgāl, Central India and the Central Provinces, in Cutc and Kāṭhiāvāḍ in Gujarāt, and in Nāśīk, Ahmadnagar and other parts of the north Deccan, is doubtful. They have been thought to be the Abars, one of the Scythian tribes who, in the second and first centuries before Christ, entered India from the north-west,[2] or, and this is more likely, they are supposed to be an old Indian or half Indian race who were driven south and east before the Scythian invaders.[3] In either case the bulk of the nation seems to have passed south during the time of Indo-Scythian ascendancy (B.C. 200–A.D. 200) in north India. Before the Christian era, they were near the north-west frontier;[4] in the second century after Christ they were in Upper Sind;[5] and in the third century in Lower Sind and north Gujarāt.[6] Next they appear south of the Tāpī, 'between the Tāpī and the Koṅkaṇ', or 'between the Tāpī and Devgaḍ'.[7] They are spoken of as settled in Khāndeś.[8] And an inscription in one of the Nāśik Buddhist caves shows that early in the fifth century (419) the country was under an Ahīr king.[9] The Ahīr dynasty is said to have lasted for only sixty-seven years. But as local tradition centres in an early Ahīr or Gavaḷī rule, it seems probable that, as was the case in Kāṭhiāvāḍ, the Khāndeś Ahīrs were closely connected with the Yādavas who were in power in the eighth, and again appear as the rulers of Devagirī or Daulatābād in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Their present strength has not been ascertained. The 1872 census returns do not show any

[1] Some of the Ahirs, apparently later arrivals, came from northern India.

[2] Cunnigham's *Archæological Report*, II. 23, 33.

[3] Compare V. de St. Martin, *Geog. Grec. et Latine de l'Inde*, 230; *Cent. Prov. Gaz.* LXIII.

[4] V. de St. Martin. *Geog. Grec. et Lat. de l'Inde*, 230.

[5] Bertius' *Ptolemy* (A.D. 150), Map. X.

[6] McCrindle's *Periplus* (A.D. 247), 113. The expression is 'Inland from Surastrene'.

[7] *Purans* quoted in Ward's *Hindus*, III. 450, and Wilford's *As. Res.* XIII, 336.

[8] Langlois' *Harivansh*, II. 401.

[9] *Second International Congress*, 354.

ahirs. But a special inquiry, carried on by Mr. J. Pollen, C. S., has brought to light, besides Ahīr or part Ahīr husbandmen and Ahīr Koḷīs, an Ahīr branch in almost all crafts and other middle class castes, and proved them to be so large an element in the population, that *Ahirāṇī* is the local name for the Khāndeś dialect of Marāṭhī.[1] In some of these classes, as among the carpenters, blacksmiths, and goldsmiths, the Ahīr element has remained distinct. Ahīr carpenters and Ahīr blacksmiths marry together, but neither of them marry with the other sub-divisions of carpenters and blacksmiths. In other cases the Ahīr element has merged into the general class, and Ahīr has come to be little more than a surname.

The next recorded addition to the population of Khāndeś is the arrival, partly direct up the Tāpī valley, and partly it would seem through Māḷvā and the Central Provinces, of the great body of Gujarāt Kuṇbīs who now hold the bulk of the cultivated land to the north of the Tāpī. According to the chronicles of the Reve Kuṇbīs, they arrived about the eleventh century in a large body, in whose vanguard alone were 2000 carts. It seems not unlikely that this account is correct, and that the Kuṇbīs were forced to leave Gujarāt by the encroachments of Rajput tribes, driven south before the early Musalmān invaders of north India. About this time, and till the arrival of the Musalmāns (1310), it seems probable that while the Devagirī Yādavas held Khāndeś, the southern castes, of whose arrival no tradition remains but who are still known to have come from the south, first settled in the district.[2] During the latter part of the fourteenth century, by the establishment (1370) of line of Arab kings, a new foreign element was introduced into Khāndeś. About the same time the district was visited by so severe a famine that, according to Feriṣtā, its whole people, except a few Bhils and Koḷīs, disappeared.[3] Under the Fāruqī kings, Khāndeś rose to much wealth and prosperity, and its population received many additions both of neighbouring Hindus and of foreign Musalmāns.

When on January 6, 1601 it passed to the Emperor Akbar, parts of Khāndeś were highly tilled and well peopled, and its Bhils, Goṇḍs, and Kuṇbīs were specially noticed as hard workers and dutiful subjects.[4] Under the Moghals, during the seventeenth century, prosperity continued. The disturbances in the Deccan, that ended with the fall of Ahmadnagar and Bijāpūr, must have driven numbers

[1] Besides Ahirs proper and Abhir Brahmans, there are Ahir Sutars, Ahir Lohars, Ahir Shimpis, Ahir Salis, Ahir Guravs, and Ahir Kolis.

[2] Rane or Maratha Rajputs.

[3] Two great Khandesh famines are reported, one about 1370, the other the great Durga-Devi famine from 1396 to 1407. As he makes no mention of the Durga-Devi famine, it seems probable that Ferishta's 1370 famine should be placed some thirty years later.

[4] Gladwin's *Ain-i-Akbari*, II. 54.

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into the more peaceful district of Khāndeś, and during the reign of Auraṅgzeb Musalmāns were flocking from north India into Khāndeś.

Under the Marāṭhās (1760-1817) the Hindus again rose to importance. But any additions from the south must have been more than met by the losses in the disturbances that marked the close of the eighteenth century. The terrible famine of 1803 laid the district waste, leaving for the time but a few Bhils and Koḷīs. When the famine was over some of the old inhabitants returned. But so disturbed were all, except some favoured parts of the district, that numbers still staid away.[1] In those troubled times three bodies of foreign mercenaries rose to importance; Arabs, north India or *Pardeśī* Brāhmaṇs, and Mysore or Karnāṭak troops, apparently partly Hindu, partly Musalmān. With the establishment of British power (1817-1820) these three classes of mercenaries disappeared. Part of the Arabs were sent to Arabia, and the rest found their way to Hyderābād in the Deccan; almost all the Karnāṭak troops returned to their own land; and most of the *Pardeśī* Brāhmaṇs settled as husbandmen.[2] On the establishment of order, the old inhabitants returned in numbers from Berār and Gujarāt, and crowds of strangers flocked from the Nizām's and Śinde's dominions.[3] Still the country was very empty. The 1821 Census showed a population of only 4,18,021 souls or 31¼ to the square mile. In 1837 it was still 'miserably populated', large tracts being held by Bhils. The population was estimated at 4,78,457 souls, about 60,000 more than in 1821, and it was calculated that, of the whole number, Brāhmaṇs represented 5·40 per cent, Rajputs 3·47, Śudras and Marāṭhās 69·58, low and depressed tribes 14·72 and Musalmāns 6·38.[4] Fifteen years later (1852) a fresh Census showed a total strength of 6,86,003 souls, or an increase, since 1837, of nearly forty per cent.[5] Still great part of the district was empty, and five-sixths of its arable land lay waste. An attempt was made to supply the want of people by bringing settlers from crowded Ratnāgirī. But the most liberal offers of rent-free land and money to buy bullocks and tools, failed to tempt a single settler.[6] Still population was steadily increasing, and with the rise of produce prices (1856), the introduction of a lighter and more even assessment (1860-1866), and the opening of the railway (1863), large numbers came to Khāndeś. Compared with those of 1852, partly no doubt because they were more complete, the Census returns for 1872 showed a total of 1,028,042 souls, or an increase in twenty years of nearly fifty per cent. Since 1872, though

[1] The present special prosperity and populousness of Savda is believed to be owing to the protection afforded at this time (1803-1818) by the power of the Nimbalkar and Raste. *Bomb. Gov. Sel.* XCIII, 203.

[2] Compare Capt. Briggs (182) in *MS. Sel.* 157 (1821-1829).

[3] Mr. Chaplin's *Report*, 20th August 1822; *East India Papers*, IV, 515.

[4] Col. Sykes in *Rept. of Brit. Assoc.* (1837), 258, 264.

[5] *Bom. Gov. Sel.* I. 4.

[6] *Bom. Gov. Sel.* I. 13; Mr. A. T. Davidson, Superintendent of Survey (1861), *Bom Gov. Sel.* XCIII, 432.

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Khāndeś has passed through several trying years, the population is known to have considerably increased. The east and centre are populous, but the south is thinly peopled, and in the west great arable tracts are still empty. In spite of recent increase, Khāndeś remains one of the thinnest peopled parts of the Bombay Presidency.

Of the immigrants under British rule, exclusive of those who came back on the first establishment of order (1817-1820), the chief classes are, among traders, Mārvāḍī Vāṇīs, Bhāṭias, and Bohorās; among craftsmen, Raṅgārīs and Telīs; and among husbandmen and labourers, Marāṭhās and Kuṇbīs.

At present the most interesting section of the population are the Vañjārīs, the owners of pack-bullocks, who since cart roads have been opened to the coast (1834), and still more since they have had to compete with the railway, have been forced to give up their old wandering ways and settle in fixed villages.[1] Their leaders, men of capital who always did some trafficking on their own account, have started as traders, and the bulk of the people, who have probably always been in the habit of raising crops during their long halts in the rainy season, have taken to tillage. Some still earn their living as carriers. But none have taken to the practice of crafts, probably because, as they travelled with bullocks and with no carts, they had no need of the services of carpenters or blacksmiths.

This Vañjārī and Ahīr element in the Khāndeś people has the high value of showing, what can hardly be traced in most parts of the country, the chief process by which the bulk of the present Hindu population was probably formed. A succession of tribes of northern herdsmen have been driven south, and by changes in the government or trade of the country, have been forced to settle. Among their leaders would be men of capital if not trained traders; the mass of the people would have a rough knowledge of tillage; and as many tribes travelled with carts and sheep, some among them would be familiar with carpentry, smithwork, and weaving. When they settled the leaders would become traders and landholders, the bulk of the people would start as husbandmen, and of the rest, some would take to the practice of crafts and others would continue as herdsmen or carriers. Among the husbandmen, some of the poorer or lower sort, forced to take up lands in the outskirts of the settlement, cut off to some extent from their own people and straitened from want of labour, would associate with the earlier tribes, and taking their women as wives or slaves, would raise a mixed class. As the new tribe settled many of their special beliefs and practices would cease, peculiarities of dress would be given up, and if they had not them before, they would engage Brāhmaṇs, to conduct their ceremonies. In time sameness of work would become a closer bond than a common origin. Husbandmen would begin to marry with the older settled husbandmen and other craftsmen with men of their own

[1] Another older division of Vanjaris is established as a regular part of the Kunbis.

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calling[1]. Each division would come to be known by name of its calling, and the tribal title would sink to the name of a sub-division or to a surname. Of the old tribe the only apparent traces would be those who had kept to the original calling of herdsmen or carriers: the offspring of the low class women proud of their strain of higher blood; and perhaps the Brāhmaṇs, who known among their caste fellows by their patrons' name, had come to form a distinct sub-division.

Growth of Population.

Growth of population is determined by three factors, *viz.*, births, deaths and migration. The following paragraphs give the trends in population growth and movement of population over the last few decades. The pattern of growth of the general population has also been analysed.

The following table gives the variation in population and percentage of decade variation in the district from 1901 to 1961 :—

TABLE No. 1

VARIATION IN POPULATION DURING SIXTY YEARS, DHULIA DISTRICT

(1)	Year (2)	Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Decade Variation (6)	Percentage Decade Variation (7)
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	1901 ..	4,48,432	2,26,497	2,21,935	..	..
	1911 ..	5,59,519	2,81,839	2,76,680	+1,11,087	+24·77
	1921 ..	5,94,191	3,00,717	2,93,474	+34,672	+6·20
	1931 ..	7,14,998	3,63,073	3,51,925	+1,20,807	+20·33
	1941 ..	8,45,766	4,29,560	4,16,206	+1,30,768	+18·29
	1951 ..	10,60,278	5,38,226	5,22,052	+2,14,512	+25·36
	1961 ..	13,51,236	6,85,942	6,64,294	+2,90,958	+27·44
Akrani Maha	1951 ..	22,517	11,477	11,040	..	..
	1961 ..	34,967	17,972	16,995	+12,450	+55·29
Akkalkuva Taluka ..	1951 ..	42,976	22,073	20,903	..	..
	1961 ..	57,357	29,270	28,087	+14,381	+33·46
Taloda Taluka	1951 ..	56,004	28,206	27,798	..	..
	1961 ..	63,720	31,888	31,832	+7,716	+13·78
Shahada Taluka	1951 ..	1,34,552	67,650	66,902	..	..
	1961 ..	1,55,472	78,322	77,150	+20,920	+15·55
Nandurbar Taluka ..	1951 ..	1,17,958	59,891	58,067	..	..
	1961 ..	1,52,927	77,401	75,526	+34,969	+29·65

[1] This is the probable explanation of the large number of sub-divisions among the craftsmen classes in Khandesh. Many of them, the Telis, Salis and Koshtis, Lohars, Rangaris, Nhavis and Mhars have the stock number twelve and a half, the half being apparently a mixed or inferior class.

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TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

(1)	Year (2)	Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Decade Variation (6)	Percentage Decade Variation (7)
Shirpur Taluka	1951 ..	1,00,347	50,855	49,492	..	..
	1961 ..	1,23,780	63,079	60,701	+23,433	+23·35
Sindkhed Taluka ..	1951 ..	1,42,469	72,333	70,136	..	..
	1961 ..	1,72,333	87,305	85,028	+29,864	+20·96
Navapur Taluka	1951 ..	81,336	41,435	39,901	..	..
	1961 ..	1,05,728	53,757	51,971	+24,392	+29·099
Sakri Taluka	1951 ..	1,31,510	66,798	64,712	..	..
	1961	1,85,417	94,099	91,318	+53,907	+40·099
Dhulia Taluka	1951 ..	2,30,609	1,17,508	1,13,101	..	..
	1961 ..	2,99,535	1,53,849	1,45,686	+68,926	+29·89

The decade 1901[1]-11 witnessed a rise of 27·77 per cent in the population of Dhulia district. The extensive epidemic of influenza during the subsequent decade resulted in the reduction of the rate of variation to 6·20 per cent. The rate of variation however kept up a faster pace after 1921. The rising rate witnessed a slight decrease in 1941, while the 1961 census recorded the highest growth rate of 27·44.

There are wide variations in the rates of growth in different tālukās of Dhulia district.

The rates of variation of population in the various tālukās during the decade 1951-61 are given below :—

Taluka or Mahal	Percentage variation during 1951-61
Akkalkuvā	+ 33·46
Akrāṇī	+ 55·29
Taḷodā	+ 13·78
Śahāḍā	+ 15·55
Nandurbār	+ 29·65
Śirpūr	+ 23·35
Sindkheḍ	+ 20·96
Navāpūr	+ 29·99
Sākrī	+ 40·99
Dhulia	+ 29·89

[1] "West Khandesh shows the largest increase of any district in the Province. With a fertile soil it used to be a populous country but was devastated by Holkar's Army in 1802 and became over-grown with jungle. With the advent of British rule and the keeping in check of marauding Bhils, it had steadily risen and the opening of the Tapti Valley Railway in 1900, combined with the reaction after famine (during which over a quarter of a million were on relief works), has resulted in a large expansion of cultivation. Immigration has risen 70 per cent since 1901", *Census of India*, 1911, Vol. VII, Part I, Bombay.

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The highest rate of growth (55·29) has been recorded in Akrāṇī mahāl. This rate is more than double that of the district average. The central tālukās of Taḷodā, Śahāḍā, Śirpūr and Sindkheḍ which have the most fertile lands and the highest density of population in the district have recorded lower rates of growth than the district average. The hilly and forest areas however have recorded very high rates of growth.

The population of the district witnessed a net increase of 201·32 per cent between 1901 and 1961, and 127·41 per cent between 1921 and 1961. Thus, during the last 60 years the population has trebled.

TABLE No. 2

AREA AND POPULATION, DHULIA DISTRICT, IN 1961

	Total Rural Urban	Area in Sq. miles	Area in Sq. km.	Population per sq. mile	Population Persons	Population Males	Population Females
(1)	(2)	(3-a)	(3-b)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
District	Total ..	4,850·3	12,562·3	279	1,351,236	686,942	664,294
	Rural ..	4,791·7	12,410·4	237	1,135,380	574,127	561,253
	Urban.	58·6	151·9	3,682	215,856	112,815	103,041
Akrani Mahal	Total ..	232·0	600·9	151	34,967	17,972	16,995
	Rural ..	232·0	600·9	151	34,967	17,972	16,995
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..	..
Akkalkuwa Taluka	Total ..	320·0	828·8	179	57,357	29,270	28,087
	Rural ..	320·0	828·8	179	57,357	29,270	28,087
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..	..
Taloda Taluka ..	Total ..	143·8	372·4	443	63,720	31,888	31,832
	Rural ..	135·0	349·6	364	49,079	24,367	24,712
	Urban	8·8	22·8	1,666	14,641	7,521	7,120
Shahada taluka ..	Total ..	446·6	1,156·7	348	15,472	78,322	77,150
	Rural ..	441·6	1,143·8	322	142,134	71,336	70,798
	Urban	5·0	12·9	2,684	13,338	6,986	6,352
Nandurbar taluka	Total ..	424·7	1,100·0	360	152,927	77,401	75,526
	Rural ..	411·0	1,064·5	272	111,872	56,290	55,582
	Urban	13·7	35·5	2,995	41,055	21,111	19,944
Shirpur taluka ..	Total ..	756·0	1,958·0	164	123,780	63,079	60,701
	Rural ..	750·3	1,943·2	137	102,934	52,294	50,640
	Urban	5·7	14·8	3,638	20,846	10,785	10,061
Sindkhed taluka.	Total ..	494·3	1,280·2	349	172,333	87,305	85,028
	Rural ..	485·0	1,256·1	323	156,755	79,239	77,516
	Urban	9·3	24·1	1,677	15,578	8,066	7,521
Nawapur taluka.	Total ..	355·1	919·7	298	105,728	53,757	51,971
	Rural ..	349·3	904·7	250	94,223	47,761	46,462
	Urban	5·8	15·0	1,980	11,505	5,996	5,509
Sakri taluka ..	Total ..	926·2	2,398·9	200	185,417	94,099	91,318
	Rural ..	926·2	2,398·9	200	185 417	94,099	91,318
	Urban	..	..	..	..	..	..
Dhulia taluka ..	Total ..	751·6	1,946·7	399	299,535	153,849	145,686
	Rural ..	741·3	1,919·9	271	200,642	101,499	99,143
	Urban	10·3	26·8	9,573	98,893	52,350	46,543

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Density of Population.

According to the 1961 census, the density of population for Dhulia district is 279 as compared to the corresponding figure for the entire State which stands at 334. The following statement gives the density for all the tālukās in the district in 1951 and 1961.

—	Density per square mile 1951	Density per square mile 1961	Percentage of district population in 1961
Dhulia District ..	219	279	100
1. Akrāṇī Mahāl ..	97	151	2·59
2. Akkalkuvā Tālukā ..	134	179	4·24
3. Taḷodā Tālukā ..	389	443	4·72
4. Śahāḍā Tālukā ..	301	348	11·51
5. Nandurbār Tālukā ..	278	360	11·32
6. Śirpur Tālukā ..	133	164	9·16
7. Sindkheḍ Tālukā ..	288	349	12·75
8. Nawāpūr Tālukā ..	229	298	7·82
9. Sākrī Tālukā ..	142	200	13·72
10. Dhulia Tālukā ..	307	399	22·17

The population per square mile in Dhulia district increased from 219 in 1951 to 279 in 1961. Taḷodā having a very fertile and prosperous land has the highest density of 443 persons per square mile and Akrāṇī mahāl has the lowest *viz.*, 151. Akrāṇī mahāl, Akkalkuvā, Śirpūr and Sākrī tālukās have lower densities than that of the district as a whole. This is attributable to (i) the rural character of these tālukās, and (ii) the very high proportion of forest and barren land. "A glance at the spatial distribution of population will reveal that tālukās with high densities of population have higher proportions of the district population. Taḷodā tālukā which has the highest density of 443 in the district is an exception to this".

Urban Population.

For the purpose of this chapter urban population has been defined as the population returned from towns which have a municipality, cantonment, or a population over 5000 and at least ¾ths of male population dependent on non-agricultural pursuits. In the context of this definition, Dhulia district is less urbanised in comparison to the whole of the State. This can be seen from the following table which gives the urban population, the decade variation in population, and the percentage of decade variation from 1901 to 1961.

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TABLE No. 3

VARIATION IN URBAN POPULATION FROM 1901 TO 1961, DHULIA DISTRICT

Year	Area		Males	Females	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage Decade variation
	Sq. miles	Sq. km.					
1901	..	..	37,489	36,198	73,687	..	..
1911	..	..	40,235	39,010	79,245	+ 5,558	+ 7·54
1921	..	..	36,995	36,206	73,201	— 6,044	— 7·63
1931	..	..	51,575	47,990	99,565	+ 26,364	+ 36·02
1941	..	..	68,489	65,028	133,517	+ 33,952	+ 34·10
1951	..	..	100,624	94,847	195,471	+ 61,954	+ 46·40
1961	58·6	151·9	112,815	103,041	215,856	+ 20,385	+ 10·43

There was a decline in the rate of variation in urban population in the district in 1921 Census which recorded a loss of 6,044 persons in the urban areas. The proportion of urban to total population, however, registered a gradual rise in 1921, and reached an all-time high percentage in 1951. The last decade showed a decrease in the percentage of urban population due to the redefinition of urban areas in 1961.

The rates of variation in urban population have however never followed any trend. Urban population of the district increased by 7·54 per cent in the decade 1901-11. In the following decade it decreased by 7·63 per cent possibly because, firstly, Songīr and Prakāśe were not treated as towns, and secondly, the influenza epidemic of 1918-19 affected the urban population more than the rural population. In the successive decades it continued to vary at moderately high rates till 1951. The highest rate of growth (46·40) of urban population was recorded during the decade 1941-51. In the last decade the urban population increased by only 10·43 per cent. The lower rate is due to the redefinition of urban areas in 1961 as a result of which five towns in the district have been declassified as rural in 1961, *viz.* (1) Thāḷner, (2) Sindkheḍ, (3) Pimpaḷner, (4) Ranāḷā and (5) Beṭāvad. No new town has been added in 1961. The population of the declassified towns in 1951 was 29,679. It is recorded to be 35,473 in 1961. Had those towns been retained in 1961 the urban population would have increased by 28·58 per cent and it would have made 18·60 per cent of the district population.

'Dhulia and Nandurbār are two big towns in the district. The population of Dhulia, which is fast approaching the one lakh mark has increased by 299·96 per cent since 1901 and 235·26 per cent since 1921. The population of Nandurbār has increased by 275·89 per cent since 1901 and 202·99 per cent since 1921. Except Navāpūr all the towns in the district have municipalities.'

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The following statement gives the number of towns, the rate of decade variation in urban population and the percentage of urban to total population at each Census since 1901 for Dhulia district.

Year	No. of towns	Rate of variation in urban population	Percentage of urban to total population
1901	9	....	16·43
1911	9	+7·54	14·15
1921	[illegible]	—7·63	12·52
1931	8	+ 36·02	13·93
1941	9	+ 34·10	15·79
1951	12	+ 46·40	18·44
1961	7	+ 10·43	15·97

The net growth in urban population of the district over that of 1901 is 192·94 per cent as against 246·96 per cent for Mahārāṣṭra State as a whole.

This substantiates the statement made earlier in the section.

Towns are classified on the basis of population. The following table gives the population statistics pertaining to the towns in the district in 1951 and 1961 :—

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TABLE No. 4

TOWNS CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION WITH VARIATION DURING 1951 AND 1961.

Class	Name of Town	Year	Area Sq. mile	Area Sq. km	Persons	Males	Females	Decade variation	Percentage variation
Class II 50,000 to 99,999	Dhulia	1951	....	....	76,880	36,951	36,929	+ 23,572	+ 44·22
		1961	10·33	26·75	98,893	52,350	46,543	+ 22,013	+ 28·63
Class III 20,000 to 49,999	Nandurbar	1951	....	....	30,144	15,531	14,613	+ 8,005	+ 36·16
		1961	13·71	35·51	41,055	21,111	19,944	+ 10,911	+ 36·20
	Shirpur	1951	....	....	16,332	8,353	7,979	+ 3,503	+ 27·31
		1961	5·73	14·84	20,846	10,785	10,061	+ 4,514	+ 27·74
Class IV, 10,000 to 19,999	Dondaicha	1951	....	....	10,920	5,647	5,273	+ 4,119	+ 60·56
		1961	9·29	24·06	15,578	8,066	7,512	+ 4,658	+ 42·66
	Taloda	1951	....	....	12,091	6,195	5,896	+ 1,118	+ 10·19
		1961	8·79	22·77	14,641	7,521	7,120	+ 2,550	+ 21·09
	Shahada	1951	....	....	10,437	5,391	5,046	+ 1,345	+ 14·79
		1961	4·97	12·87	13,338	6,986	6,352	+ 2,901	+ 27·80
	Navapur	1951	....	....	8,988	4,614	4,374	+ 2,257	+ 33·53
		1961	5·81	15·05	11,505	5,996	5,509	+ 2,517	+ 28·00

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Of the nine towns in the district, Dhulia is a Class II town, Nandurbār and Śirpūr are grouped under Class III whereas Doṇḍāica, Taḷodā, Śahādā and Navāpūr belong to Class IV. Dhulia is approaching the one lakh mark, and has developed a more urban character during the last about four decades. The population of this town was 24,726 in 1901; 30,341 in 1911; 29,497 in 1921; 39,656 in 1931; 53,308 in 1941; 76,880 in 1951 and 98,893 in 1961.

Rural Population.

The rural population (11,35,380) which is spread over 1,360 inhabited villages forms about 84·03 per cent of the total population of the district. The population pattern of the district exhibits its predominantly rural character. Table No. 5 below give the talukawise distribution of rural population in 1961; whereas Table No. 6 gives rates of growth and percentage of rural population to total population in the district since 1901 to 1961.

TABLE No. 5

RURAL POPULATION IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961

Taluka	Persons	Males	Females
Akrani	34,967	17,972	16,995
Akkalkuwa	57,357	29,270	28,087
Taloda	49,079	24,367	24,712
Shahada	142,134	71,336	70,798
Nandurbar	111,872	56,290	55,582
Shirpur	102,934	52,294	50,640
Sindkhed	156,755	79,239	77,516
Navapur	94,233	47,761	46,462
Sakri	185,417	94,099	91,318
Dhulia	200,642	101,499	99,143
District Total ..	1,135,380	574,127	561,253

TABLE No. 6

VARIATION IN RURAL POPULATION IN DHULIA DISTRICT DURING 1901 TO 1961.

	Rate of variation in rural population	Percentage of rural to urban population
1901	....	83·57
1911	+ 28·16	85·84
1921	+ 8·48	87·68
1931	+ 18·13	86·07
1941	+ 15·73	84·21
1951	+ 21·42	81·56
1961	+ 31·29	84·03

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Rural Population.

The rural population of the district increased by 202·97 per cent over that of 1901 and 117·93 per cent over that of 1921. The corresponding rates of increase in the rural population of Mahārāṣṭra State are 75·53 per cent and 67·08 per cent.

The proportion of rural population to total population of the district increased from 83·57 per cent in 1901 to 87·68 per cent in 1921. It then gradually decreased to 81·56 per cent in 1951. The proportion witnessed an increase to 84·03 per cent in 1961. This increase is attributable to the redefinition of urban areas, and the consequent declassification of some towns to rural areas in the Census of 1961, which brought about an increase in the rural population by 35,473 persons.

The Census returns show that the rates of variation in rural population of Dhulia have always been higher than the corresponding rates for the State. The lowest rate of growth was recorded during the decade 1911-21, during which the rural population showed an increase of 8·48 per cent. only. Even this rate of growth compared favourably with the rate for the State as the rural population of the State had actually suffered a loss of 6·77 per cent during that decade.

The pattern of rural population is revealed in the frequency distribution of villages on the basis of population. The table which follows, gives the number of villages with various groups of population.

TABLE No. 7

VARIATION IN RURAL POPULATION IN DHULIA DISTRICT
DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961.

	Total Number of inhabited villages	Villages with less than 2,000 population				Villages with population of 2,000-9,000		Villages with population of 10,000 and above
		less than 200	200-499	500-999	1,000-1,999	2,000-4,999	5,000 9,999	
District Total ..	1,360	270	364	361	257	94	12	2
Akrani Mahal ..	150	85	52	11	2	....	....	....
Akkalkuwa ..	164	71	63	21	7	2	....	....
Taloda ..	86	23	28	23	10	2	....	....
Shahada ..	180	26	54	52	36	11	1	.....
Shirpur ..	115	12	29	35	31	7	1	....
Sindkhed ..	142	13	29	46	34	18	1	1
Nawapur ..	88	5	25	26	26	5	.....	1
Sakri ..	155	12	25	59	35	20	4	....
Dhulia ..	155	11	30	40	50	20	4	....
Nandurbar ..	125	12	29	48	26	9	1	.....

It is very interesting to note that a large number of villages, *viz.* 73·16 per cent of the total have a population of less than 1,000. These villages account for 36·57 per cent of the district rural

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population as against the average of 40·73 per cent of the rural population for the State. However, a large concentration of population is found in the villages with a population of 1,000 and more. Villages with a population of more than 2,000 which account for 7·94 per cent of the total number covered 32·46 per cent of the district rural population.

The 1961 Census returns show that the average population per inhabited village is 835 in the district. This average for the various tālukās is as under. Akrāṇī mahāl (233), Akkalkuvā tālukā, (350), Taḷodā ṭālukā (371), Śahādā tālukā (790), Nandurbār tālukā (895), Sindkhed tālukā (1104), Navāpūr tālukā (1071), Sākrī tālukā (1196) and Dhulia tālukā (1294). There are 28 villages per 100 square miles of rural area in the district. The forest areas have small but closely located villages.

Marital Status.

The marital status of persons belonging to various age-groups is given in the table that follows.

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TABLE No. 8

AGE AND MARITAL STATUS

	Total Population			Marital Status									
				Never Married		Married		Widowed		Divorced or separated		Unspecified status	
	Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All ages ..	1,351,236	686,942	624,294	371,072	291,803	297,414	306,000	15,731	61,994	2,627	4,402	98	96
0-9 ..	440,261	223,180	217,081	223,180	217,081	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
10-14 ..	153,380	82,101	71,279	80,073	58,486	1,998	12,650	16	72	5	61	9	10
15-19 ..	112,138	56,660	55,478	44,234	12,701	12,229	41,755	85	372	106	635	6	15
20-24 ..	115,279	54,040	61,239	15,927	2,029	37,275	57,410	386	818	444	967	8	15
25-29 ..	110,555	54,539	56,016	4,163	611	49,100	53,209	702	1,448	561	741	13	7
30-34 ..	91,658	47,126	44,532	1,317	263	44,536	41,229	801	2,468	452	560	20	12
35-39 ..	79,043	41,503	37,540	648	141	39,575	33,235	983	3,644	288	504	9	16
40-44 ..	63,188	32,595	30,593	400	119	30,633	24,491	1,299	5,618	258	360	5	5
45-49 ..	56,808	30,244	26,564	316	83	28,075	16,603	1,676	7,639	167	235	10	4
50-54 ..	41,107	21,378	19,729	198	90	19,149	10,956	1,903	8,522	120	110	8	1
55-59 ..	29,533	15,967	13,566	150	23	13,941	6,078	1,795	7,380	77	83	4	2
60 64 ..	25,682	12,365	13,317	99	21	10,173	3,577	2,016	9,666	74	50	3	3
65 69 ..	13,774	6,663	7,111	37	16	5,168	1,468	1,420	5,600	37	26	1	1
70 + ..	18,505	8,383	10,122	138	27	5,556	1,329	2,649	8,742	38	20	2	....
Age not stated ..	325	198	127	192	112	6	10	....	5	....	....	....	....

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Marital Status.

The census returns show that the percentage of never married persons increased from 51·09 in 1951 to 54·03 in 1961 in the case of males, and from 43·11 to 43·93 for females. The decade witnessed a decrease in the proportion of widowed persons, both males and females. There has been some increase in the proportion of divorced or separated persons. Consequently there has been a decrease in the proportion of married males, while the proportion of married females has increased slightly.

The distribution of marital status by age-groups shows that there is an increase in marriageable age in the district. The proportion of married in the age-group 0-14 shows considerable reduction, both for males and females, over the last decade. The proportion of never married decreased with increase in age whereas the proportion of widowed increased with increasing age. The proportion of divorced or separated persons is the highest in age-group 15-34, both for males and females.

Migration.

The incidence of migration of population is an important aspect in the study of population of a district. The rate and extent of migration depends on economic and social factors, such as employment, education, occupational pattern, marriage, etc. In this context it is essential to study the proportions of population enumerated at the place of birth and other places. The findings of the 1961 census in this respect are given in the following table:

TABLE No. 9

PROPORTIONS OF POPULATION BY PLACES OF BIRTH IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961.

	Total Population	In place of enumeration	Elsewhere in the district	Outside district but in Maharashtra	Outside Maharashtra
Persons ..	13,51,236	8,11,669	3,83,132	1,11,064	45,213
Males ..	8,68,942	4,85,016	1,38,224	42,326	21,283
Females ..	6,64,294	3,26,653	2,44,908	68,738	23,930
Percentage to total population					
Persons ..	100	60·07	28·36	8·22	3·35
Males ..	100	70·62	20·12	6·16	3·10
Females ..	100	49·18	36·87	10·35	3·60

Thus, 60·07 per cent of the total population is enumerated at the place of birth, whereas 28·36 per cent persons have their place of birth elsewhere in the district. This shows the movement of the population within the district. As compared to the movement within the district, the movement of population from other districts of the State and from outside he State seems to be inconsequential. Only

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The People. POPULATION. Migration.

8·22 per cent of the population is enumerated as having migrated from other districts of Mahārāṣṭra and 3·35 per cent from outside Mahārāṣṭra. Some of the probable causes of migration are explained by the distribution of males and females by place of birth. The percentage of females enumerated at place of birth is much less than that for males, whereas the percentage of females enumerated to have born elsewhere than the place of enumeration is much higher than that for males. This is mainly the result of marriage migration.

The proportion of migrants in this district is very large. Majority of the immigrants are from the adjoining areas of Jālgāṅv, and Nāśik districts and from Gujarāt and Rājasthān States. Intermarriages have also contributed considerably to the high proportion of immigration.

Scheduled Castes.

The 1961 Census has returned ten Scheduled Castes in Dhulia District, *viz;* (1) Bhaṅgī, (2) Cāmbhār, (3) Ḍhor, (4) Gārodā, (5) Halsār, (6) Holar, (7) Mahār, (8) Māṅg, (9) Maṅg Gārudī, and (10) Tirgār. Besides these, 14 castes are notified as Scheduled Castes for which no one was returned in the district in 1961. They are as follows: (1) Ager, (2) Bākeḍ (3) Calvādī (4) Cennā Dasār, (5) Hālleer, (16) Holayā, (7) Liṅgader, (8) Māhyavaṅśī, (9) Meghval, (10) Mukrī, (11) Naḍiā, (12) Pāsī, (13) Seṇvā and (14) Turī. The following table gives the population details about the ten Scheduled Castes in the district enumerated in the 1961 Census.

TABLE No. 10

Name of Scheduled Caste	Population		Percentage to total population of the district	Percentage of each Scheduled Caste population in	
	Males	Females		Rural Areas	Urban Areas
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
*All Scheduled Castes ..	24,230	23,824	3·56	75·81	24·19
(1) Bhangi ..	752	666	0·10	30·99	66·01
(2) Chambhar ..	6,854	6,750	1·01	64·89	35·11
(3) Dhor ..	41	40	0·01	12·35	87·65
(4) Garoda ..	3	2	N	100·00	..
(5) Halsar ..	3	7	N	100·00	..
(6) Holar ..	273	287	0·04	69·46	30·54
(7) Mahar ..	13,617	13,373	2·00	86·41	13·59
(8) Mang ..	2,687	2,697	0·40	62·82	37·18
(9) Mang Garudi ..	..... (Included in Mang)				
(10) Tirgar ..	..	2	N	100·00	..

* Inclusive of persons from the Scheduled Castes who have not reported their individual caste. N=Negligible.

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The People. POPULATION. Scheduled Castes.

Mahārs who are reported from Dhulia, Sindkheḍ, Śirpūr, Sākrī, Śahāḍā and Navāpūr tālukās form the largest number among the Scheduled Castes. The second largest group is of Cāmbhārs who are reported from Dhulia, Sindkheḍ and Sākrī tālukās. Māṅgs are third and Bhaṅgīs form the fourth as regards population. Māṅgs are found mainly in Dhulia, Sindkheḍ and Sākrī tālukās, while Bhaṅgīs are returned from Dhulia, Akkalkuvā and Sindkheḍ tālukās. Bhaṅgīs and Ḍhors are concentrated in urban areas which may be attributed to the scavenging, sweeping and tanning of hides and skins with which they are associated traditionally. Scheduled Castes formed 5·76 per cent of the population in 1951 while the 1961, Census records their percentage at 3·56. This reduction is attributable to the conversion of a large number of Mahārs to Neo-Buddhism. But for the change of religion, the total population of the Scheduled Castes would have made about 6 per cent of the population in 1961.

The 1961 census enumerates that 19·71 per cent of the people belonging to the Scheduled Castes are literate, the district average being 21·46. "Both males and females of the Scheduled Castes appear to have almost come up in education to the levels of the general population. They seem to be taking full advantage of the educational facilities and concessions available to them and the gap between them and the district average is considerably reduced now. Cāmbhārs and Mahārs appear to be more advanced in literacy. In fact their literacy rates for males are higher than the corresponding average rates for the general population in rural areas."

Scheduled Tribes.

Dhulia accounts for the highest percentage of Scheduled Tribes population in the State. Scheduled Tribes accounting for 5,13,344 persons out of a total population of 13,51,236 form 37·99 per cent of the total. The tālukās of Navāpūr, Akkalkuvā and Akrānī are predominantly tribal areas. There is a considerably large tribal population in Nandurbār, Taḷodā, Sākrī, Śahāḍā and Śirpūr tālukās as well. The principal Scheduled Tribes in the district are Bhils, Dhaṅkā, Gāmiṭ, Koknā, Nāikḍā and Pārdhī. They are concentrated in the Sātpuḍā ranges in the north and the areas flanked by the ranges of the Sahyādrī in the south and south-west.

The following table gives the statistics of Scheduled Tribes in the district in 1961 :—

TABLE No. 11

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 ..	258,749	254,595	37·99	96·91	3·09
(1) Barda ..	217	212	0·03	100·00	....
(2) Bhil ..	151,591	148,508	22·21	96·65	3·35

*Inclusive of persons from the Scheduled Tribes who have not reported their individual tribes.

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Scheduled Tribes.

TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

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)
(3) Codhara ..	38	26	N	100·00	....
(4) Dhanka ..	21,570	21,596	3·19	98·73	1·27
(5) Dhodia ..	229	209	0·03	71·46	28·54
(6) Dubla ..	390	397	0·06	27·95	72·05
(7) Gamit ..	51,369	50,238	7·52	96·93	3·07
(8) Gond ..	89	54	0·01	56·64	43·36
(9) Kathodi ..	388	389	0·06	100·00	....
(10) Kokna ..	25,688	25,521	3·79	99·54	0·46
(11) Koli Dhor ..	314	312	0·05	38·66	61·34
(12) Naikda ..	4,496	4,757	0·68	95·04	4·96
(13) Pardhi ..	1,892	1,883	0·28	93·91	6·09
(14) Patelia ..	28	41	0·01	34·78	65·22
(15) Pomla ..	1	....	N	100·00	....
(16) Rathava ..	55	36	0·01	80·22	19·78
(17) Varli ..	8	2	N	50·00	50·00
(18) Vitolia ..	385	414	0·06	100·00	....

N=Negligible.

Of the 19 tribes declared as Scheduled Tribes in the district 18 were reported in the 1961 Census. The Bhils with a numerical superiority of 3,00,099 constitute the most important Scheduled Tribe in the district and are found all over the district. The Gāmīts form the second largest group with 1,01,607 souls, and are mainly reported from Navāpūr, Nandurbār, Akkalkuvā, Sākrī and Taḷodā tālukās. The third largest group is that of the Koknās with 51,209 persons, and are found in the tālukās of Sākrī, Navāpūr, Nandurbār and Sirpūr. The Dhaṅkās comprising 43,166 souls are returned from Akkalkuvā, Navāpūr, Nandurbār, Tāḷodā and Śahādā tālukās.

An interesting aspect of the tribal population is that they are inhabitated mostly in the rural areas and in the vicinity of forests. They subsist on forest produce and allied work.

The Gāmit, Dhaṅkā, Nāikḍā and Bārḍā tribes are merely the sub-divisions of the Bhil tribe and have a cultural proximity with the Bhils.

Scheduled Tribes formed 37·30 per cent of the total population in 1951. In the area which comprised the present Dhulia district,

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the people belonging to Scheduled Tribes numbered 3,95,521 in 1951. The number rose to 5,13, 344 in 1961 or by 29·79 per cent during the decade. The percentage proportion of Scheduled Tribes population increased from 37·30 per cent in 1951 to 37·99 per cent in 1961.

Scheduled Tribes as a whole lag much behind in literacy compared to the general population and even to the Scheduled Castes. The Koknā tribe appears to be more advanced educationally. The percentage of literacy among Dhoḍiā, Dhaṅkā, Pārdhī and Paṭeḷiā is not insignificant. The proportion of female literates is however deplorably lower than that of males. The state of literacy presents a better picture among the tribals in the urban areas than their rural counterparts. The 1961 Census returns show that 44·56 per cent of the urban tribals are literate whereas only 21·46 per cent of those staying in rural areas are literate.

Population by Religion.

Hindus, Muslims and Buddhists are the prominent religious communities in the district. Table No. 12 gives the population by sub-divisions in 1872, while Table No. 13 gives the statistics of the principal religious communities, as per 1961 census.

TABLE No. 12

POPULATION BY SUB-DIVISIONS, DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1872*

Sub-division	Hindus	Muslims	Christians	Others	Total
Taloda	34,877	401	..	..	35,278
Shahada	44,058	2,170	..	..	46,228
Shirpur	32,524	2,118	..	..	34,642
Nandurbar ..	42,480	2,805	..	..	45,285
Virdel	60,199	3,151	..	..	63,350
Pimpalner	58,527	1,410	3	185	60,125
Dhulia	61,607	5,213	92	17	66,929

*Statistics taken from the *Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Khandesh District*, 1880, pp. 46-47.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
POPULATION.
BY RELIGION.

TABLE No. 13

POPULATION BY RELIGION—DHULIA DISTRICT, 1961

	Persons	Males	Females	Buddhists		Christians		Hindus		Jains		Muslims		Others	
				Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
District—Total ..	1,351,236	686,942	664,294	15,451	15,547	1,840	1,647	625,105	604,814	5,524	5,021	38,894	37,146	128	119
Rural ..	1,135,380	574,127	561,253	13,777	14,024	1,311	1,130	540,848	528,701	2,819	2,616	15,329	14,752	43	30
Urban ..	215,856	112,815	103,041	1,674	1,523	529	517	84,257	76,113	2,705	2,405	23,565	22,394	85	89
Akkalkuwa Taluka	57,357	29,270	28,087	20	10	16	15	27,777	26,734	260	219	1,186	1,103	11	6
Akrani Mahal ..	34,967	17,972	16,995	21	27	36	18	17,892	16,908	..	..	23	42	..	..
Taloda Taluka ..	63,720	31,888	31,832	600	643	194	186	29,956	30,019	133	110	1,003	874	2	..
Shahada Taluka ..	155,472	78,322	77,150	3,805	3,959	63	84	70,540	69,551	417	354	3,493	3,202	1	..
Nandurbar Taluka	152,927	77,401	75,526	1,682	1,639	453	458	69,210	67,347	689	594	5,351	5,461	16	27
Sakri Taluka ..	185,417	94,099	91,318	2,589	2,539	214	207	88,732	86,206	196	188	2,368	2,178	..	..
Dhulia Taluka ..	299,535	153,849	145,686	3,176	3,125	280	242	132,167	124,971	2,495	2,306	15,655	14,966	76	76
Shirpur Taluka ..	127,780	63,079	60,701	1,637	1,653	20	24	57,216	55,140	584	541	3,606	3,335	16	8
Sindkhed Taluka ..	172,333	87,305	85,028	1,834	1,919	24	30	80,870	77,902	703	689	4,670	4,488	4	..
Nawapur Taluka ..	105,728	53,757	51,971	84	33	540	383	51,545	50,036	47	20	1,539	1,497	2	2

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
LANGUAGES..

The study of languages is an integral part of the study of the people and their culture. The sociological implications of the language spoken by an individual or a group of individuals are very important from the functional point of view. Among many other factors, social intercourse between various groups of population is conditioned by the language they speak. By and large, the rural as well as semi-urban society has still not transcended the language barrier. Individuals mix more freely within their linguistic group than outside. The comparatively more homogenous character of the rural society is generally due to its unilingual pattern.

The Census authorities (1961) have defined mother-tongue as a language spoken by the person's mother to him in his childhood or mainly spoken in the house. In the Census statistics dialects have been included in the main languages on the basis of Grierson's Classification. The following table gives the Census statistics of the speakers of various mother-tongues in the district in 1961. Statistics of only the principal mother-tongues are given, whereas the minor languages are grouped under 'others'.

TABLE No. 14

STATISTICS OF MOTHER-TONGUE IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961

District/Taluka	Total Persons	Banjari		Bhili
		Males	Females	Males
1	2	3	4	5
District— Total	1,351,236	3,577	3,652	189,945
Rural	1,135,380	3,487	3,581	185,158
Urban	215,856	90	71	4,787
Akrani	34,967	....	....	16,883
Akkalkuwa	57,357	....	....	23,139
Taloda	63,720	15	3	18,748
Shahada	155,472	624	628	29,974
Nandurbar	152,927	980	969	21,746
Shirpur	123,780	415	379	11,181
Sindkhed	172,333	19	25	4,265
Nawapur	105,728	65	73	41,291
Sakri	185,417	683	618	13,744
Dhulia	299,535	776	957	8,974

District/Taluka	Marathi		Sindhi	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	13	14	15	16
District— Total	405,459	395,784	3,271	2,287
Rural	339,328	334,912	1,621	1,332
Urban	66,131	60,872	1,650	1,555
Akrani	691	431	8	1
Akkalkuwa	1,450	1,590	23	9
Taloda	8,867	9,372	146	11
Shahada	31,530	33,526	85	5
Nandurbar	41,160	39,119	922	1,001
Shirpur	44,364	43,007	113	53
Sindkhed	75,383	75,243	473	426
Nawapur	7,651	6,826	39	21
Sakri	76,342	73,799	24	3
Dhulia	118,021	112,871	1,458	1,357

TABLE No. 14

STATISTICS OF MOTHER-TONGUE IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961

	Dhanki		Gujarati		Hindi	
Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
184,649	193	182	30,677	28,285	15,625	13,644
180,249	193	182	21,909	20,497	7,307	6,184
4,400	....	....	8,768	7,788	8,318	7,460
16,242	....	....	289	270	31	12
22,281	183	182	2,523	2,449	816	522
19,105	....	....	2,416	2,023	761	572
28,769	....	....	11,629	10,108	1,141	880
21,509	....	....	5,659	5,923	2,051	1,826
10,731	....	....	1,886	1,729	1,565	1,500
2,627	....	....	995	838	1,704	1,563
40,646	....	....	2,841	2,609	672	662
13,890	10	....	316	305	690	590
8,849	....	....	2,123	2,031	6,194	5,517

Telugu		Urdu		Others	
Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
17	18	19	20	21	22
1,491	1,466	36,520	32,817	1,184	928
1,181	1,194	13,352	12,586	591	536
310	272	22,168	20,231	593	392
....	....	66	37	4	2
5	....	1,122	1,054	9	....
35	29	887	711	13	6
211	217	3,002	2,918	126	99
147	140	4,626	4,950	110	89
100	100	3,338	3,114	117	88
210	216	4,175	4,019	81	71
21	15	1,098	992	79	127
134	139	2109	1,937	47	37
628	610	15,097	13,085	598	409

The distribution of languages as between rural and urban areas in 1961 is given below :—

Language	Percentage to total population			Percentage of each language	
	Total	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Banjari	0·53	0·62	0·07	97·77	2·23
Bhilli	27·72	32·18	4·26	97·55	2·45
Dhanki	0·03	0·03	....	100·00	....
Gujarati	4·36	3·74	7·67	71·92	28·08
Hindi	2·17	1·19	7·31	46·09	53·91
Marathi	59·30	59·38	58·84	84·15	15·85
Sindhi	0·45	0·26	1·48	47·95	52·05
Telugu	0·22	0·21	0·27	80·32	19·68
Urdu	5·06	2·29	19·64	37·96	62·04
Others	0·16	0·10	0·46	53·36	46·64

Marāṭhī is the principal language of the district with 59·30 per cent of the persons using it as a medium of expression. Bhilli language which ranks second in numerical superiority is the mother-tongue of 27·7 per cent. of the population. This language is spoken by the Bhils who form a considerable section of the total population. Urdū, Gujarāti and Hindi follow next in that order. The proportion of speakers of these three languages is higher in urban areas.

The comparative numerical strength of the languages during the Censuses of 1901, 1951 and 1961 is given below :—

Language	Percentage to total population		
	1901	1951	1961
Banjari	....	....	0·53
Bhilli	11·90	28·47	27·72
Dhanka	....	....	0·03
Gujarati	5·39	4·69	4·36
Hindi	7·20	1·80	2·17
Marathi	69·97	59·22	59·30
Sindhi	....	0·53	0·45
Telugu	0·16	0·25	0·22
Urdu	....	4·78	5·06
Others	5·38	0·26	0·16

The proportion of Marāṭhī speakers decreased from 69·97 per cent. in 1901 to 59·30 per cent in 1961.* This sizeable decrease is mainly attributable to the fact that the Bhil tribes which had reported Marāṭhī as their mother-tongue in 1901, reported themselves Bhilli mother-tongue speakers in 1951 and 1961. The reduction in the proportion of Marāṭhī speakers met with a corresponding rise in the proportion of Bhilli speakers during 1951 and 1961. It may, however, be noted that Bhilli can at best be regarded as a dialect

*Census Hand Book, Dhulia District, 1961.

of Marāṭhī with a currupt mixture of Gujarāti and, probably, Hindi. The percentage of Gujarāti also met with a slight decrease from 5·39 per cent in 1901 to 4·69 per cent in 1951 and 4·36 per cent in 1961. Hindi speakers who accounted for 7·20 per cent in 1901 were reduced to 1·80 per cent in 1951 and 2·17 per cent in 1961. This is attributable to the fact that the statistics of Urdū speakers were included in those of Hindi speakers in 1901. Urdū was given an independent status in 1951 and 1961, and hence the reduction in the number of Hindi speakers. The slight increase of Urdū speakers in 1961 over that in 1951 is not due to increase in Muslim population, but due to the fact that more Muslims returned themselves as Urdū speakers in 1961. Marāṭhī, the principal language in the district, is understood by almost all the people, even though only 59·30 per cent are returned as Marāṭhī mother-tongue speakers.

The Marāṭhī spoken in the district, and especially in the rural areas, differs considerably from the language spoken in other districts of western Mahārāṣṭra. It differs from pure Marāṭhī, as it is understood, in the use of words, expression as well as in intonation. The Marāṭhī language spoken by the rural masses is known as Ahirāṇī, which can be described as a local dialect of Marāṭhī with admixture of Gujarāti, Hindi and Prākṛt varients. The name Ahirāṇī seems to owe its origin to the Ahīr dynasty which ruled over this area. Even after the end of the Ahīr dynasty, there were several sections of the people who prefixed the word Ahīr before their caste name. As among the carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, fishermen, tailors, weavers, etc., the Ahīr element was distinctly found in all castes including Brāhmaṇs and Marāṭhās. This Ahīr element was so predominant that the local Marāṭhī dialect was called Ahirāṇī.*

Popular evidence has furnished sufficient testimony to the fact that Ahirāṇī is only the local dialect of Marāṭhī though the influence of Gujarāti, Hindi and the Prākṛt languages is obviously present in its form. In the course of the last about five decades the form and mode of the language have drifted towards Marāṭhī spoken in Mahārāṣṭra.

The following extracts from the Khāndeś Gazetteer, published in 1880, throw light on the Ahirāṇī dialect of Marāṭhī.

"In their homes the bulk of the people speak a dialect known as Khāndeśī, Ahirāṇī,[1] or Dhed Gujarī a curious mixture of Gujarāti, Marāṭhī, Nemāḍī, and Hindustānī. Though from its construction it looks like a compromise between the modern Gujarāti, Marāṭhī, and Hindi, this dialect is the offspring of several old Prākṛt varieties Magadhi, Saurāṣṭrī, Śaursenī, Lāṭī, Mahārāṣṭrī, Paiśācī, and

*Dr. Grierson remarks that "it cannot be classed as a dialect of Marathi : it is probably a form of Gujarati."

[1] The name Ahirani is probably derived from that of the Abhirani mentioned by the latest Prakrit grammarians as a dialect spoken by cowherds and others in the country near the western coast about Gujarat. Prof. R. G. Bhandarkar, M.A., Hon., M. R. A. S.

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Apabraṅśā or Bhākhā. Except a few ballads and songs recorded by the Khāndeś Bhāṭs, this is entirely a spoken language. It discards the cerebrall and substitutes for it the palatal semivowely thus black is *kayā* not *kāḷā*. Resembling Marāṭhī and Gujarati in the more general grammatical forms, Ahirāṇī presents several peculiarities in declension and conjugation. The plural is formed by adding the suffixes, not as in Gujarāti and Marāṭhī by a change in the word itself; thus *bhīt*, wall, becomes *bhitas*, walls[1]. Cases are formed by suffixes. Thus, for the accusative and dative *le* is added; for the instrumental *ni*, *vari ghai*; for the ablative, *thin*; for the genitive, *na*, *ni*, *na*; and for the locative, *ma* and *mazar*. Masculine and neuter nouns ending in *a*, change *a* into *e* in the plural when case terminations are applied. Feminine nouns preserve, however, the final *a* in the plural before case terminations. Masculine nouns ending in *a*, *i*, *u*, and *o*, do not undergo any change, and the case terminations are applied to the final letter of the original word. A notable exception in *a* is *bhingota*, a bee, which changes its *ta* to *tya* before any case terminations are affixed to it. Another exception in *u* is *ju*, louse, which becomes *juva* and keeps the double plural form *juvas* to which case terminations are affixed. Pronouns both personal and relative are the same as in Marāṭhī but their case forms differ. Except for the difference of case forms, the first and second personal pronouns form their plurals in the same way as the Marāṭhī. On the other hand, the third personal pronoun and the relatives insert as an *s* in the plural before the case terminations. The demonstrative this differs from the Marāṭhī. The *ha*, *hi*, and *he* of the latter become *hau* in the masculine, and *hai* in the faminine and neuter. The interrogative or indefinite *kon* suffers no change in its crude form, but the indefinite pronominal particle *kay* takes *kasa* as its crude form to which the case terminations are added. Though curious the conjugation of verbs is, with but few exceptions, regular. The present tense has one form for the singulars of all persons and another for the plurals, the terminations being *s* and *tas* respectively, thus *kar*, to do, has *karas* and *kartas*. These seem to be derived from the old Prākṛt present participle *karant*, further corrupted to *karat*. In Marāṭhī, also, the present tense is formed from the present participle, but to distinguish the persons the old personal terminations are appended to it, while in Khāndeśī they are not. In Gujarati the old present participle is used to form the past conditional, and no terminations are applied to distinguish the persons. The *t* of the participle is however softened to *s* in the Khāndeśī. In the plural *kartas* which corresponds to the Marāṭhī *karitat* the second *t* is softened. The past tense is formed by adding *n*, the terminations being *nu* and *nut* for the first person. and *na* and *nat* for the second and third persons, singular and plural, respectively. To Marāṭhī this *n* is unknown, but it is used in northern Gujarāti, as in *bandhano* for *bandhayo* 'bound' *dithano* for *dekhayo* 'seen', and in some verbs in the Braj Bhāṣā, as *kina* 'done' *dina* 'given', and *lon*, 'taken'. The *n* is generalised from such old Prākrt forms

[1] *Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Khandesh District*, pp. 42-45.

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as *dinna* 'given' for '*datta*' (*Sansk.*) *luna* 'cut' for *luna* (Sansk.), and *bhinna* 'divided' for *bhinna* (Sansk.).

The future has *su* and *sut* for the first, *shi* and *shal* or *shat* for the second and *i* and *tin* or *til* for the third persons singular and plural. The *s* of the first and second persons seems to be the old Prākṛt *ss* (स्स) and Sanskṛt *sya* (य). In Gujarāti it is preserved in all the persons. The Marāṭhī *l* is dropped or rather not affixed, except in the optional plural forms of the second and third persons. The irregular *karmaṇi prayoga* of the Marāṭhī and Gujarati, which requires the verb to agree in gender and number with the object, is found in Ahirānī. Thus, 'a house was built by Rām', *Ramani ghar bandh*; a book was read by a Brāhmaṇ, *Brahmanni pothi vachi*. Adjectives vary in form according to the number and gender of the nouns they qualify, but not according to their case inflections as in Marāṭhī. The Ahirāṇī conjunctions *an* and *na* correspond to the Marāṭhī *ani* and *va* and the Gujarāti *ane* and *ne*. There is a peculiar word for moreover, *akhor*. The adverbs of place are: here, *athe*, *ithe* (Sansk. *atra*); there, *tathe*, *tatha* (Sansk. *tatra*); where *kathe*, *katha* and *koth* (Sansk *kutra*). The adverbs of time are: when (relative), *javhaya*, *jadhaya*, and *jodhal*, corresponding to the Sanskṛt *yada*; then, *tavhaya*, *tadhala* (Sansk. *tada*); when (interrogative), *kavhaya*, *Kadhaya* (Sansk. *Kada*.). The adverbs of manner correspond to the Marāṭhī forms. Some peculiar words are in use derived neither from Gujarāti nor from Marāṭhī. Among these may be noticed *andor* a boy, *ander* a girl,, *bak* towards, *ibak* hither, *tibak* thither, *pan* near, *dhura* until and *mayav* alas!

Among themselves the Western Sātpuḍā Bhils speak a dialect of Gujarāti, while those further east use a form of Nemāḍī. Most of them know a little Hindustanī or Marāṭhī and employ it in speaking to Europeans or men from the plains, to whom their own dialect is unintelligible. A very marked local tendency is to drop every possible consonant. Liquids go first as in *Koi* for *Koli*, *Mai* for *Mali*; they are often followed by sibilants, as in *raita* for *rasta*, and by gutturals as *Vaijo* for Vāghdev. The lower one goes in the social scale the more marked is the provincialism. It is probably due to the influence of the aboriginal races among whom the peculiarity is most marked.

Except of Bohorās who speak Gujarātī, the home tongue of almost all Khāndeś Musalmāns is Hindustanī."

Bilingualism.

Besides their own mother-tongue a considerable number of persons speak subsidiary languages. The census enumerates these persons under the sub-head bilingual population. There has been a steady growth in this group during the last few decades. In the nature of things, the bilingual population is more concentrated in urban areas than in rural areas.

The following table gives the extent of bilingualism in the district in respect of the chief languages spoken:—

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Bilingualism.

TABLE No. 15

BILINGUALISM, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1961

Total speakers		Mother-tongue	Persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to mother-tongue										
					Subsidiary Languages								
Males	Females		Males	Females	Ahirani	Others	Bhili	Gujarati	Hindi	Marathi	Marwari	Sindhi	Urdu
138,988	138,458	Ahirani	10,447	2,318	..	593	..	382	7,849	3,720	29	..	12
3,577	3,652	Banjari	284	107	27	..	..	4	111	249	..	..	..
157,019	152,686	Bhili	5,449	1,671	316	60	..	308	2,681	3,801	1	..	3
18,008	16,402	Gujarati	8,372	4,734	30	554	58	..	2,581	9,137	..	..	746
10,098	8,891	Hindi	4,528	2,341	120	319	13	400	..	5,729	169	1	105
248,035	238,022	Marathi	29,325	8,863	528	6,453	1,524	1,934	27,502	..	98	2	147
5,228	4,478	Marwadi	3,183	1,789	10	111	1	124	1,239	3,481	..	..	6
3,271	2,887	Sindhi	1,293	475	..	101	..	21	1489	135	..	..	22
35,520	32,817	Urdu	11,650	3,756	191	387	5	828	2,638	11,336	21	..	..

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Bilingualism.

Of the total population in the district, 1,11,293 persons are returned as speaking a language subsidiary to their mother-tongue. The proportion of males (81,843) is very much higher than that of the female bilingual population (29,450).

The figures of bilingual population speaking the various subsidiary languages are given below :—

Hindi (M. 39,016-F. 9,085) ; Marāṭhī (M. 30,737-F. 14, 695) ; English (M. 7,380-F. 987) ; Gujarāti (M. 3,004-F. 1517) ; Bhilli (M. 101-F. 1528) ; Ahirāṇī (M. 574-F. 758) ; Urdū (M. 581-F. 486) ; Mārvāḍī (M. 139-F. 190) ; Sanskṛt (M. 99-F. 3) ; Arabic (M. 33-F. 59) ; Telugu (M. 37-F. 46) ; Kannaḍa (M. 46-F. 15) ; Gurumukhīs (M. 4-F. 38) ; Gujaru (M. 18-F. 17) ; Tāmiḷ (M. 16-F. 3) ; Rājasthānī (M. 16-F. 2) ; Puñjābī (M. 12-F. 5) ; Pāḍvī (M. 5. F. 5) ; Persian (M. 7-F. 1) ; Beṅgāḷī (M. 6-F. 1) ; Pāwrī (M. 4-F. 1) ; Sindhi (M. 2-F. 2) ; Malayālam (F. 3) ; French (M. 1-F. 1) ; Kokaṇī (M. 2) ; Māwcī (F. 2) ; Pārśī (M. 2) and Nepāḷī (M. 1).

SOCIAL LIFE.

In olden times, the main immovable form of property was land and buildings. Factories and industrial plants are of recent occurrence. Movable property consisted of valuables like gold and silver ornaments, clothes, furniture, etc. Now it can well be government papers, shares of companies engaged in promotion of commerce and industry, mines, etc. Usually all property went down from father to son and of late even daughters have a share in property that is ancestral. In the case of self-acquired property the person who has earned it can dispose of it in any way he liked or leave a will behind him for the manner of its disposal.

So long as land remained the principal form of property and income, its exploitation was the only means of livelihood for people and as that needed collective effort, it was an economic need for all to work jointly. The joint family system was therefore the inevitable mode of living. Where large areas of land still form the means of livelihood, joint families still exist and naturally they are in the rural areas. But the tendency now-a-days, even among agriculturists, is towards splitting of such families, under the stress of modern ideas of individual freedom. Yet for agricultural operations, separately living families have to co-operate with one another. Under joint families, sons, nephews and even grand-children worked under the direction of the family head, usually a grand old man without friction and such a sight is by no means rare even now in rural Dhulia. But in urban areas, small families of father, mother and their offsprings is the rule. The father is the head and leader of the family even if the mother now goes out as an earning member. During recent years, girls have been receiving education with boys and under the stress of economic conditions they have also begun to take jobs outdoors and earn their livings. The matriarchal system is not known to be existing anywhere in Dhulia.

Although all prejudices against the education of women have now disappeared and girls are receiving primary, secondary, university, specialised and professional education side by side, it is still supposed that home is the proper field of activity for a woman. It is only among the English educated and advanced classes that women are picking up jobs of teachers, nurses, clerks and sometimes even legal and medical practitioners are found among women. Economic necessity has compelled women to come out in the open. The freedom movement also drew them out and some women are now attracted to public life. Yet most women continue to live indoors and are economically dependent on men. Among the peasantry and the artisan classes, women work by the side of men. In most cases their position and authority is subordinate to that of men. The position of widows in particular is very unhappy if they do not choose to remarry. It is from among such women and those girls and women of the poorer classes, that recruits are usually found to keep prostitution going as an institution in urban areas. According to some sociological thinkers it is a necessary evil in society. But around it also flourish independently the evils of drink and gambling in spite of legislation and social conscience being against them. There are in almost every industrial and urban centres gambling dens and traffic in women also in a clandestine way.

Now as in olden times, the people of a village are a mixed lot. Rarely could a village be found inhabited by a single caste. Yet there was neither inter-communal dining nor inter-communal marriage. People took this arrangement for granted and god-ordained or nature ordained and there were no disputes as between castes and castes, though some castes considered themselves superior in the social order to certain others whom they considered inferior. Yet there was an absence of enmity or hostility and the supremacy of Brāhmaṇs was openly tacitly conceded. Rigidity in regard to eating together or even dining together has now almost disappeared, but the caste barrier still powerfully operates as regards inter-caste marriages. On some festive occasions, whole village dinners were held, as for instance on the *prasād* day after Mahāśivarātra, but even then the rows of diners were caste-wise. But there seems to be an awareness now that castes have ceased to have any significance because the avocations and functions assigned to them are no longer carried out by members of the caste concerned. Now it is by no means rare that a Brāhmaṇ runs a shoe-shop and a Mahār university graduate becomes a Māmlatdār.

This process began with the break-up of village communities with the consolidation of the British rule and weakened the ties that bound the villagers to their headmen (Patils) and priests and to one another. The Panchayat where it still continues to exist has become an inane body, no longer able to exercise authority effectively. The relations between the various craftsmen and villagers are still cordial because they depend on one another for daily transactions of a variety of character. Yet

the *bālutā* system has broken down and services of the carpenter or the blacksmith are now hired in terms of money. Many of them have left their villages in pursuit of better paid work in towns and in fact the old villages as a well-knit economic and social unit has broken down. After the advent of political independence, various constructive activities like the Community Development Projects and Extension Services and later establishment of grām-pañcāyats and the Zillā Pariṣads have begun to put new life in the rural areas and with the new amenities that are being increasingly provided, villages promise to become attractive enough and migration to cities will be checked. If they got all the conveniences and amenities that they get in the cities besides sure means of livelihood, the villagers would not leave the villages.

With the spread of education in humanities and sciences, the growth of industries and factories, new classes of people have arisen who follow specified professions. The teachers, the lawyers, the medical practitioners, the engineers, the technicians and mechanics are new and they have opportunities for following their professions in semi-urban and urban areas. These did not exist in the British period, when the *bārābalute* system of village organisation usually prevailed. Heredity no longer determines the profession of any caste, community or individual and equality of opportunity for all is universally agreed upon as guaranteeing individual liberty and initiative for self-development. Women are also entitled to this privilege as guaranteed by the Constitution of India. But 150 years ago, every village used to be a well-knit and well-organised community with its rigid castes and their hereditary professions which supplied the functional needs of the community.

Captain Briggs found in 1818 that in Khāndeś, now split into two districts called Dhulia and Jālgāṅv, the *bārābalute* included the Brāhmaṇ priest, *guru*; the Muslim priest, *mullā*; the astrologer, *jośī*; the carpenter, *sutār*; the blacksmith, *lohār*; the potter, *kumbhār*; the goldsmith, *sonār*; the barber, *nhāvī*; the washerman, *parit*; the villagebard *bhāt*; the village watchman and guide, *jaglyā*; the scavenger, *māṅg*; and the shoemaker, *cāmbhār*. In lieu of services rendered they received annual grants of grains, plus some cash payment from every household. The system has outlived its utility in the context of new social organisation and has almost disappeared not only in this district but everywhere.

The tenancy legislation in Mahārāṣṭra which turned the tenants of land into its owners with effect from April 1, 1957 and the Money-lenders Act which ended the usurious methods of the *sāvkārs* and other allied legislation which promoted the growth of co-operatives has transformed the cultivators of land into self respecting citizens. The welfare activities of the Public Health and Education Departments and various aids to the rural people in the form of irrigation, better seeds, better implements, manures and fertilisers make for

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the uplift of the people and are giving them a sense of a better life which promises to be better and better still with the avowed object of a socialistic pattern of society now being aimed at by the State. Dhulia is a meeting place of people from North India, Gujarāt and the neighbouring districts of Nāśik and Jalgāṅv. The present population contains elements from all these places, the variety being more discernible in urban areas. Communication with Bombay and the existence of cultural influences like the *Samartha Vāgdevatā Mandir*, the research work carried on in Dhulia and a well-conducted weekly journal like *Bhārat* make this district as one of the particularly enlightened districts of Mahārāṣṭra. The existence of cotton mills and textile trade have lent it a modernist complexion. Similarly, industrial organisations which numbered about 250 at the end of the Third Five-Year Plan like ginning and pressing factories, edible oil mills, a straw wood factory, a leather works indicate that the district is getting more and more industrialised.

RELIGION AND CASTES.

Hindus.

The predominantly Hindu population of Dhulia may be described as that of confirmed theists and god-fearing people. The animist Bhils and Buddhists also answer to this description. There are scarcely any people who deny god altogether or call themselves atheists or rationalists. Philosophically all will concede that there is only one god, the source and fundamental cause of this universe, but most of them are found to be devotees of one or another of a symbol of god and therefore idolaters. These symbols usually are Śiva or Viṣṇu or Gaṇeś or Rāma and Kṛṣṇa, incarnations of Viṣṇu. Vithobā is Viṣṇu's form which is popular all over Mahārāṣṭra and so also in Dhulia. Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇ temples are also to be found in some places and temples dedicated to Dattātraya, who is the combination of Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Śiva, are by no means rare. Goddess Bhavānī is also worshipped as Jagadambā, mother of the world and usually Her temple is found in every town and village. Lower in the order are Māruti, Mhasobā, Khaṇḍobā and Bhairava. No orthodox and tradition observing conformist Hindu will take his meal without offering it to his favourite deity and accepting it as the favour of the deity.

Among the common people and in the peasantry, there are a number of superstitions too. Almost every field is regarded as having its presiding deity and it has to be appeased by an annual tribute of a fowl or a goat and in rare cases even a he-buffalo, particularly if the landed property is fairly large. People in the various tālukās have their special religious rites whereby these presiding deities are appeased. Rāṇubāī is a favourite deity in many Khāndeś families. Her image is set on an octagonal heap of rice. A lamp is set near it. Both the image and the lamp are worshipped. Dinner is served and special care is taken that not a particle of food is wasted. Whatever surplus may be there is buried near the house. After dinner the rice is shaped in the form of *śālunikā* or *piṇḍī* in which the *śivaliṅga* is set; a coconut is placed on the heap of rice

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as a symbol of the *liṅga* and worship is offered. After prayers the coconut is broken and its kernel distributed as *prasād* to all present.

Hospitality is considered as a great virtue and sign of high culture among the Khāndeś people of means and repute. No head of such a well-to-do family would take food without a guest usually and traditionally it is a Brāhmaṇ but even others are honourably received if they arrive at meal time. This has been imposed as a duty on every householder according to ancient Hindu teachings. Waiting for a guest while throwing *Kākabalī i.e.*, a portion of food to crows and dogs was enjoined on every householder and even the duration for it was prescribed. It was as much time as it takes to milk a cow. The daily ritual called Vaiśvadeva of which this formed a part has now almost disappeared from daily routine but the basic idea of giving food and shelter to man and animal in need is still respected and is handed down as a cultural heritage to all Hindus including people of this district.

The Hindu social theory and practice lay down that the whole of human life is a duty. Every human being has a series of subsidiary duties to perform as part of the great duty of living. An individual is born with duties he owes to god, ancestors and fellow human beings. The duties begin with birth and end with death. This concept of life has led to specific injunctions being laid down for human beings in various stages and stations in life, which are embodied in what is succinctly known as *Varṇāśramadharma*. This ordering out of life later deteriorated into the rigid caste system based wholly on birth and not on merit. The evils of this system soon manifested themselves and went on increasing. In an era of scientific advance, analytical thinking, supremacy of modern civilization, the old social beliefs and dogmas ceased to claim the same implicit faith as before and many of the old religious rites tended to disappear. The people of this district could not remain exempt from this and the several castes among Hindus dropped many of the ritualistic details which came to be felt as mere excrescences from their day to day life. This development could, if at all, be traced only distantly to the teachings of the *Prārthanā Samāj*, *Satyaśodhak Samāj* and leaders of the social reform movement, all of which preached one god, human brotherhood and pleaded for social equality.

Inspite of this, castes have remained and it will be long before the caste system completely breaks down. Generally the caste conforms to the profession it follows, thus a potter traditionally only bakes earthenware a shoemaker makes shoes and a washerman washes clothes. But members of all these and other castes have given up their time honoured functions and any member of any caste pursues any calling that is found suitable. This will ultimately help to break down the caste-system completely. Even a Brāhmaṇ will be found

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Hindus.

running a shoe shop in these days. Their manners and customs and modes of behaviour follow patterns suited to their professions and callings. For some time the Brāhmaṇ monopoly of learning and education gave that caste an advantage over others and, therefore, there was discontent among non-Brāhmaṇ communities, but due to opportunities for the same education to all, partly during the British days and on a much larger scale under the era that was ushered in with independence, equality of opportunity for all is becoming a common vogue.

Even when the caste system was far more rigid than it is now, the relations between members of the different castes were cordial enough. Social inter-course, inspite of restrictions as to partaking of food together or ban on inter-caste marriages, was smooth. Relations based on economic transactions were normal and law-abiding and there was no bitterness on account of existence of difference of caste or beliefs in superiority or inferiority of the various castes on account of mere birth. The superiority of Brāhmaṇs over all was conceded by others ungrudgingly.

According to Hindu *Dharmaśāstra,* the *saṅskāras* or sacraments are socio-religious rites regarded as purificatory processes which make an individual fit to carry out his mundane duties. The *smṛtis* have laid down rituals regarding their performance to the minutest detail. There are 16 *saṅskāras* which are considered to be *nitya i.e.,* constant or indispensable and 24 which are occasional depending on circumstances. None of these are considered necessary for Śudras and Antyajas. The chief of these customary rituals are those performed at the time of birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. *Garbhādhāna* which signified consummation of marriage in the case of child bride when she came of age, used to be performed, not many years ago with much fanfare and feeling but has now become almost extinct as altogether unnecessary and even vulgar among those who take pride in being conformists and conservatives.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

Hindus.

Marriage is perhaps the most significant and most respected of sacraments not only among Hindus but all civilised people. The so-called upper classes or *dvijas* perform it with *Vedic mantras* and the lower classes with *puraṇik mantras* and some accepted rituals. But in essential features they do not differ much.

According to orthodox practice, marriages are arranged within the same caste and sub-caste. Insistence on the latter is disappearing to a great extent and even inter-caste marriages are not as rare as they used to be. Such marriages are legally valid and they no longer evoke any particular hostility. Even in exogamous marriages as in endogamous, only *sagotra, sapiṇḍa* and *sapravara* alliances were prohibited until recently even by law and even among Brāhmaṇs who laid much stress on these prohibitions. Now *sagotra* marriages

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are by no means rare and valid in law. Family or *Kula* considerations are of course generally present in fixing marriages. Although the marriageable age has now risen high enough, it is still the practice for parents to be on the lookout for a suitable match for their sons and daughters. The parties concerned have however, an opportunity of late to see each other before the final decision is taken. The prohibited degrees of blood relatives for marriage beyond the agnates vary according to the custom of the community concerned. So far as cross-cousin marital alliances are concerned, a brother's daughter to a sister's son is not only not prohibited but also preferred among most Hindu communities including Brāhmaṇs except among the *Citpāvan* or *Koṅkaṇastha* Brāhmaṇs. Marriage with a wife's sister is allowed and a brother may marry his brother's wife's sister *i.e.,* sisters can be sisters-in-law. Polygamy was not prohibited by the law and it was not difficult to come across a number of polygamy cases in a village or a town a few years ago especially among the peasantry but now even bigamy is unlawful. Polyandry is nowhere prevalent in this district.

Child marriages are prohibited by law. First, the Sharada Act disallowed marriages of girls below 14 and later legislation prohibited marriages of boys below 18. The age in the case of girls was later raised to 16 and in that of boys to 20 and social reformers and sociologists are not wanting who press for both ages being still more raised. Apart from the religious observances in connection with the solemnising of marriages, registration has now been made compulsory in urban areas like registration of births and deaths. Marriages by mutual choice of the bride and the bridegroom are on the increase and there considerations of caste, family, money and honour may not enter. Arranged marriages of course involve agreements and settlements. In such marriages, the form known as *Brahma* is usually conformed to in most respects. *Kanyādāna* is an important aspect of it. It can be plain or *sālankṛta i.e.,* the one in which the bride is decorated with jewellery and given over. In most settlements, each party bears its own expenses or they are shared and gifts are exchanged as previously drawn up. Dowry or *huṇḍā* is given by a girl's father than a boy's father in most communities and when this is reasonable present to the son-in-law it is not found irksome; but when reasonable limits are sought to be violated, *huṇḍā* becomes a social evil. It has now been made illegal, but several devices are currently employed to circumvent law. The evils of *huṇḍā* have been decried by reformers and novelists and dramatists, but the practice dies hard. It has become an abuse among the Pātidārs. In certain communities, it is the bridegroom's father who has to pay a price for a bride and probably this is determined by the paucity or otherwise of eligible brides and grooms, even though the male and female population in this district is well balanced. Such is the general frame work of marriage agreements which precede a number of ceremonies which constitute a necessary formality.

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The wedding formalities begin with a *māgṇī* or proposal from the bridegroom's side or an offer from the bride's side. Usually horoscopes of both are then compared and if they agree and other terms are agreed upon after consulting an astrologer who is generally a Brāhmaṇ, an auspicious day and precise timing are fixed. Then follows what is called *sākharpuḍā* when present of a *sāḍī* and some ornaments is made to the bride. A similar ceremony to make a present to the bridegroom follows. It is called the *tilak* ceremony. The horoscopes are duly worshipped by priests on either side. Ceremonial invitations are given formally to gods and goddesses in temples. *Ghāṇā* is held in the early hours of the marriage day. Musicians and pipers start playing on their instruments and one of the officiating priests sets up the *ghaṭikā* (water clock) to keep exact time. This has really become unnecessary when accurate watches are available but the practice continues because special sanctity is attached to the *ghaṭikā pātra*. In the *ghāṇā* ritual, two *mussaḷs* (pestles) are tied together with a new *khaṇ* (bodice cloth) and a basket filled with rice or wheat is set before the parents of the boy or girl to be married. Five *suvāsinīs* (married women with their husbands living and preferably blessed with a son or sons) take the pestles in their hands, set them upright in the basket and move them up and down as if to pound the grains. They sing some auspicious songs as they do so. One of the women takes a handful of grains and grinds the same in a pair of crushers (*jāte*) which is decorated with *kumkum* and to its handle a new *khaṇ* is tied.

This is religiously non-essential but studiously observed part of the whole wedding programme. The religious programme begins after this with *maṇḍapa-pratiṣṭhā* and *devaka-pratiṣṭhā* at the camps of the bride and the bridegroom. *Gaṇeś pujā, punyāhavācan, nandiśraddha* and *grahamakha* form part of this programme. A central spot in the marriage pandal is cleansed with cowdung wash and *rāṅgoḷī* is traced on it. Three *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) are placed close to one another and covered with woollen cloth. The bride and the bridegroom as the case may be and parents dressed in rich sacred clothes seat themselves on the *pāṭs* with their faces eastwards. They go through a *prayaścitta* for whatever sins of commission or omission might have been committed by them and are thus purified for the great event. The father of the boy or girl solemnly announces, "I am going to marry my son or daughter named so and so to continue the performance of righteous deeds and to propagate my line to him or her fit to perform similar deeds." The worship of Gaṇeś etc., then follows. Priests say prayers for the safe and secure performance of the ceremony to various deities by recitation of *Vedic mantras*. The whole of this programme is preceded by marriage feasts called *kelvaṇ* or *gadagṇer* on either side a few days before the wedding day. Friends and relatives also arrange these congratulatory feasts.

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Vāgdāna or a formal declaration of the marital alliance is made at the bride's house in the presence of relatives and friends. The groom's father, accompanied by intimate friends and close relatives, goes to the bride's house to the accompaniment of drum beating and music. After a proper welcome, they are seated. The fathers of the boy and the girl sit facing each other, the girl is dressed in new rich clothes and decorated with ornaments, brought to the pandal and seated next to her father. The boy's father gives in her hands betel leaves and a coconut and thrice tells her father that he would accept her as wife to his son and the girl's father thrice repeats the words, "Please do." Those present at this ceremony are given betel leaves, areca-nuts, *attar-gulāb* and the ceremony is over.

Simantapujana was originally the reception given to the bridegroom's party when they arrive at the outskirts of the village or town of the bride. Now it is symbolically performed in the marriage booth at the brides' house. It is nothing more than a formal welcome. Nowadays, it is dropped, being superfluous. Before the auspicious hour fixed for the wedlock, the bridegroom has to arrive at the bride's place. This he does in a procession, usually on horseback, about an hour before the fixed time and goes through what is known as *madhuparka*. The groom is seated on a wooden stool called *caurāṅga*. The bride's father and mother sit before him. The mother pours water on his feet and the father washes them and dries them with a napkin. The girl's father takes a ladleful of milk, curds, honey, butter and sugar and empties the mixture on the right palm of the groom. He swallows it. He is then presented a new pair of *dhotis*, ornaments and some coins of gold or silver. While this goes on, the bride is clad in a yellow *sāḍī* known as *aṣṭaputrī* or *vadhuvastra kāñcoḷī* (bride's special dress) and seated before what is called *Gourīhāra i.e.*, a representation of Śiva and Pārvatī. A small basket of bamboo chicks filled with rice is given in her hand and she is asked to cast the grains, one by one, on the *Gāurīhāra*, praying all the time that her would be husband be healthy and long-lived and she be good wife unto him.

When only a few minutes are left for the auspicious moment, the groom is made to stand on a *pāṭ* in the marriage hall with his face to the east. A piece of cloth, usually a Kāśmirī shawl is held between him and the bride who stands on a sandal paste stone in front of the groom. It is customary for her maternal uncle to lead her there to the spot. The bridegroom's sister stands behind him and the bride's sister stands behind her. If there are no sisters cousins play the role, each with a lighted lamp and coconut. The bride is given a garland of flowers which she holds in her hand and the groom also given a similar garland or the *maṅgalasutra* with gold and black glass beads. The Brāhmaṇ priests and others begin to chant *maṅgalāṣṭakas i.e.*, auspicious compositions and at the close of every one of them, auspicious red rice grains are thrown at the bride and the groom. When the auspicious moment comes, the

priests raise their voices and at the exact second stop chanting. The curtain is withdraw and the bride and the groom garland each other. If it is the *mangalasutra*, the bridegroom fastens it round the bride's neck. *Pānsupārī, attar-gulāb*, coconuts and sweets are distributed to the guests. Brāhmaṇs are given *dakṣiṇā* and thus the main event is over.

The ceremony of *kanyādāna* then follows. This is considered a meritorious act on the part of a Hindu householder as it makes for the perpetuation of the race. Giving over the bride and her being accepted, *dāna* and *pratigraha* are actions accompanied by solemn assurances of mutual loyalty. This done, the family priests on either side perform what is called *suvarṇābhiṣeka*, a benedictory sprinkling of gold-washed water on the heads of the newly married couple. This is followed by a *vivāhahoma* to be performed by the couple and then comes the *saptapadī* rite. In front of the sacrificial fire, the couple sits and the groom makes three oblations of rice into the fire. He then leads the bride to the row of rice heaps at the north of the sacrificial fire. As he walks, the bride pulls her right toe on the rice heaps one by one and at each step the priest chants a *mantra*. The bride and the bridegroom go round the fire and take their seats again on the *pāṭs* in front of it. The fire is still more fed with oblations of rice and ghee. The couple is taken out to take *darśana* of the pole star or *dhruvatārā*. This done, the ceremony is over from the religious point of view in the case of *dwijas*. For, with the rites of *pāṇigrahaṇā*, the rounds by the sacrificial fire and the *saptapadī*, the Hindu marriage is considered to be final and irrevocable. The *varāt* and *vadhupraveśa i.e.*, a bridal procession and her ceremonial entering in her new home and her getting a new name are part of the festivity in connection with the ceremony. *Devakothāpana* and *Maṇḍapodvāsana* are the concluding religious rites.

In marriages not performed according to *Vedic* rites, most of the elements of the *Brahma* form are nevertheless followed. In both cases, the former, elaborately drawn out four day programme is now dropped and even entirely old fashioned marriages are over in a day with all items abbreviated. A modified form of the traditional marriage ceremony and the accompanying essential rituals has been recommended for general adoption by the *Dharmanirṇaya Maṇḍal* and is widely followed all over Maharashtra. *Mahāmahopādhyāya* Pandurang Vaman Kane, Rao Saheb Chapekar, Raghunath Shastri Kokaje *Tarkatīrtha* Lakshmanshastri Joshi and others are the sponsors of this move. The following 21 items compose that form :—

(1) *Upkrama.*—Procedure preparatory to making the *saṅkalpa* on the part of the bridegroom.

(2) *Saṅkalpa.*—The solemn declaration that he intends to enter the householder's state.

(3) *Punyāhavācanam.*—This literally means, saying three times 'May this be an auspicious day on the part of the assembled when

requested by the bridegroom that they do declare that to be an auspicious day.

(4) *Kanyā dutuh Saṅkalpādikam.*—A solemn declaration on the part of the gentleman who gives away the bride that he intends performing the marriage ceremony of the bride with a view to her acquisition of *dharma* (religious merit), *artha* (worldly prosperity) and *kāma* (*love*) after obtaining the position of a householder's wife.

(5) *Vadhuvarasatkārah.*—Honouring the bride and the bridegroom, in the case of the bride by the bridegroom's party and in the other case by the bride's party.

(6) *Kanyādāna.*—The giving away of the bride or offering the hand of the bride in marriage to the bridegroom (At this stage a variant is introduced to suit modern times, where occasionally the boy and the girl themselves choose each other as partners in life and wish to marry each other. Instead of the parent saying to bridegroom "I offer etc.," as in the orthodox form of marriage, the bride offers herself to the bridegroom reciting the appropriate formula). The bridegroom then accepts.

(7) *Niyamabandha.*—The binding down of the bridegroom to certain vows in respect of the bride.

(8) *Akṣataropaṇam.*—The placing of unbroken grains of rice on each others head by the bride and the bridegroom.

(9) *Maṅgalasutrabandhanam.*—Tying the sacred thread of beads round the neck of the bride by the bridegroom and also garlanding each other.

(10) *Pāṇigrahaṇam.*—The taking of the bride's hand by the bridegroom.

(11) *Hanapurvaṅgam.*—The introductory offering of oblations to several gods such as the god of fire, god of creation, the god Skanda, etc.

(12) *Pradhānahoma.*—The principal offering of oblations.

(13) *Lājāhoma, Parinayanam, Aśmāroha.*—The offering of oblations consisting of rice flakes; going round the consecrated fire, and making the bride stand on a slab of stone.

(14) *Saptapadī.*—The taking of the seven steps together. The technique of this ritual is somewhat elaborate. At each step, the bridegroom recites a formula which is really a mild command and request to the bride.

(15) *Homottaraṅgam.*—The conclusion of the marriage sacrifice.

(16) *Sansthājapa.*—The offering of prayer to god Agni by husband and wife. At the end of the prayer, both ask for a blessing from the same god.

(17) *Abhiṣeka.*—The sprinkling of consecrated water over the heads of the bride and the bridegroom by the priests, accompanied by the giving of blessings.

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(18) *Karmasamāpti.*—The conclusion of the ceremony. Here the father of the bride declares that the ceremony has ended and prays that god be pleased by this act of performing the sacrament of the daughter's marriage.

(19) *Saptasidhruvopasthānam.*—Praying to the seven sages with Arundhati and Dhruva, the Pole Star.

(20) *Āśirvādah.*—Here the father of the girl gives her advice as to how to lead married life and the assembled guests bless the couple.

(21) *Grahapraveśa.*—Entering the husband's home. This is accompanied by *mantras* of request from the bridegroom and bride and of joint resolve to lead a happy married life.

Civil Marriages.

A common form of civil marriage for all communities in India was provided by the Special Marriage Act III of 1872. Under this Act, parties wishing to get their marriages registered had to declare that they did not profess any of the following religions, *viz.*, Christian, Jewish, Hindu, Muhammedan, Pārśi, Buddhist, Sikh or Jain. This Act was amended by the Act of 1923 making it possible for Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains only to declare their religion and yet get their marriages registered. Marriages, registered under this Act are legal though may be against the religious customs of the caste or community of any one of the couple. Under the procedure prescribed at present, the parties wishing to get married give a notice to the Registrar of Marriages about their intention to marry within three months from the date of notice and specify each one's condition, rank or profession, age, dwelling place and length of residence therein. After the expiry of 15 days, if no valid objection is forthcoming, the Registrar grants a marriage certificate after the couple have signed a declaration form in which each has to affirm that he or she is at the time either unmarried, or widow or widower; does not profess any religion or does profess a particular religion; has completed 21 years of age (if not, the guardian has to attest his consent to the marriage); is not related to the other in any prohibitive degree of consanguinity or affinity; and in the case of a minor, the consent of father or guardian has been given to the marriage and not been revoked. Two witnesses have to attest their signatures to the declaration.

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Upanayan.

An important ceremony that has lingered long but is conceded as quite superfluous is the *upanayana* or *vratabandha*. It marks, in theory, the end of childhood and entrance in the stage of pupilage known formerly as *Brahmacārya Āśrama*. At the age of eight in the case of Brāhman, ten in the case of a Kṣatriya and 12 in the case of a Vaiśya, the boy is given in charge of a preceptor who used to have complete control over him for 12 years as regards his intellectual, cultural and specialised training. There were probably not even vacations for returning to parents for small durations.

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Now, usually, the *upanayana i.e.*, taking a pupil to his master does take place and the student stage does seriously begin but under altogether altered circumstances. Even in the ceremony itself it is the father who acts as the master who teaches the *Gāyatrī mantra* to the boy whose education in the three R's has already begun a year or two before. The *Gāyatrī* is an incantation to the sun for intellectual enlightenment, because it was rightly regarded that the sun is really the giver of life to all living creatures on earth including human beings.

This ceremony is known as *muñja* in common parlance because a girdle made of *muñja* grass is used for the boy. In fact the third variant name for this sacrament is called *Mauñjībandhana*. An auspicious day is chosen in one of the five months viz., *Caitra, Vaiśākha, Jyeṣṭha, Māgha* and *Phālguna* in consultation with an astrologer who examines the horoscope of the boy concerned and gives him advice. In order to accommodate the guests to be invited for the ceremony, it is usual to erect a *maṇḍap* and decorate it with an arch of banana trees at the entrance and mango twigs and flowers elsewhere. Drummers and pipers are engaged and friends and relatives are informed about the event in advance. On the western side of the *maṇḍap* an alter called *bahule* is raised with its face to the east. As the day comes near, *keḷvaṇs* or *gaḍagṇers* are given by intimate friends and relatives to the boy and his parents as on the occasion of a wedding. A day or two before the day of the *upanayana*, the parents of the boy first visit the local Gaṇeś temple and sometimes other temples also and invite the deities to be present at the ceremony with their retinue. Rice besmeared with red powder is placed before the deities while the invitation is solemnly given. A pinchful of rice is given to all invitees while extending such invitation to them.

Before the ceremony proper, all preliminaries as in the case of a marriage are gone through. They are the *ghāṇā, mātṛkapujan, punyāhavācan, devakapratiṣṭhā* and *nandiśrādha*. *Devakapratiṣṭha* is the installation of *Maṇḍapadevatās* or booth-guardians represented by some arecanuts properly placed in a winnowing-fan and duly worshipped. *Nandiśrāddha* is invocation to the spirits of the forefathers of the family to be present and give their blessings. After this the boy and his mother are seated on two *pāṭs* and to the accompaniment of soft music and songs sung by young women relatives, lighted lamps are waved before them. This is followed by the ceremonial shaving of the boys' head. Only a tuft of hair is left at the back. The barber is given a fee and a present for this service. The boy is bathed and dressed and he eats from his mother's plate for the last time. Usually eight boys of his age or any multiple of eight are fed on the occasion and given gifts in coin. This is called *mātṛābhojan* and is supposed to mark the end of the child stage of the boy. After this the boy is ready for the main part of the ceremony.

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The boy is made to stand on a *pāṭ* and the father sits on another. They face each other. A sacred cloth curtain is held between them by priests holding the extremities in their hands. Then follows the recitation of the *maṅgalāṣṭakas* or lucky compositions chiefly in Sanskṛt. Those present throw red rice frequently at them as the chanting goes on. At the fixed auspicious moment, the curtain is removed, when the priests have raised their voice to the highest pitch, the drum players do the same, the boy falls at the feet of his father, he picks him up and seats him on his lap on the right side. Distribution of *pānsūpārī*, perfume and rose water to the guests follows. It is customary to distribute sweets and coconuts also. The guests then leave, some of them making some present to the boy.

At this point, the real *upanayana* ceremony begins. The chief priest and Brāhmaṇs throw some holy rice and water on the boy's head. He is seated on the right side of his father. A *sthaṇḍila* or earthen altar is made in front of the father, blades of *kuśa* grass are spread over it and a holy fire is kindled on it. The priest has a cotton string, smeared in oil and turned round the boy's wrist and gives him a *laṅgoṭī* or loin cloth piece to wear. Another piece of cloth is placed on his shoulder. A string with a piece of deer skin passed into it is hung on his left shoulder in the way the sacred thread or *yajñopavīta* is worn. Offering of ghee, sesamum and seven kinds of dry twigs of various trees are made to the holy fire. The boy is asked to pass between the fire and his father, sip three *acamanas* (spoonfuls of water) and repeat some texts from the *Vedas*. He then goes back between the fire and his father and resumes his seat. After a while, with folded hands, he approaches priest with a prayer that he may be initiated in the *Brahmacaryāsrama*. His request is granted. He is given a *yajñopavita*, a staff of *paḷas* tree and a sermon on how to conduct himself as a *Brahmacārī*. He is taught the *Gāyatrī mantra* with his face turned up towards the sun. Some more oblations to the holy fire follow, the boy is made to repeat the *Gāyatrī mantra* and the main ritual comes to an end.

The boy has now become a beggar in the exalted sense. He is to subsist on what he gets by begging and pursue his studies. But this is only theory. This begging has now been turned into an occasion of festivity. A procession is organised, bands play, fireworks display is there, friends and relatives in gay clothes join the procession and everybody showers his present on the boy. The last rite is *Medhājanana* which is a formal prayer to the goddess of mind who is asked to give the boy knowledge, health and wealth.

The *samavartana* or the coming back of the boy from his preceptor's home used to take place after 12 years' arduous study once upon a time. Now it takes place as soon as possible, sometimes within a week and the boy never really leaves his house. This is known as *sodmuñja* in common parlance. The boy formally gives

up his *Brahmacaryāśram* almost as soon as he has entered upon it at the request of his maternal uncle who promises to give his daughter in marriage to him. The ceremony has thus become a misnomer but is observed through sheer force of custom and tradition.

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Pregnancy and Child Birth.

Continuity of race is a natural aspiration and whether in the joint families now fast becoming extinct or small family units, the prospect of a baby being born to a young wife is an occasion for rejoicing. It is looked up to as much with eagerness as with anxiety. The pregnant wife is treated with special tenderness whether the event is to take place at her paternal home or her own. Her desires are anticipated and provided for. They are believed to be precursors of the future physical and mental formation of the baby. She is made to observe certain do's and don'ts. Birth marks and congenital characteristics are traditionally attributed to the observance or otherwise of these do's and don'ts. Because of her delicate condition, she is regarded as particularly prone to attacks of evil spirits against which the *gṛhyasutras* have prescribed preventives and curatives. Whether people abide by them now-a-days or not, the fact remains that a pregnant woman in a household is shown special consideration.

Maternity homes and modern methods of helping the mother at child birth are increasingly coming into vogue though the old method still persists. Particularly, it is customary for the expecting mother to go to her parents for her first confinement. If confinement is done in traditional style at the first inception of labour, she is taken to a lying in room in the house, which is kept clean, dim-lighted and secured against breezes or air. A *cārpoy* and a cradle are kept ready. An experienced midwife, an old woman of the household sees to all her requirements for the first few days. How the young mother is treated may be described in some detail. For some time, the position of the mother is kept unchanged after parturition. After a while the midwife ties the umbilical cord with a strong cotton thread about three inches away from the navel and cuts it off with a sharp knife. She besmears the spot where the cut was effected with ashes and the mother and child are given an oil-*cum*-turmeric bath. Turmeric is regarded as a disinfectant and purifying agent. A hot water bath follows and the baby is wrapped up in cloth bandages. The child is dosed a few drops of castor oil mixed with honey. Myrrh incense is burnt and waved all over the place and the mother is disinfected by burning *ovā* and *baḷantṣopā*. With her baby besides her, the mother is laid on a *cārpoy* covered with warm clothing with a *śegḍī* of live fire under it. Cow's urine is sprinkled all about.

A Brāhman is called in to recite *śāntipāṭh*. Care is taken to keep the mother's room continuously lighted and she is provided constant company of some one or other. For ten days she is given particularly nutritious diet and even afterwards specially prepared

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nutritious eatables like ghee, dates, almonds, etc., are given. The fifth and sixth day worships are regarded as particularly important for the new born babe. Some deities are supposed to be presiding over the baby's future and they are required to be duly propitiated. An arecanut cutter and some sharp instrument like a sword or sickle are placed on a low stool and offered sandal paste and flowers in the name of the deity who presides over the baby's fate on the fifth day. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper, a red pen and ink are set on a low stool and are worshipped as on the fifth day. The sixth day deity is supposed to inscribe on the baby's forehead its future. The mother prays on both days for their benedictions. On both days, friends and relatives are feasted. For ten days, the mother is not touched by any one except the midwife. The family also observes *suher* (ceremonial impurity) and abstains from usual religious performances during the first ten days after child birth, but this observance has now practically disappeared. On the eleventh day, the mother is given a purificatory bath with the baby and then members of the family can touch her and the baby. The midwife is given suitable presents. The twelfth day is a festival day when friends and relatives bring presents to mother and child. A name is given to the child and its ears pierced with a gold wire.

A male off-spring is highly prized at the first arrival and somehow or other the belief still persists that male babies are more precious than female ones. The idea is so strongly embedded in the social system that even while blessing young bride, the elderly people and venerable priests wish that she be blessed with eight sons, as if the world would run without females being born at all. The *caul* or *cuḍākarma* sacrament *i.e.*, the first cutting of the hair on the head was once ceremoniously performed but has now almost disappeared among most communities.

Death Rituals.

The general custom among Hindus in regard to the disposal of the dead is to cremate them. It is only the children below five and *sanyāsis* are buried. When a person is on the point of death, it is customary for his eldest son, a nephew or a brother to place the dying person's head on his lap and put *Gaṅgā* water (generally preserved in most Hindu households in a sealed small jar) and a leaf of the *Tulśī* plant in the mouth of the dying person. Some people even put a small piece of gold with *Gaṅgā* water. When death takes place, the dead body is put on a woollen cloth and allowed to rest there till friends, relatives and neighbours arrive. Preparations to take the dead body to the cremation ground start. A bier of bamboo poles and pieces is prepared with a white cloth to cover up the body on all sides. Only the head and face are kept uncovered. Before putting the dead body on the bier, it is given a bath. Two new earthen pots one to fill with water and another to carry live fire are prepared. Arrangements are made to send firewood and cowdung cakes to the cremation ground. Of late, many people remove the dead bodies in a specially made hand

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cart provided by municipalities for the purpose. Betel leaves and *gulāl* (red powder) are spread on the cloth covering the body and the head. Four nearest relatives of the deceased carry the body on their shoulders, led by the eldest son of the deceased or a very near relative. Others follow in a procession. The leader of the party carries the funeral fire in the earthen pot in his right hand. The body is properly placed between layers of firewood and cowdung cakes. Some sandal wood and *Tulśī* plant sticks are added and in the case of the *dvijas*, fire is set to the heap with *Vedic mantras*. Mourners wait on the ground till the sound of the bursting of the skull is heard. The son and the four body-bearers take a bath, a stone is picked up as representative of the soul of the dead, water oblations to the dead are offered by friends and relatives and the party returns home with the stone, for it is required till the obsequies are over.

On the third day, but now-a-days generally on the next day some friends and relatives go to the burning place and gather the bones that might have been left with the ashes and they are thrown in a river. Those who can afford it take them to Prayāg for being thrown in the *Saṅgam*, i.e., confluence of the Gaṅgā, Yamunā and Sarasvati or to some other holy place like Nāśik. On the tenth day, all relatives bathe and wash their clothes. The stone is propitiated with a proper *śrāddha* ceremony at the burning *ghat*. At the time of offering the rice balls to the dead, it is customary to wait for a crow to touch them. If that is done, it is regarded as an assurance that the deceased has all his earthly desires fulfilled. If not assurances are given by responsible persons to anticipate and fulfil them. After this is gone through, the mourners bathe and return home. Sometimes, in addition to the usual *dakṣiṇā* presents like a pair of *dhotīs* and shoes, an umbrella and a cow for the use of the dead in the other world are given to a Brāhmaṇ.

On the eleventh day, the mourning period is over. *Pañcagavya* is sipped and fresh sacred threads are worn. On the twelfth day, what is known as *sapiṇḍa śrāddha* is performed whereby the dead person is supposed to join his father or grandfather and that the trio is remembered as the trio for *śrāddha* purposes by the family thereafter. On the thirteenth day, a *śrāddha* is performed when friends and relatives are invited to dinner and normal business is resumed. The tendency now-a-days is to cut down the ritual as much as possible and remember only the anniversary. Instead of the traditional *śrāddha* which involves feeding of Brāhmaṇs etc., educated people prefer to give suitable donations to deserving causes and institutions in the name of the dead. The *śrāddha* called *pakṣa* in the second half of the month of *Bhādrapad* is also being dispensed with as superfluous and redundant. According to orthodox custom, friends and relatives present the chief mourner with a turban, new clothes and ask him not to grieve any more. This is in consonance with the injunction for the thirteenth day prescribed by the *Smṛtis*.

Most of the holidays and festivals in honour of deities and saints observed by Hindus in other parts of Mahārāṣṭra are also observed by Dhulia Hindus. Similar is the case with the Muslims who observe *Id, Ramzān* etc., as in other parts of Mahārāṣṭra. Every month has one or other such day and they are shown in the annual calendars made by astrologers. Some of these are fasting days also such as *Āṣaḍhī* and *Kārtikī Ekādaśī* and *Mahāśivarātra*. One or other day in the week is also a fasting day for some. This depends more or less on family tradition or individual choice. Fairs in honour of some deities and local shrines are a feature of the countryside. The following festival days are commonly observed by the largest majority of the district.

Guḍhī Pāḍvā.—The first day of the first half of *Caitra* is the new year day according to the *Sālivāhan* era and observed as such. A *guḍhī* is erected in front of or on top of a house. It is a bamboo pole at one extremity of which is fastened a silver or copper pot, a silk cloth piece or a costly bodice piece and a string of flowers and so it looks a hoisted flag. This day is also known as the *Dhvajāropaṇa* day. People eat early in the morning after bath, a mixture of *kaḍulimba* leaves and sugar which is supposed to have healthy action on the intestines. Heavy dinner follows in the noon and a forecast of the whole year as given by the village priest usually a *grāmajośī* is heard in a temple congregation. This is one of the four highly auspicious days of the year.

Rāmanavami.—The birthday anniversary of Rāma, seventh incarnation of Viṣṇu around whose life Vālmikī has written the great epic *Rāmāyaṇa* is celebrated on the 9th day of the first half of *Caitra*. On this day people gather together at the temple of Rāma at 12 noon. The birth of Rāma is announced by a *kirtankār* who for the previous eight days keeps on dilating on the doings of Rāma and various aspects of his life as an ideal king. Then *prasād* which is usually *sunṭhavaḍā i.e.*, powdered dry ginger and sugar mixed together is distributed to all present. Some people observe this as a fasting day.

Hanuman Jayanti.—Practically continuous with the *Rāmanavami* celebration is the *Hanumān Jayanti* festival which starts with *kirtans* at the temples of Māruti on *Rāmanavamī* and ends on the 15th full moon day of *Caitra* when the birth of Hanumān is announced at sun-rise.

Caitri Haḷadīkumkū.—Hindu women are in a festive mood from the 3rd day of *Caitra* to the 3rd day of *Vaiśākh*. Many homes celebrate the worship of Gaurī on one of these days. The idol of Ambā or Pārvatī, picked up from the family gods is decked with flowers, various decorative articles in the house are arranged about her in a corner and illumination is improvised. Women relatives and friends are invited and served *halad kumkū*, handfuls of wet grams or groundnut and sweets are distributed. Even men who

are intimate friends and relatives are separately entertained after the women have finished. A beverage of boiled raw mangoes sweetened by *gul* or sugar is a patent drink on this occasion as also sugarcane juice. Serving ice-cream is the latest fashion.

Akṣaya Tritīyā.—The third of *Vaiśākh* known as *Akṣaya Tritīyā* is one of the most four auspicious days of the year. On this day, peasants make a beginning of their field activities in connection with the approaching rainy season. This is also considered as the most desirable day for weddings.

Vaṭapaurṇimā.—This day is particularly sacred to orthodox Hindu women of all communities with their husbands alive. It is observed in the honoured memory of the great mythological character, Sāvitrī an incarnation of conjugal loyalty, fidelity and devotion. She is portrayed in the *Purāṇas* as having reclaimed her lost husband from the god of death by her penance and wit. Women worship on this day a banian tree, because Sāvitrī's great achievement was under its shade. They distribute *vāyans* to other women and Brāhmaṇs, consisting of fruits of the season, rice or wheat and coconuts. They remain without food or water for the whole day in close imitation of Sāvitrī.

Śrāvaṇa Month Events.—The month of *Śrāvana* is held as particularly sacred by all Hindus and a number of fasts and festivals occur in it. The two eleventh days in the first and second halves of *Āṣaḍha* are fasts even for children. The same is true about corresponding days in *Kārtika*. Followers of the *Bhāgvat* or *Vārkarī* school are most particular about these. All Mondays in *Śrāvana* are regarded as god Śiva's specially dedicated days. Fast is observed in the morning and the evening meal is a light feast. Devotees of Śiva devote this month for special prayers to him like *Laghurudra* and *Mahārudra*. Fridays in *Śrāvaṇa* are observed by women as *Lakṣmīpūja* days in order to propitiate her for the good of their children. All Tuesdays are observed as *Maṅgaḷāgaurī* days when goddess Pārvatī is worshipped by girls with their husband living for five successive years after marriage. Elderly women also participate in the celebration. Śiva is also worshipped by them with a handful of rice on previous Mondays.

Nāgapañcamī.—The bright fifth of *Śrāvana* is called *Nāgapañcamī*, when images of cobra drawn on a *pat* with sandalpaste are worshipped. Even clay images are used by some. In villages, it is a strict non-working day for the peasantry and artisans and activities like digging, ploughing and cutting are stopped as being hurtful to snakes. This is also the day on which orthodox Brāhmaṇs perform the *śrāvaṇī*, a ritual of changing the old sacred thread and putting on a new one.

Nāraḷī Paurṇimā.—The full moon day in *Śrāvaṇa* is called *Nāraḷī Paurṇimā* or Coconut Day. After a sumptuous feast in the morning men and children go to the riverside and with due ceremonial

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worship offer coconut to the god of water, Varuṇa. *Yajurvedis* and *Atharvavedis* wear new sacred thread on this day.

Janmāṣṭamī.—The 8th day in the second half of *Śrāvaṇa* is the birth day of Kṛṣṇa. It is observed in the temples of Viṣṇu or Viṭhobā in the same way as Rāma's birthday is observed, only the time being midnight when Kṛṣṇa is believed to have been born. Next day is observed in villages and *mohallās* of towns as a day for play and sports by young boys who are given milk and curds by householders in Kṛṣṇa's memory.

Piṭhorī Amāvāsyā.—Some women pray to goddess *Pithorī* to bless their offsprings, particularly those women whose children die prematurely. It is observed as a *vrata,* throughout life, the day being observed by the women concerned as a fasting day.

Gaṇeś Caturthi.—On the fourth day of *Bhādrapada* comes *Gaṇeś Caturthī* when a clay image of Gaṇapati painted brightly is brought from the market and installed with devotion and enthusiasm. It is an occasion for healthy merry making for children. Gaṇapati is worshipped for ten days, five days or a day and a half according to the usage in a family. *Modaks* or rice flour balls stuffed with coconut kernel and *guḷ* or sugar are a special dish for this occasion as it is regarded as a favourite dish of this God of learning. The image is immersed in a well, pond or river according to convenience. During the last six or seven decades, public Gaṇeś festivals have become very popular even in this district as in all Mahārāṣṭra districts, the author of this new orientation being Lokamanya Tilak. For ten days programmes of entertainment and education are drawn up and observed. Lectures, *kirtans,* musical concerts, dramatic performances, elocution competitions, etc., are held. A day earlier to *Gaṇeś Caturthī* comes the *Haratālikā i.e.,* Pārvatī and her companions. Images of these made of clay and painted brightly like the Gaṇapati images, are worshipped by women who remain without cooked food for the whole day and eat fruits and roots only.

Gaurīpūjā, Ṛṣipañcamī and *Gaurīpujan* follow the installation of Gaṇapati. The former is observed in honour of the ancient sages as a fast, chiefly by Brāhmaṇ women. Nothing that is grown by the labour of cattle or any animal is eaten on this day. *Gaurīpūjā* is particularly popular among the peasantry. It is a dance festival for them. Gaurī is the mother of Gaṇapati.

Pitṛpakṣa.—The second half of *Bhādrapada* is dedicated to ancestor worship. A day in this fortnight corresponding to the date on which one's father breathed his last is selected for a special *śrāddha* ceremony and rice balls (*piṇḍas*) are offered to all dead elderly ancestors. The ninth day known as *Avidhavā Navamī* is reserved as the anniversary day for all female ancestors who died within the lifetime of their husbands and lest there be any mistake in propitiating the spirits of the forefathers, the last day of *Bhādrapada,* called

Sarvapitrī Amāvāsyā is set apart for invoking all of them and appealing to them for blessings. A collective *śrāddha* ceremony for all is performed by the leader of the household.

Navarātra and Dasarā.—The *Navarātra* festival is held in honour of goddess Ambā for nine days beginning with the first day of *Āśvin* and ending with the tenth day which is known as *Dasarā* or *Vijayādaśmī.* What is called *ghaṭasthāpanā* is observed in almost all Hindu households in honour of Ambā, Śiva's consort. An earthen pot is filled with water and a coconut is placed on top of it. It is planted on a heap of rice and is worshipped in the customary way. A string of flowers of varied colours is hung over the top of this jar, *i.e.* ghata for nine days. There are nine such strings and they are removed together on the tenth day.

The 10th day, *Vijayādaśamī* is one of the four most auspicious days of the year. Every article in the household that represents some important function or other is worshipped. Artisans and men in similar vocations are particular about worshipping their tools on this auspicious day. That is why it is also known as the *Ayudhapūjā* day. If a family has preserved old relics of weapons like the sword, musket, shield etc., they are also worshipped. It is an auspicious day for children being put to school and to begin any new study. In the afternoon people go out to the boundary of the town or village, make a heap of *āpṭā* or *śamī* twigs, worship it under the leadership of a priest and a leading citizen and afterwards exchange the leaves among relatives and friends as gold. Younger people are expected to present this leafy gold to elders and receive their blessings. In towns, a big ceremony like this being impossible, only social visits and exchange of *āpṭā* leaves are gone through. *Dasarā* was regarded as a day for beginning the campaigns of Marāṭhā troops for the recovery of their dues. Wrestling tournaments are held on this day in various places in the district.

Navānna Paurṇimā.—The full moon day of *Āśvina* is called *Navānna Paurṇimā* or *Kojāgirī Paurṇimā.* It is considered as almost the end of the rainy season and fresh foodgrains ripen by this time. Ears of different grains are plucked and a decorative plait or arch is hung up at the entrance of a house after due worship. Symbolic eating of fresh foodgrains is also gone through. Goddess Lakṣmī who symbolises plenty is regarded as going about on the night of this Paurnima and expects everybody to be awake and enjoying. She curses those who do not do so. People, therefore, keep on playing at dice or cards and even indulge in betting to the accompaniment of music. Sugared and saffroned milk is served to all.

Divāḷī Festival.—By universal agreement, *Divāḷī* is the biggest of Hindu festivals and the illuminations that are to be seen in the households of all, whether rich or poor, are an index of universal rejoicing when *Divāḷī* comes. Now-a-days, wherever possible electric illuminations are substituted for the old earthen lamps which were burnt in hundreds. They are called *paṇtis.* No part of the house is

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allowed to remain unilluminated. The festival begins on the dark 13th of *Āśvin* known as *Dhanatrayodaśī*.

Everything is kept spick and span, sweet dishes of various kinds are prepared and women take a special perfumed bath. The turn of the men for a similar bath very early in the morning comes on the next day known as *Narakacaturdaśī*. On this day Śrī Kṛṣṇa is said to have killed the demon Narakāsura. The whole day is spent in merry making, everybody is in a real holiday mood, people wear new clothes and even sport ornaments and temples are visited. Fireworks at night is a special feature of this festival only. On the last day of *Āśvin i.e., Amāvāsyā* goddess Lakṣmī is worshipped in the presence of friends and guests and a *prasād* consisting of coriander seeds and *gul* is distributed besides *pānsupāri*, perfume and rose water. Traders and shop keepers are very particular about this celebration. The next day is the first day of *Kārtika* on which the new year of the *Vikram Samvat* era begins. Landlords, merchants and *sāvkārs* worship their account books as it is the beginning of their commercial year. It is also called *Balipratipadā* On this day god Viṣṇu as Vāmana is said to have put down the demon king Bali. On this day, wives wave a lamp before their husbands who in their turn make presents to them. The last day known as *Yamadwitiya* or *Bhāubeej* is the brother's day. Every sister waves a lamp before her brother or brothers and gets present. If the sister is married, the brother is expected to pay a visit to her house and give her a present. *Divāḷī* is the occasion when it is customary for scattered members of the family to get together at least once a year.

Tuḷaśīvivāha.—The 12th day in the bright half of *Kārtika* is known as *Tuḷaśīvivāha* day. The *Tuḷaśī* plant which is indispensable in the courtyard of every Hindu is married to Kṛṣṇa with due ceremony as if it was a human marriage. The Hindu marriage settlement season begins with this event and permission is regarded as universally granted to people to eat fresh tamarind, *avaḷās*, and sugarcane. The first taste of it is given on this day.

Makara Saṅkrānta.—The day on which the sun enters the *Makara* (the Zodiac sign of Capricornus) is a solar incident occurring on January 14 every year but on an uncertain *tithī* (lunar date) in the month of *Pauṣa* is celebrated the *Makara Saṅkrānta*. It is marked with a feast in the morning and in the afternoon people exchange *tilgul* or *halva* made of sesamum and *gul* or sugar as friendly greeting of the season. The universal wish to maintain fraternal feelings is indicated by this exchange of sweets. The day previous to *Saṅkrānta* is called *Bhogī*. On this day it is customary to eat at daybreak a number of food articles in which ghee is a predominant ingredient. A preparation known as *khicaḍī* made of rice and mug pulse with the addition of a number of condiments and ghee is the main item in the menu. Newly married girls celebrate the day with a liberal distribution of some auspicious articles to *suvāsinīs*. It can be anything, useful and dainty, but usually it is some uniform pot or pan, or cloth or grain.

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Mahāśivarātra.—On the 13th day of the second half of *Māgha* comes *Mahāśivarātra* which is devoted to a fast and worship of Śiva. The night is spent in singing devotional songs and a *kirtan* is performed in the Śiva temple. Next morning a feast is held in which all participate, if it is a village. In some places, even a dramatic performance is staged. *Mahāśivarātra* is usually a community festival.

Śimgā or *Hoḷī*.—The last festival of the year is *Śimgā* or *Hoḷī*. In villages it is an occasion for general merry making for ten days especially for children and young people. Women completely abstain from the vulgar revelry that was associated with it in years gone by. From the fifth day of *Phālguna*, children and young men burn firewood and cowdung cakes in a heap and indulge in physical pastimes till late night. *Hutāśanī Purṇimā* is the main day of the festival when the *Holikā* goddess is worshipped with ceremony by a village leader and coconuts are offered to the fire. Even elderly men are present on this day and there is usually a musical concert with dance performances by professional dancing girls. There used to be much obscene and vulgar shouting, but under the influence of modern education and ideas about decent behaviour, this practice has practically died out. In the towns the *Holikā* festival has taken the form of social gathering when lectures are delivered, debates held and plays staged by amateurs. The next day known as *Dhuḷvaḍ* is also observed as a holiday. This was a gala day for boisterous and mischievous elements for mudslinging and wayward, vulgar talk but now this has practically ceased. The 5th day of the dark half of *Phālguna* is called *Raṅga Pañcamī*. Coloured water is sprinkled on one another through a piston or even helter skelter and clothes are spoilt but that is to be taken as part of the game by everybody and no one makes a grievance of it. It is a day for sport events such as wrestling and other physical culture feats. Prizes are spontaneously offered to those who show special proficiency.

Public Holidays.—Besides these religious holidays, the Republic Day (26th January), Ambedkar Jayanti (14th April), Śivājī Jayanti (17 April), Mahārāṣṭra Day (May 1), Lokmanya Tilak Death Anniversary (August 1), and Independence Day (August 15), are celebrated as public holidays when government offices are also closed.

BHILS.

The Bhils formerly lived in hive-like huts cresting the tops of isolated hills to be crept into for a few weeks and then left. Most of them still live in thatched huts, but leave them at once if disease breaks out or if the hamlet is found to be inauspicious, unlucky or haunted. Such of them as have settled down on the plains have storied buildings, having walls of unburnt bricks and a roof of mud with a small verandah in front and divided inside into two or three rooms. Each household has some metal and a good many earthen vessels, a stone slab with a roller, a hand mill and a large knife for cutting vegetables, a charpoy or two with a bedding, a blanket

and a quilt made of pieces of clothes stitched together. Their possessions are a cow or a buffalo, a few fowls, a small fishing net, a bow and a good stock of arrows and sometimes a sword. Bhils living in the hills have scarcely any clothing except a piece of loin cloth and their women wear coarse tattered saris. The peasant Bhil wears a turban, a waist cloth and a coat and their women have *sāḍī* with or without a bodice.

The more civilised Bhils of the plains have complete birth, marriage and death ceremonies not differing much in detail from those practised by higher class Hindus. A marriage proposal has to be made by the bridgroom's side through some intermediary. If the father of the girl agrees, the girl is brought out and seated among the guests from the bridegroom's side and a packet of sweetmeats is given to her. This done, they dine together and with the help of an astrologer a betrothal day is fixed. On the betrothal day, an astrologer, the boy, his father and other relations take a *sāḍī*, a bodice piece and sweetmeats and go to the girl's house. A final announcement is made in the presence of *pañcas*. The presents are given to the girl. The guests are entertained by the girl's father. There is no fixed interval between betrothal and marriage. It may be a month or years. When in a position to meet marriage expenses, the boy's father sends word to the girl's father that he would shortly bring dowry or *dahej* called *ghuṇ* in Bhili language. The dowry is settled in a meeting of all and placed in a plate. An unmarried girl of the bride's family puts red powder on it and on the brows of the bride and the groom. The bride is asked to sit on the boy's father's lap and he gives the *ghuṇ* to her. After a feast the evening is spent in dance and music. Next day, the boy's father fixes the marriage day in consultation with a family priest. What follows is very much akin to what obtains among other Hindu castes.

Bhils have so far allowed and practised polygamy but nowadays, there are only monogamous marriages. Widow marriage is also customarily allowed. When a man wishes to marry a widow, he sends some friend to urge his suit with the woman or her parents and relatives. If the proposal is accepted, the suitor takes to the woman's house a *sāḍī* and a piece of bodice cloth, a head necklace and some boiled gram and sugar. The match is then settled. The man takes with him a few friends and materials for a feast and they share the food with a party of the woman's relations. The woman dresses herself in the clothes brought to her and after the guests leave, she and her husband pass the night together. Next day, they start for some distant place, before daybreak and spend the whole day in the field, in some lonely place where friends send them food. These widow marriages are often preceded by an elopement which, after the payment of a fee to the head of the community, are condoned by the parents and relations. A married woman can get a divorce and remarry the man of her choice provided the proposed husband is ready to pay to the first the money which he had spent at the

time of the first marriage of the woman. This divorce system is called *jhagḍā*. No particular disgrace seems to attach to the woman who has divorced more than one husband.

When a Bhil is about to die, his relatives distribute money among the poor in his name. After death his body is laid on a blanket or on a piece of cloth spread over a blanket. An earthen pot full of cold water is placed near the door of the house and the body is brought out, held in a sitting position outside the door and water is poured on it. Old clothes are taken off and a new piece of cloth is tied round loins. The body is laid on a bier and covered with a new sheet of white cloth. The face is left bare and the head is covered with a turban. *Gulāl* is sprinkled over the face and some bread and cooked rice are tied together in a piece of cloth and laid on the bier. The dead body is neatly tied and taken to the burial place over the shoulders of four nearest relatives. In front of them the sons of the deceased walk, one of the chief mourners carrying fire in an earthen jar and one of the others carrying an earthen jug ful of water. Half way to the grave, the bier is lowered and some of the cooked food is laid near a bush. The bearers change places and without any further halt, the body is carried to the burial ground. The bier is lowered and all the mourners help in digging a grave long enough for the body and to prevent its being opened by wild animals five or six feet deep. The body is laid in the grave, the head to the south and the arms stretched along either side. Cooked rice and bread are placed in the mouth and the body is sprinkled with water. Then the whole party sit round the grave so far off that they cannot see the body and the chief mourner throws a handful of earth on the corpse and then all joining cover the corpse with earth. A small trench is cut round the grave and water is poured in it. The bier is broken into pieces and burnt. The funeral party then goes to the nearest water place, bathes and accompanies the chief mourner to his house. In front of his house a fire is lit and into it some woman's hair is burnt and each of the mourners takes some neem leaves, throws them on the fire and passing his open palms through the smoke rubs them over his face. The mourners are now pure and return to their homes. On the third day, one of the women of the mourning household rubs the right shoulders of the bier-bearers with oil, milk and cow-dung and washes them with neem twigs steeped in cow's urine. Then the four men bathe and are treated to a dinner. On the eleventh day the chief mourner goes to a river and gets his beard, head and face shaved. After taking a bath he makes a dough cow, sprinkles red powder on it and setting it in a banana leaf, bows to it and throws it into water. After one more bath he goes home. Either on the twelfth or the forty-fifth day a Kumbhār (potter) is called and seven step hemp ladder called *coḍhvāṇ* is set against the wall of the house, the belief being that the soul of a head person may climb by the ladder to heaven. The family priest sits at the foot of the ladder and chants some verses from the *purāṇas* and

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the string by which the ladder is fastened to the ground is burnt, the ladder is pulled down and thrown away. The spot where the ladder was tied is then spread over with flour and a small plate with a piece of bread and cooked rice is laid over it. In the plate is placed a small water pot and by its side a lighted lamp covered by an empty bamboo basket with a cloth drawn over. On this day a big feast is given to relatives and friends, but before beginning it, five mouthfuls are burnt near the basket. The burial rites for a woman are the same as those for a man. In the case of a child, its father carries the body in his arms and buries it. The seventh day is celebrated by a feast. In rare cases Bhils are also known to burn their dead bodies.

Bhils, from place to place, differ in their religious beliefs and practices. Some of the wildest tribes worship only the tiger god or Vāghdev. Most are devotees of the Mātā and Mahādev. Others worship local deities like Khaṇḍobā, Kānhobā, Bahirobā and Śitaḷāmātā, the small-pox goddess. Almost all worship the spirits of their ancestors and believe in sorcery, witchcraft and omens.

VANJARIS.

What holds good in the case of Bhils generally holds good in the case of other unsettled tribes, the Vañjārās, Vārlīs, Koḷīs and Taḍvīs. Vañjārā or Vañjārī is a corrupt form of *Vanacārā i.e.* moving about in the forests. Caraṇ also comes from the same root. Gowār means a cowkeeper and Bhusār means a grain carrier. Similarly Lamāṇ means a carrier of salt, *lavaṇa*. Most of these have lost their time honoured occupations and they have mostly settled down as agriculturists. Vañjārās once wandered about with their flocks of oxen over vast areas. Their business was to bring bullocks from Mālvā, to load them with wheat and go from place to place to sell it. They went down the ghāṭs, even to the Koṅkaṇ districts. Once they used to carry their wares to Surat, Navsārī and Kalyāṇ in the west and Nemāḍ, Nāgpūr and Jabalpūr in the north and east, with their bullocks packed and in bands or armies of thousands, but the growth of transport facilities like railways and metalled roads nearly killed their trade. Now one rarely sees a *taṇḍā i.e.* a caravan of Vañjārā families camping from place to place in their coarse tents with bullocks.

There are ten divisions among the Vañjārās and they differ widely in their habits, though they are said to be alike in temper brave, proud, spiteful and touchy. Though generally well-behaved, the wandering, Vañjārās were often under police surveillance. They mostly worship Bāḷājī or Khaṇḍobā. Their priests are Brāhmans. They observe all Hindu holidays but *Gokul Aṣṭamī* is their favourite. Some of the divisions eat together but do not intermarry. Every settlement of the Vañjārās has its hereditary headman who is called Nāik who acts as arbitrator in caste disputes. He also used to direct the movements of the caravan while travelling. If any old family has no suitable representative for being

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elected Nāik, a fresh man of some rich and good family is chosen. On election he is presented a turban and clothes in token of allegiance. At every council meeting the Nāik is the president, with ten or twelve members who must be adult males. Witnesses come in regular order and give their evidence one after another. The council never adjourns but rises only after giving a decision, if even it is at the sacrifice of their regular work.

Among wandering Vañjārās, children are often born away from their villages and in the absence of midwives, women attend to the delivery and no ceremonies are performed. Afterwards when the caravan meets a Brāhmaṇ, a council is called. The time of the child's birth is explained to him and he fixes the name of the child. Among settled families, when a child is born, they beat drums, fire guns and distribute sugar among relatives and friends. On the fifth day women worship the Sāṭhī. Marriageable age differs widely among the various divisions of Vañjārās. Among some girls are married even at the age of twelve while among others it is even 30. But of late among all girls are fairly grown up at the time of marriage. The wedding ceremony is simple enough. Two days before a marriage takes place, the boy and girl are rubbed with turmeric. On the marriage day they are seated side by side on low wooden stools, the girl on the boy's left and the hems of their garments are tied to the accompaniment of music. Priests repeat auspicious verses and women on both sides sing songs and sprinkle handful of jowar on the couple's heads. The ceremony closes with an interchange of clothes. On the second day the couple is bathed together, the women standing around them sing songs while the boy and the girl splash water on each other. After this the fathers interchange presents of turbans and waist clothes. On the third day, there is a great feasting and if the priest is present he is pelted with onions and *cowries*. Another feast brings the ceremony to a close, the bride going with her husband and his people. Most divisions of vañjārās allow marriage of widows.

When a Vañjārā dies, most of the funeral rites and obsequies are like those of the Bhils, except that the dead bodies of Vañjārās are burnt on the banks of nearest streams. In the case of a woman, *kumkum* instead of *gulāl* is used to anoint the corpse. Children, however, are buried.

The Caraṇs among Vañjārās are a somewhat distinctive group. They are strong and good looking. The men take a special pride in their looks. They wear their hair long and are fairer skinned than the Bhil or the ordinary Kuṇbī. They generally carry a comb and looking glass in the folds of their white turbans. They have generally well-set white teeth, full lips, large eyes, hair with a brownish or yellowish tinge, straight noses and a bright look. Their women are pretty enough. Their oiled and plaited hair is filled with dirt and dust while the

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tiers of bracelets and anklets keep them from cleaning their limbs. Their petticoats more often than not book like well-worn quilts. The women's tight fitting bodices, the full petticoats, their silver ornaments, plaited into their hair and falling over their cheeks, their huge silver anklets with jingling bells and the tiers of ivory bracelets lend them a strangely picturesque appearance. Since they have taken to agriculture, they are good cultivators and many have become prosperous. Widow remarriage is allowed among them, the rule being that as far as possible a woman should not leave any offsprings in the family into which she was married. When a woman becomes a widow, her husband's younger brother has a claim over her for wifehood. The caste council meets and the fact is duly noted but no ceremonies are considered necessary. If there is no younger brother or one refuses to take her, the next male relative is called upon to take her as his wife. They acknowledge all Hindu gods. They have no regular priests, but they respect Brāhmaṇs and employ them to conduct their religious ceremonies.

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According to the Census of 1961 the Muslim population of Dhulia numbers 76,040 (Males 38,894; Females 37,146). This is nearly 5·56 per cent. of the total population. Most of these are classified as Sayyads, Śaikhs, Pathāṇs and Moghals. Apart from these, there are sections of population among Muslims who go by the names of their traditional occupations like Attārs, Maṇiārs, Nālbands and Tāmboḷīs. Most of these were originally Hindus but after conversion to Islām, whether voluntarily or under duress, they adopted the family name of Sayyad, Śaikh or Pathāṇ from the religious, military or civil leader under whom they were converted. Except the Śiā Bohorās and Khojās and a few who have become Wahābīs, all profess to be Sunnīs. In common behaviour and even in appearance, they are like their Hindu brethren in various callings and occupations.

The community of traders of Dāwoodi Bohorās who are *Śiās* of the *Islāmiā* sect and followers of the Mullājī Sāheb who had formerly his headquarters at Surat have now shifted to Bombay. With a strain of Arab and Persian blood in some of them, they are chiefly descendants of converts of Nagars and Baniās of North Gujarāt. They are easily distinguished from other Muslims by their small tightly bound white or golden turbans and skull caps as also by their flowing white robes and loose trousers widening from the ankles upwards and fastened round the waist into puckers with a string. Their language is Gujarāti. They marry among themselves. In most important towns they have their own mosques; they do not attend *Sunnī* mosques. The Mullā conducts their marriage, death and other ceremonies. Bohorās are supposed to pay an annual contribution of one fifth of their incomes to the Mullājī Sāheb. They are all traders dealing chiefly in iron and hardware goods.

Marriage and Morals.

Among Dhulia Muslims offers of marriage come from the parents of the marriageable boy. The boy's father first spots a girl and if the girl's father is willing both of them consult the Kāzī and the

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Maulvī over the birth stars of the boy and the girl. There is nothing like prohibited degrees preventing marriages. First cousins are joined in wedlock, the only restriction being that the bride and the groom must not have fed at the breasts of the same mother. If the stars are found favourable, they settle as to what the boy's father should pay the girl's father as dowry for the girl. The girl's father usually spends the sum on the marriage. If both parties are well off, no such transactions take place. Girls of poor and middle class families are married earlier but among the rich marriages are usually delayed over finding suitable matches. Caste endogamy and observation of some Hindu marriage customs still prevail, particularly in rural areas among the unsophisticated. Betrothal usually takes place a year before the wedding. A Kāzī is present at the betrothal. On this occasion which is usually a selected auspicious hour, the bridegroom sends a bride the present of a green coloured sādī and bodice piece to match and an ornament like the *toḍās*, to be worn on the anklets and he receives in return from the bride's father a turban, a ring and a cloth piece. When the wedding day approaches, a pandal is erected in front of the house and the *muhūrtameḍh* is planted just as Hindus do. The *rajjaka* ceremony is performed at night, the main item of which is recital of songs in praise of god and beating of drums by women of the household and relatives and often by professional players. While this revelry goes on, *gulgulās* and *rahims*, heaped in a pyramid shape in two big plates are kept, the former by the bride and the latter by the groom. *Gulgulās* are small stuffed wheat cakes and *rahims* are boiled rice flour balls made with milk, sugar and rose water. After offering red cotton cord, flowers and burnt incense to the pyramids of these sweets, they are broken and the cakes and balls are distributed among the women. Next day, a woman with her husband alive marks the groom's clothes with turmeric paste. This is done without the knowledge of the boy and is therefore known as *corhaḷad*. This is followed in the evening by *sāvhaḷad i.e.*, public turmeric ceremony in which the bride and the groom are rubbed with turmeric paste, each separately and one after the other. This is followed by the *biyāparī* feast at which incense is burnt in the name of Allāh and the bride and the groom pray and salute all present. Friends and relatives make presents of clothes to the parents of the bride and the groom. This is akin to the *aher* custom among Hindus. A feast of *pulāv* (special rice cooked with mutton) or mutton and *capātī* is served to the guests. The next ceremony is *telmendī i.e.* applying oil and *hennā* paste. This is brought from the bride's house by her sister or by some one who is like a sister. She sits behind a curtain and rubs it on the groom's palms and gets a money present. The remaining *hennā* paste is then applied to the palms and soles of the bride.

Muslim marriages are usually solemnised at night. About 10 O'clock, the groom's kinsmen and friends seat him on horseback and accompany him in procession to the bride's house. The groom is dressed in a *jāmā i.e.*, a long coat and a *mandil* (turban) and a cloak

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of Jasmine or similar white flowers is thrown on his body from top to toe. The procession reaches the marriage pandal or hall and processionists are received by the bride's kinsmen and seated. The Kāzī is then called to register the marriage. Two male agents called Vakīls and two witnesses, one for the bride and one for the groom, stand before the Kāzī and declare that they have agreed to the proposed marriage and are ready to hear evidence. Before making this declaration, they approach the bride, formally repeat the name and age of the bridegroom and ask her whether she is willing to accept him as her married partner. After she has given her assent, they declare it to the Kāzī and the guests present. The Kāzī then asks the groom and the bride's father to sit facing each other and hold each other's right hand and registers the marriage. The sum stipulated as dowry to the girl is also registered. The bridegroom announces before all present that he has taken the bride for his wife with the said sum of dowry. The bride's father repeats the announcement. This done, the groom embraces his father-in-law and salutes every one present. Then there is a music and dance party till early hours of the next day. About day-break the bride's brother calls the bridegroom to the women's apartment. The new couple is asked to sit side by side on a raised seat and look into each other's face. While they are thus seated the Kāzī takes a little sugar, puts it on the bride's right shoulder and asks the groom whether he finds the sugar sweeter than his wife. He says the sugar is sweet, but the wife is sweeter than sugar and the *Korāṇ* is the sweetest. The couple look at each other's face in a mirror, place their hands on the backs of either and make a bow to Allāh five times. If they are literate, they read the chapter on Islām from the *Korāṇ*. The bride then leaves the groom who stays in the pandal or hall till the *varāt* or home-going procession time. In this procession it is customary to seat the bride in a carriage and the groom riding a horse escorts his wife home. When they reach the front gate of their house, they are welcomed by the groom's sisters and cousins who before letting him go in, take his promise that he would give his daughter in marriage to a son of one of them. Although most Muslims are monogamous, plurality of wives is allowed.

Beliefs.

Most Muslims do not attend the mosque daily for prayers, but they do so on occasions like *Ramzān* and *Bakri-Id*. Yet they are particular to join public prayers and most of them fast during *Ramzān*. The traditional religious functionaries of the Muslims are the Kāzī who now chiefly acts as the Marriage register, the Khatib or preacher, the Mulla or Maulāṅā that is priest and the Mujāwar, beadle. Even these officers have now almost disappeared and the mosque services are now led by any learned or prominent man or Maulavī who is usually a lawyer. The Bāñji who cries *Allā ho Akbar* five times a day from the turret of the mosque and calls the faithful to the prayers is invariably employed even in the humblest of mosques. Muslims believe in pirs or saints to whom they pray for children or for health and offer sacrifices and gifts to them.

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It is the aspiration of every Muslim to become a *hājī* by making a *hāj* *i.e.* pilgrimage to Mecca and bow to the Kāābā but few can afford to do so.

Child Birth.

Muslims believe in Saṭvāī like Hindus for on the sixth day of the birth of a child, a silver human tooth and a small silver sickle are worshipped as her symbol. The tooth and the sickle are placed in a winnowing fan with a platter containing the heart and head of a goat and boiled rice, some coconut kernel, two betel leaves, a betel-nut and a marking-nut with a needle through it for the Saṭvāī to write the fate of the newly born. A feast is given to friends and relatives. The family is regarded as ceremonially unclean for forty days after child birth. The mother is given a ceremonial bath on that day and a new dress is given to her. She is also given new glass bangles. Feasts of *pulav* and *banga* (*i.e.* rice and mutton respectively cooked together and separately) are given to friends and kinsmen. In the evening the child is given new little clothes and its hands and feet are decorated with silver trinkets. Women gather near the cradle, rock it and give the child a name which is chosen by the Kāzī in conformity with the position of the stars at the time of its birth. Before naming the child, a piece of sandalwood is wrapped in a napkin, waved about the cradle and passed from one woman to another with the words, 'Take this moon and give the sun'. After repeating this several times, they lay the piece of wood by the side of the babe and name the child.

Circumcision.

An important Muslim sacrament for males is circumcision or *suntā*. It is performed at any time between a male child's third and twelfth year, but it is always thought that the younger the age, the better it is for the child. The ceremony, if elaborately gone through, may extend over three or four days. A pandal is erected as on the occasion of a wedding and the boy to be circumcised is rubbed with turmeric paste for two days. A *biyāparī* feast is held on the second day when women, friends and relations are invited and five women with their husbands alive are asked to fast and are treated to a special dinner after the fast is over. On the third day, the boy is given a ceremonial bath, dressed in *jāmā* and a *sultāni śerā* *i.e.*, a veil made of net-work of flowers and is taken in a procession to the mosque to offer prayers. On return home, after midday meals, he is seated on a raised seat and the barber who is called Nabī (prophet) or Khalifā (ruler) calls out '*Din Din*' and skilfully performs the circumcision. Next day the barber washes the wound, turns up the foreskin with a wooden instrument called *ghoḍī* and applies oil to the wound. He is given a suitable fee for his services. In most families, the ceremony is finished in a day. Instead of going to the mosque, the ceremony is also performed at home in the presence of a Kāzī. The wound heals in about two weeks. To celebrate the recovery also, a feast is given, but the tendency of late is to cut down the ceremony to the shortest duration possible and not much fuss is made about it.[1] The *Bismillā* (Initiator) and *akica* (sacrifice) are now-a-days not much cared for, partly owing to ignorance of the scripture and partly because of poverty.

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Death rituals.

Burying the dead is invariably the custom among Muslims. When a Muslim dies, some near relations accompanied by a Mullā purchase a shroud 75 feet long for a man and 90 feet long for a woman and other things necessary for a funeral *viz.*, rose water, scents, sulphurate of antimony, frankincense and yellow earth and a flowernet when the dead person is a female. The dead body is washed with hot water boiled with *bor* and promegranate leaves and then with soap nut water and laid on the back on a wooden board. The Mullā writes the creed about the greatness of Allāh from the *Korāṇ* in aloe powder on the chest and forehead of the dead and puts pieces of camphor at all joints of the body. The body is then wrapped in a shroud and placed in a bier called *janājā* and taken to the graveyard. While going there all mourners who are only men recite *Kalmā-i Sahādat* and verses from the *Korāṇ*. The bearers keep on constantly changing. At the Idgā, prayer place, everybody prays. The corpse is then taken to the grave and buried. Everybody helps by throwing in some earth. The grave is closed and retiring forty paces from there, they again pray for the dead. These prayers are called *khātmās*, last prayers. All come back to the house of the dead, repeat the *khātmās* and go home. No food is cooked in the home of the dead on this day. It is provided by others. On the third day, there is the *ziārāt* when flowers and *sabjā* are placed on the whitewashed grave. Feasts are held on the fortieth day. *Maulād i.e.*, reading of the *Korāṇ* are gone through. The Mullā is paid for his services in connection with the funeral. On this day, a garland of flowers is kept hanging from the centre of the roof on a large platter filled with a number of savoury dishes. The mourners burn incense before the platter and offer prayers for the soul of the dead. At the funeral feast, tobacco is not tabooed but no *pān* is eaten. Muhammedan law prescribes only one form of mourning in the case of the head of the house *viz.*, his widow should remain in strict seclusion. This lasts for four months and ten days.

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Houses and Housing.

According to the 1961 Census there are 3,23,075 houses in the district. Of these 2,70,054 are in rural areas and 53,021 in urban areas. These houses include 2,29,693 dwellings of which 1,92,617 are in rural and 37,076 in urban areas.

There are two chief styles of houses in the district, the flat roofed and the tiled. Tiled roofs were once confined to villages north of the Tapi river but they became universal in course of time by the end of the last century. In the towns tiled roofs were the order but during the thirties, forties and fifties of the present century cement concrete construction with a terrace above has become the fashion in keeping with the vogue in several other urban centres of the country. Slowly they are getting into fashion even in villages. Baked bricks are used everywhere, whereas unbaked, sun-dried bricks were used for old houses which were mostly flat-roofed. Mud and mortar are both used. The window frames, doorposts are generally of teak or *nim* wood and often the door panels and window shutters are of mango wood. Stone is scarcely used except

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for foundation. Houses are usually built facing north or south and in some villages there is said to exist a prejudice against eastern or western fronts for houses.

A trader's house has a verandah or *oṭā*, which if he is a retail trader, is turned into his shop. Inside the verandah is the sitting room and beyond the sitting room the dining hall in the middle and three rooms on each side. Among the side rooms to the left of the hall are the office room, the shrine, the lying in room and to the right a treasure room and two store rooms one of which is used as kitchen. Behind this group comes the back verandah with privy in one corner. There is usually a back or a side door.

A well-to-do village Pāṭil's house has a large gate, with a ward room on either side where the watchman sleeps and kit is piled or where office work is done. Then comes a yard with a central well and cattle sheds on either side or all round. Then a flight of steps leads to the first door and a long house, with first, a sitting room, where swings or *zoolas* are kept and a dining room with two rooms on either side. In such houses cattle enter by the front door. The bulk of the peasant's houses are of the superior type of *ḍhābā* houses or inferior type of houses known as *chappars*. A *dhābā* house is said to last for many years if it is kept in good repairs. The walls of clay and chopped grass or straw thoroughly kneaded under buffalo's feet taper slightly and average from 18 to 22 inches in thickness. The flat or nearly flat roof rests on strong teakwood beams which run from wall to wall. Over the beams is laid a layer of strong branches of trees and a coating of dried sugarcane leaves, the whole with a gentle slope to one of the corners where a wooden spout throws off the water several feet from the foundation of the wall.

The *chappar* type of houses have either clay walls or merely a thick fence of cotton stalks or other wattled bows. The roof is made of long grass tied neatly to a bamboo frame work with an intricate layer of *palas* leaves in the middle of the grass so as to make the roof perfectly waterproof. Over the thatch, split millet stems are sometimes laid to make it look like tiles. Generally Kolis, Bhils, Vañjārās and Mahārs live in such huts.

The tendency, however, whether in towns or in villages of late is to go in for *puccā* construction and the use of burnt bricks cement and concrete is getting increasingly popular. The only restriction on such construction is ability to spend or facility of securing required materials. It is not unusual to notice such houses even in villages having a population of not more than a thousand. They are small and bungalow type and well-ventilated in keeping with modern architectural standards. Such houses are provided with furniture like chairs, table, sofas, cots, cupboards, radio sets, musical instruments etc., according to taste and ability. Steel furniture is also making headway in towns and even in villages.

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Food.

The staple food of practically all sections of Dhulia is jowar bread. Wheat and rice also occupy a considerable proportion. Rice now being produced in some tālukās of Dhulia with the help of lift irrigation is getting more and more popular and its presence in the menu is regarded as a sign of superior living. Vegetables locally grown and imported and bananas which are grown on a very large scale in the neighbouring district of Jalgāṅv also form part of the diet of people particularly of those living in towns. The cooking and dressing style may differ according to tradition and taste in the different communities but as in other matters, the standard is laid by the towns people and it may be paid to conform to the standard that obtains in places like Pooṇā and Nāśik. The service of food in public, well kept hotels of these places may be regarded as prescribing the standard menus for dinners and lunches.

The main difference in the eating habits of the people is determined by the consideration of their being vegetarians or non-vegetarians. Among the former may be included Brāhmaṇs, Mārvadīs, Jains and Baniās. In respect of non-vegetarians it may be pointed out that as meat and fish are not easily procurable most of them are not habitual meat-eaters. It is only on festive occasions or in some cases once or twice a week that they take meat diet. This is true even about Muslims and Marāṭhās who are particularly fond of mutton. Fresh fish is a rare commodity but dried fish that comes from Bombay forms part of the diet of the peasantry and village folk almost daily. Hindus scrupulously abstain from beef and Muslims from pork, though they may take mutton, eggs and fowl. Milk and ghee form part of the diet of vegetarians but even they can ill-afford it in these days. A spicy *kadhī i.e.*, buttermilk boiled with salt and spices is a favourite dish of all people in Dhulia district. Almost all classes of people have taken to tea in the mornings and the afternoons.

The pastoral, labouring and agricultural communities take three meals a day consisting of jowar bread, onions, split pulses, some vegetables, garlic and groundnut *cuṭney* made with salt and chillis. Breakfast, lunch and supper come early in the morning before setting out to work, at midday and between 7 and 9 p.m. respectively. The urban population takes two meals with a tiffin in the afternoon. In the case of the towns people, there may be some luxurious items like pickles and preserves and jams and occasionally some sweets in the daily diet. Milk curds and ghee may be there according to means and the quantity of rice and wheat may be larger than that of jowar. Otherwise there cannot be said to be much of difference in the diet of rural and urban people.

Dress.

The articles of dress of Dhulia Hindus are not particularly different from those of people in other parts of Mahārāṣṭra. The manner in which some of these articles are worn may differ slightly according to community or tradition. Hindus having a Gujarāti descent have kept to the way of wearing the *dhotī* that their ancestors followed not only decades but even centuries ago. The *kurtā* or

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sadrā has undergone many changes due to varying fashions or styles but the material has remained the same *viz.*, coarse cotton piece-goods. The old fashioned heavy, white folded turban has now remained only among the agricultural folk and the upper cloth piece worn over the shirt or coat is almost extinct. The *dhotī* and *kurtā*, however, continue to be a common wear among the elderly people.

Among the younger people, however, the *dhotī* is getting rarer even among the rural population. The loose pyjāmā, half pants and the pants have practically banished the *dhotīs*. The terylene, terycot and terywool cloth is also becoming fashionable. During the British rule, the western mode of clothes including the neckties had become very fashionable in the cities and towns but its glamour has now altogether vanished and the only remains of that dress, commonly to be noticed are the pants and shirt and of late the bush-shirt or the bush-coat. The old *uparṇe, sadrā, bārābandī, koprī, aṅgarkhā* and *ḍagta* are rarely seen. The head dress has almost gone and going bare-headed anywhere is becoming fashionable. The Gāndhī caps persist among the village people. The made-up turban, folded turban, *rumal, patka, safa,* tend to become historical relics. They are resurrected on some social, festive occasions, but even that has ceased to be a necessity. In winter some warm clothing is used according to necessity and means, the woollen blanket known as *ghoṅgaḍī* being the resort of agriculturists. In home wear, the *dhotī* has been largely replaced by the loose pyjāmā among the townfolk but the course *dhotī* persists in the villages and among peasant and labouring population.

A full nine-yard *sāḍī* and a bodice of similar material constitute the dress of grown-up women whether in rural or in urban areas. The manner of wearing the *sāḍī* slightly differs as between the village folk and the towns people. That is due to the necessities of the occupations in which they are employed. While a peasant woman will wear the *saḍī* with more tidiness and in close fitting manner, the urban woman will wear it somewhat loosely and the material would be of finer counts. The skirt of the *sāḍī* in the former case will cover the head of the peasant woman, but the urban woman will let it hang on her shoulder or wear it across the shoulder. *Sāḍīs* of five or six yards length have become fashionable of late among younger women and girls and they are worn cylindrically with a *parkar* (petticoat) inside. *Polkās* and blouses of different cuts are also getting fashionable and in the towns frocks and skirt blouses are coming into vogue in the case of girls.

For babies whether boys or girls, a cap known as *ṭopre* or *kuñcaḍe* is considered essential. *Aṅgḍīs* and *jhablīs* are used for the body. For children, the style of dress is the same, though dress material in their case may be somewhat fine, soft and cotton or woollen according to seasonal requirements.

Ornaments.

The ornaments worn by the women in the towns and those worn by women in the rural areas by peasant or working class women

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present a wide difference. Women in towns prefer to have light and delicate articles while those in villages wear heavy and rather crude products of workmanship. Gold ornaments would be seen only occasionally and in only very well-to-do families like those of Pāṭīls, Deśmukhs and Caudharīs. Others wear only silver trinkets on hands and feet and even other limbs of the body. They might even be of brass and nickel. Glass beads and glass bangles would be profusely worn. Towns women also consider these a necessity however rich they may be. Women in towns would be sparing in their use, though in this respect fashions go on changing. Many educated women are now found putting on as many as eight or ten gold bangles, of course, of delicate make on only one of their hands and on another only a wrist watch, may be with a gold chain. Gold ornaments still hold sway among the well-to-do and even educated classes and besides giving prestige to a family, they are looked upon as insurance in emergencies. Those who can afford it go in for ornaments of pearls and precious stones also. The introduction of cultured pearls from Japan has made it easier to use articles made of pearls like bangles and various styles of necklaces. Similarly, the invasion of 'Czechoslovak' jewellery has made it possible for girls and women to satisfy their craze for bright and dazzling beads and ear-rings at cheap prices.

Not long ago, it was fashionable for men also to adorn their bodies with ornaments and it was not rare to see men who flaunted a *bhikabāḷī* on one of their ears, usually right ear. It was usually of two pearls with a green or red stone between them or three pearls strung together by a thin gold wire. But this decoration is now rarely seen. A gold or pearl *kaṇṭhā* with an emerald pendant was a favourite ornament among rich men and may still be seen in some landlord or *savkar* families. Rings of various styles of gold and often with one or other of the precious stones inset are the only ornaments now fashionable among men. Buttons, links, studs, collar-pins or tie-pins of real or artificial gold appear to be the new fashion and wrist watch has usurped the place of the old *pocī* or *salkaḍī*. Among the rural folk, silver ornaments and silver *kargoṭās* to be worn round the waist are popular.

Even among women, the craze for decorating almost every limb has faded out. Formerly the hair used to be laden with a number of gold ornaments and the ankles with heavy silver wear including something for the toes also. For the hair only flowers are now considered enough among the sophisticated city people. Ear-rings of pearls or other real or artificial stones are fashionable. The *maṅgalasutra* made of gold and black glass beads is considered an indispensable item in case of married women with their husbands living among Hindus, just like the *kumkum* mark on the forehead. Various styles of gold necklaces or ornaments of gold and pearls are in current use. Gold bangles of various styles are popular and in rich families, they are made of pearls and precious stones also. For special occasions ornaments round the arms known as *vāṅkī* are worn. A nose-ring was

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once considered absolutely essential, as important for married women with their husbands living as *maṅgalasutra*, but the same importance is not attached to this ornament now. It is used only on special festive occasions of late. Decorating children with various little trinkets is fashionable such as *bindlīs* round the wrist, *haṅsaḷī* round the neck and *sāṅkhḷī* as a necklace. Gold is used for these articles but among the poor it is silver. Most ornaments are common among women of all communities including Muslims, though styles for nose-rings and ear-rings may differ. Among the Bhils and others, big and profuse glass bead necklaces are popular as also silver bangles.

GAMES AND RECREATION.

Various indoor and outdoor games as well as musical and dance performances form part of the peoples' cultural life in any region. In Dhulia, there are various such forms, traditional as well as newly adopted ones. The following is a brief description of them with their peculiarities :—

Infants and children of early age are more interested in toys than in games which involve some intelligence or physical exercise. Babies who are susceptible to the influence of sound are fascinated by anything that jingles. Similarly colour works as a charm to them and so wooden or metal rattles with bright colour attracts them. All kinds of pipes, whistles, drums, tambourines are their initial playthings. Then come dolls and moving articles like trains, steamships, motor cars worked by springs or drawn by strings. Toy horses, elephants, lions etc., amuse them. These used to be wooden but are also made of tin and are brightly painted.

When children reach the age of walking and running, they take to such simple games as *śivāśivī* which involves chasing and touching. One of the groups of children at play becomes a chaser and others run about. The chase is simple. The player who is touched becomes the chaser and the merry-go-round goes on until they are all tired. Swings are popular among children especially girls who sing little rhymes and songs as they enjoy the swing go forward and backward. High jumps, low jumps and somesaults (*golāṇtī uḍī*) are more popular with boys. During childhood, mimicry or imitation plays a large part even in the game pattern. Horse-driving, engine-driving, palanquin-bearing, playing at school *i.e.* imitating the teacher are great attractions. Girls indulge in doll marriages and housekeeping. These games have no set rules but they are played in a team spirit, every player having some function to perform.

Ghoḍā-ghoḍā, playing at horse, is played in many ways. One way is for two children to stand one behind the other. The garment of the one in front being held by the other behind and both of them running, make one a horse and the other a horseman. Another way is to pass a rope from the back of the neck of the child playing the horse and it being held in one hand by another playing the driver with a whip in other hand. Or one child may crawl on all fours and let another child use it as its mount. Even a single child plays at horse by passing a stick between its two legs and holding its one

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extremity in its hands and allowing the other to rest on the ground. *Āgagāḍī* or playing at train only means that a number of children stand in a line, one behind the other, each holding the garment of the one in front of the other. The engine is the foremost child and the rest are wagons and bogies. One of the children is a guard in charge of the train. It stops or speeds up according to his whistles. *Pālkhī* or palanquin is usually played by three. Two children stand face to face with their arms locked up with each other's and the third child sits in the square formed by the arms of the other two, with its arms resting on the shoulders of the other two. Children everywhere are ingenious enough to devise variations of all these games.

Somewhat older children play a number of chase and tag games. Blind man's buff and hide and seek known as *āṇdhaḷī kośimbir* and *lapaṇḍāv* are quite popular. Cāppḍāv is a tag game with the restriction that the chaser cannot touch a player who sits down and the squatter cannot get up unless helped by some other player who is on his feet by lending his hand to the squatter. In all chase and tag games, the player who is tagged becomes the chaser and the game starts afresh. Playing at marbles, the top and kite-flying are also quite popular. Hitting one marble with another by the help of the middle finger whatever the distance between the two marbles and taking correct aim constitute the essential skill in this game. Spinning the top is not a competitive game. A single person can enjoy it. The *Saṅkrāntī* festival is the season for kite-flying in which even grown-up people join. Two boys so handle the kite when up in the sky as to cut each other's thread. For these tournaments a special thread called māñjā is used. It is treated with powdered glass and gum.

Team Games.

Games which involve physical exercise have an attraction for grown-up boys. A simple game in which any number can join and can go on indefinitely is *bādābāḍī* and *rāpārāpī*. A soft ball made from rags or rubber is tossed up in the air for all to catch. The player who catches it tries to hit any other player with the ball. Whoever is hit tries to hit others. *Tobā* is also a simple game. A well knotted piece of cloth is taken by a player. Other players are seated in a circle. The player with the piece of cloth called *Tobā* runs around and places it quietly behind the back of some one and keeps on running. If the boy behind whom it is kept is not alert and does not notice and catch hold of the *tobā*, it is taken up by the boy making the round who beats the sitting boy with it till he makes a full round and the victim resumes his seat. In *vāghbakrī*, one of the players is assigned the role of tiger and another that of the shepherd. The rest are all lambs. The lambs line up behind the shepherd, each holding the one in front by the waist. The shepherd hands a piece of cloth for the protection of his lambs and keeps on beating the tiger with it. His work is to capture each of the lambs despite beating.

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Girls' Games.

Girls participate in such games as blind man's buff, hide and seek and *chāpadār*, but some games are peculiar only to them, as for instance *sāgargoṭe*. This is a sedentary game. Big round seeds, paddles or shreds of pottery serve as ready material. Five or any suitable odd number of these are thrown up into the air and the player attempts to catch as many of them as possible on the back of her palms. These are again hurled up and caught in both the palms. Another way of playing at *sāgargoṭe* is to throw all the pieces on the ground, pick one of these, toss it in the air and before catching it again, pick up one, two or three or more, all at once. Passing feet through a string thrown up in the air but held by the hands at the extremities is a clever feat much engaged by girls. *Soṅgṭyā*, played with dice or *cowries* were once very popular but carrom has now replaced them to a certain extent. *Phugḍyā* is a game that is played in pairs or sometimes by four girls. The girls stand facing each other, keep their feet together with two or three inches between the toes, cross arms, keep them straight and hold each other's or one another's hands, according as they are two or four, balance the body backwards and each time, stepping the right foot a few inches to the right and shifting the left foot along with it, start an anti-clock-wise movement. As the footwork quickens, the movement gathers in tempo till the players get a whirling sensation. By way of accompaniment they sometimes recite jocular couplets or rhymes. There are various types of *phugaḍīs*. *There is the baṇḍā-phugḍī* in which the players hold each other's arms. In *bas-phugḍī*, a player keeps moving with bent knees while the other is standing erect. In *bhuī-phugḍī*, the players start with a full squatting position and arms on the knees. They scrape the feet alternately in oblique kicks balancing the steps with backward and forward movements of the arms. These are quite exhausting exercises. *Zimmā kombḍā* and *piṅgā* are other variants in which there are no whirling movements and in which even a dozen can participate at a time.

Major Games.

A number of games, both indigenous and extraneous, are played in schools and colleges. Of the Indian games, *hututu* and *laṅgḍī* seem to be popular, though *khokho*, *āṭyāpāṭyā* and *viṭīdāṇḍū* are also fairly common. These games have some variations according to local customs but standardised forms and rules have been evolved by institutions like the *Akhil Mahārāṣṭra Śārīrīk Śikṣaṇ Maṇḍaḷ* which have been adopted widely and observed when there are contests and tournaments. Cricket is the most popular among western games, though football, hockey, tennis and badminton are also played in school and college grounds and gymkhanas and clubs of professional people. Playing at cards, bridge and chess is quite common. The *daśāvatārī gañjafas* which were once popular have become almost extinct.

Gymnasiums.

Ākhāḍās and gymnasiums also are found in some rural and urban centres. They are patronised by those who are keen on body-building and physical culture. Wrestling, *malkhāmb*-climbing and exercises on single and double bars are taught at these institutions.

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Devotional Entertainment.

The traditional forms of religious and devotional sermons such as *purāṇa, kirtana, pravacana* and *bhajana* provide both entertainment and instruction to Hindu congregations. The more devoted among them are found to repeat constantly the name of their favourite deity such as Rāma, Śiva or Pāṇḍuraṅga even while engaged in their daily pursuits. Professional reciters and readers of *Rāmāyaṇa, Mahābhārata* and *Bhāgvata* read *puraṇa* in some temple or during the four months of the rainy season called *cāturmāsa.* Usually the sessions are held in the afternoons but sometimes at night also. They read the original Sanskṛt text and explain the meaning thereof in Marāṭhī. *Pravacanas* are learned discourses on some text or other from the sacred books and usually learned *sāstris* give them. They may not be professional *purāṇīks. Kirtana* is a more entertaining form of religious exposition in which music and humorous anecdotes have much scope. Some of the *kirtankārs* also known as *haridāsas* or *Kathākarīs,* make their *kirtans* very enjoyable by the eloquence of their exposition and by the sweetness of their music. By a blend of story telling, quotations from religious works and singing to the accompaniment of musical instruments, they are able to keep large congregations and audiences almost spell-bound.

Two schools seem to have evolved in the *kirtana* performances. One is called the *Nārada* school and the other *Vārkarī* school. The *Nārada* school *kirtankār* chooses some Sanskṛt or Marāṭhī text from some religious book and develops a philosophic theme in the first part of his preaching called *purvaraṅga.* In the second part he relates an illustrative story in support of the philosophic theme. The *Vārkarī* school *kirtankār* quotes themes by way of reciting an *abhaṅga* or an *ovī* or a song of one of the Marāṭhī poet saint and immediately expounds it with illustrations and commentary. Intermittently he begins a *bhajan* in which not only his companions but also the audience join. *Bhajans* are chantings of devotional pieces which are usually recited in chorus by a team. Now-a-days they are being adapted to scientific tunes and *rāgas* by the chanters. A village or some *mohallās* in towns often have *bhajan* groups. Usually there is a leader of the group called *buvā,* a player on the *mrudaṅg,* a harmonium player and several *ṭāḷkarīs i.e.,* cymbal beaters. The *buvā* keeps a *veeṇā* (lute) and a *ciplī* (castanets). He recites a song, the musical instruments provide the rhythm and tune, the *ṭāḷkarīs* pick up the refrain and sing it aloud in chorus, clicking their *ṭāls* in harmony. This devotional entertainment is a source of great pleasure to working class people.

Gondhal.

A similar recreational fare that is occasionally provided is what is called *gondhaḷ. Gondhaḷīs* are a community by themselves who specialise in it. They are hereditary devotees of the goddess Ambābāī in whose honour they perform. Their services are usually requisitioned by Hindus of several communities to mark the rounding off of some auspicious or joyful event such as a wedding or a thread ceremony. A high wooden stool is placed in a room or a hall. A handful of wheat is laid over it. On the wheat is placed

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a copper cup with betel leaves in it and over the leaves a half coconut with some rice, a betel-nut and a copper coin in it. Near the stool is set an image of Ambābāī and a light lamp-stand. The three or four *gondhaḷīs* play on the *sambaḷ* (double drum), *tuṇtuṇe* (one stringed fiddle) and *zāñj* (cymbal). One of them holds a *divṭī,* lighted torch. The head-dancer has a picturesque dress. It consists of a long robe, and garlands of *cowris* (shells). He stands in front of the others, lays sandal, flowers and offerings before the lighted torch. He takes up the torch, dances with the torch in his hands for some time, sings and at intervals makes a fool of the torch-bearer. This singing and dancing goes on for an hour. The *ārtī* is waved before Ambābāī and those present offer silver and copper coins in the plate which holds the lamp. With the service of the *prasād,* the *gondhaḷ* is over.

Tamasha.

Among the young and gay, *tamāśā* performances have maintained great popularity. A *tamāśā* is predominantly an entertainment for masses particularly in rural areas and includes singing, dancing, clever dialogues, although it is not altogether bereft of instruction in the allegorical form. A *tamāśā* party called *bārī* usually consists of seven persons, though five is the minimum required. It comprises artists of histrionic talent, rhetorical ability and musical skill. There is one dancer, one drummer, one comedian for fool and two others to keep time, one with *tuṇtuṇe,* and the other with cymbals. In a bigger party, there is an additional dancer and drummer and more actors. A village may have its own *tamāśā* party of amateurs. But the art is preserved by professional *tamāśā* troupes who move from place to place during the major part of the year excepting the rainy season. The *nācyā porgā* in amateur troupes is usually a boy dressed as a girl, but female dancers and singers in the professional parties are their chief attraction. Many of the artists are very talented. *Tamāśās* are generally performed at annual fairs of local shrines where people gather together in large numbers and are in a gay mood because the harvesting season is over by that time. *Mahāśivarātrī, Rāmanavmī, Hanumānjayanti* and *Hoḷī* are the occasions. Villagers liberally patronise the *tamāśās* which are performed at night and last till early hours of the morning.

There are two types of *tamāśās* known as *ḍholkicī bārī* and *saṅgeet bārī.* The nature of the earlier part of the performance is the same in both. To start with, the participants present themselves on the stage, salute the audience and sing a prayer in honour of god *Gaṇeś.* This over, in *ḍholkicībarī* the item called *gavḷaṇ* follows in which the traditional Kṛṣṇa-milkmaid theme is variously staged, Kṛṣṇa, Yaśodā, Rādhā, Kṛṣṇa's playmates etc., participating in the humorous dialogues and songs. After *gavḷaṇ* comes the farce in which the comedian or the clown of the party plays the chief role. Thereafter starts the *vag i.e.,* dramatic presentation of some story taken either from mythology or history or based on some aspect of social life. The performers are not educated nor have they any aid of curtains and other embellishments of scenery. But in many performances, the theme is developed

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with considerable skill and there is a good displaying of innate histrionic talent. The *vag* may last even for three or four hours. In the *saṅgeet bārī* type, there is no *vag*. After prayer to god *Gaṇeś*, there are a few songs about Kṛṣṇa and his *gopīs*. Then comes the clown with his pranks. Then starts what is practically a musical concert accompanied by dancing, there usually being one principal singer and dancer, a girl and others, also girls who are her partners. The music has sometimes quite a scientific touch; generally it consists of popular folk songs known as *lāvṇīs* which are devoted to topics and situations of an intensely amorous character. The singing of *lāvṇīs* evokes great enthusiasm in the audience and money is freely given to a particular songstress. This extra money is called *daulatjādā* and is retained by the dancer. *Tamāśā* as a form of popular amusement had deteriorated into a gross display of sheer vulgarity and obscenity. In order to rid this old art of such aberrations, the Government of Bombay as it then was set up in 1954 a separate board to examine the scripts and write-ups of *lāvṇīs*.

Cinema and Drama.

Cinemas and plays by professional theatrical troupes also add to the amusement of town folk more than the rural people. Most tālukā towns in the district have now cinema houses which exhibit films in Hindi and Marāṭhī. Plays on the stage are not so frequent as they are mostly confined to metropolitan centres and big cities. The Government of Mahārāṣṭra has a District Publicity Officer in every district who tours for three weeks in a month and shows the rural people documentaries, informative and propaganda films which also add to the amusement of the people. Radio sets in well-to-do people's houses and salary-earners are comparatively new means of amusement to the people. Rural broadcasting sets are also provided by the government at selected centres.

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AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

THIS CHAPTER MAINLY DESCRIBES THE AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES IN THE DISTRICT which support nearly 82·51 per cent of the total population of the district. The economy of the district is preferentially suited to agricultural development as could be seen from a brief description of the district in relief. The Tapi river, one of the chief natural features, with its total course of 86·905 km. (54 miles) in the district flows in westerly direction, dividing the district into two unequal parts, the larger lying towards the south. It receives many tributaries from both the directions, southern as well as northern, which together form the most fertile central part of the district. The river Narmada skirts the northern boundary of the district for 56·327 km. (35 miles). Towards the north the central alluvial plain rises into a difficult and rugged country, thickly wooded and inhabited by the tribes of Bhils whose cultivating methods are still aboriginal. This northern part of the district is covered by the Satpuda ranges while western and southern parts are bounded by the Satmala hill ranges. The rainfall is also not uniform all over the district. It varies between 525 mm. and 1150 mm. The district is thus a distinct topographical unit, drained by the Tapi river and its tributaries and covered by the Satpuda and Satmala hill ranges in the north and south respectively. The cultivators for the agricultural take off in the district, therefore, have to toil on the base land which is covered with hill ranges.

The class of cultivators as a whole in the district can be broadly divided into those who are inhabiting the hilly regions of the district and cultivate the land more or less in an aboriginal way. Most of them still live on the wild fruits of the forest and wild animals and support themselves by the profits of wood-cutting. This class, amongst others, mainly consists of Bhils, Dhanka, Gamit, Kokna, Naikda and Pardhi tribes. This district has the largest proportion of scheduled tribes in the State. Out of the total population of 1,351,236, 513,344 persons or 37·99 per cent belong to the scheduled tribes.

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Their concentration is mostly in the northern Satpuda ranges and the Satmala ranges in the south and south-west.

The other class of local husbandmen is the most important and consists of mainly Maratha, Gujar, Rajput and Mali. Of these, the Gujar cultivators are very fond of maintaining horses to take round in the fields. The Malis still continue their traditional way of cultivation *i.e.* bagait or *mala.* The class of cultivators as a whole in the district inspite of progressive agriculture is still under the economic stress which grays the hair and bends the shoulders of the peasants.

In 1951, cultivators and agricultural labourers (including earning dependents) constituted 56·32 per cent and 24·24 per cent of the total workers respectively. In 1961, the corresponding proportions were 46·06 per cent and 36·46 per cent respectively. In 1961, the proportion of agricultural labourers is also very high as compared with the figures of State as a whole. The ratio between cultivators and agricultural labourers is 4 : 3 against 2 : 1 for the State.

The following statement gives the taluka-wise distribution of workers into two categories viz., cultivators and agricultural labourers with corresponding figures for the State and the district :—

		Cultivators	Agricultural Labourers
Maharashtra State	..	46·11	23·80
Dhulia district	..	46·06	36·46
Akrani Taluka	..	86·34	9·47
Akkalkuwa Taluka	..	69·49	23·01
Taloda Taluka	..	41·81	44·53
Shahada Taluka	..	34·39	53·78
Nandurbar Taluka	..	40·02	39·09
Shirpur Taluka	..	36·28	47·30
Sindkheda Taluka	..	41·21	42·43
Nawapur Taluka	..	59·92	27·07
Sakri Taluka	..	58·21	30·93
Dhulia Taluka	..	37·50	29·77

RAINFALL.

As with the soil, the relief of the district influences the rainfall too. The district gets rains mostly from the south-west monsoons between June and October, and some local rains in May and scanty rains in November. The rainfall all over the district, however, is not uniform. It varies from 525 mm. to 1150 mm. The monsoon winds carrying moisture deposit much of its water in the western and north-western parts of the district where it meets first the rugged hill ranges. Nawapur gets maximum annual rainfall of about 1150 mm. Over much of the central part and areas around Sindkheda, Sakri and Dhulia

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talukas, the rains are scanty ranging upto 533·4 mm. (21″). Sakri gets the minimum of the rain fall *i.e.* 525 mm. The town of Dhulia which was then taken to illustrate had, during the twenty-nine years ending 1879, an average rainfall of 553·212 mm. (21·78″), the amount varying from 277·876 mm. (10·94″) in 1871 to 912·368 mm. (35·92″) in 1878. The following table gives the yearly returns[1] :—

TABLE No. 1

RAINFALL, 1851-1879

Year	Millimetres	Inches	Year	Millimetres	Inches	Year	Millimetres	Inches
1851	566·768	(21·92)	1861	689·356	(27·14)	1871	277·876	(10·94)
1852	497·586	(19·59)	1862	....	....	1872	778·510	(30·65)
1853	483·616	(19·04)	1863	415·036	(16·34)	1873	763·016	(30·04)
1854	765·556	(30·14)	1864	282·448	(11·12)	1874	531·876	(20·94)
1855	368·300	(14·50)	1865	481·076	(18·94)	1875	759·460	(29·90)
1856	638·048	(25·12)	1866	362·712	(14·28)	1876	333·756	(13·14)
1857	632·968	(24·92)	1867	492·252	(19·38)	1877	639·826	(25·19)
1858	548·386	(21·59)	1868	298·704	(11·76)	1878	912·368	(35·92)
1859	617·474	(24·31)	1869	814·578	(32·07)	1879	526·034	(20·71)
1860	575·056	(22·64)	1870	750·062	(29·53)			

The district thus, removed from the extremes of scarce and of abundant rainfall, has an average supply of 762 mm. (30″). Nevertheless the district as a whole can be considered safe from famine. The Fact-Finding Committee appointed by the then Government of Bombay in 1960 also concluded that the entire Dhulia district may be regarded as free from scarcity.

The human endeavours to augment the agricultural output in the district by constructing minor and major irrigation projects and irrigation wells are hindered as about 95·11 per cent of the gross cropped area is still dependant on the vagaries of nature. The rainfall in the district has been a prime determinant of the cropping pattern and the agricultural operations in the district. The following table gives the average rainfall obtaining in the district since 1901 :—

[1] *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency,* Vol. XII, Khandesh, 1880, p. 14.

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TABLE No. 2

RAINFALL RETURNS, DHULIA DISTRICT

Average rainfall in millimetres

Station		Number of years of data		April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	January	February	March
Dhulia	..	59	R. F.*	2·07	16·28	126·35	144·26	105·14	142·62	40·10	23·86	4·36	7·0	2·54	1·98
			R. D.†	2·22	1·37	6·95	9·92	7·36	6·92	2·41	1·39	0·37	0·63	0·24	0·17
Nandurbar	..	59	R. F.	1·79	9·15	108·62	373·63	134·93	122·75	40·40	16·39	3·49	7·0	1·18	1·42
			R. D.	0·59	0·59	6·03	14·68	11·07	6·97	2·0	0·78	0·29	0·34	0·17	0·17
Nawapur	..	59	R. F.	2·64	6·85	147·97	425·97	280·81	163·53	44·53	12·15	3·35	6·61	1·76	1·54
			R. D.	0·20	0·68	5·34	19·32	17·22	9·86	2·14	0·64	0·29	0·24	0·17	0·15
Pimpalner	..	59	R. F.	3·11	77·13	97·34	161·93	110·02	112·22	42·35	21·50	4·90	4·38	2·01	3·60
			R. D.	0·32	0·73	2·61	11·68	8·92	6·64	2·56	1·20	0·44	0·34	0·19	0·32
Shahada	..	58	R. F.	1·62	11·00	116·60	205·85	134·1	133·33	37·62	10·14	5·37	6·36	0·65	1·22
			R. D.	0·17	0·78	6·28	14·12	11·38	7·52	2·14	0·74	0·28	0·38	0·10	0·14
Shirpur	..	58	R. F.	1·94	10·31	65·06	200·36	133·06	119·31	37·35	13·24	3·18	5·30	1·77	4·18
			R. D.	0·22	0·74	6·28	12·31	9·02	6·48	1·78	1·0	0·47	0·43	0·24	0·21
Sindkheda	..	58	R. F.	2·34	8·00	90·35	157·29	108·73	109·13	35·56	18·11	4·48	5·66	2·67	1·48
			R. D.	0·26	0·60	6·10	10·72	7·53	6·40	2·10	1·0	0·43	0·46	0·26	0·21
Taloda	..	58	R. F.	1·33	9·53	130·00	262·40	183·12	147·01	30·66	12·40	4·38	5·79	1·46	1·30
			R. D.	0·24	0·85	6·91	17·69	14·76	8·03	1·85	0·74	0·28	0·26	0·16	0·16
Sakri	..	57	R. F.	4·25	12·37	94·12	561·78	127·9	107·21	42·54	22·32	5·73	3·89	1·53	1·70
			R. D.	0·42	0·79	5·97	8·12	3·75	5·95	2·40	1·30	0·40	0·35	0·18	0·18
Ahwa	..	33	R. F.	5·10	11·38	209·50	605·17	482·33	244·37	58·16	13·66	3·03	6·90	1·45	1·54
			R. D.	0·42	0·85	11·33	23·94	25·39	13·12	3·27	0·70	0·30	0·55	0·18	0·21
Akkalkuwa	..	6	R. F.	10·75	92·58	356·80	334·84	184·08	85·16	6·62	....	....	....	....	....
			R. D.	0·67	5·5	19·0	17·83	10·83	3·83	0·5	....	....	....	....	....
Dhadgaon	..	6	R. F.	2·03	42·16	104·58	178·28	227·03	180·61	79·40	10·85	0·93	0·16	....	....
			R. D.	0·17	1·83	7·0	16·83	17·17	11·17	3·83	0·83	0·17	0·33	....	....
Visarvadi	..	6	R. F.	0·63	31·14	109·48	296·84	384·30	136·88	117·48	12·45	....	11·05	....	....
			R. D.	0·17	1·33	4·67	16·0	19·67	9·83	4·17	1·0	....	0·33	....	....

*R. F. indicates average rainfall in millimetres
†R. D. indicates average number of rainy days.

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AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

Of the factors that determine the scope of the agricultural industry in the district, the type of soil and the amount of rainfall influence most the cropping pattern and the agricultural operations. The district being still ill-equipped with irrigation facilities, the cultivated land in the district singles out in a *jirayat* or dry crop category. Its further classification is subject to the pattern of crops *vis-a-vis* the monsoons. Thus an early or rain harvest is known as *kharif* while the late or cold weather harvest is called *rabi*. In the district, however, much more area is cultivated in *kharif* season than in *rabi* season. The important *kharif* crops are bajri, groundnut, cotton, rice, *kharif* jowar and mug, while *rabi* jowar, gram and wheat are the principal *rabi* crops. The *rabi* jowar, popularly known as *dadar* is comparatively produced on a larger area than the *kharif* jowar. The time of sowing depends, to some extent, on the rainfall. But generally the early crop lasts from the beginning of July to the beginning of November and the late from September to February.

SOILS.

Of the various soil forming factors, topography and climate primarily influence the soil formations in the Dhulia district. The district in general, except for the central fairly flat and broad Tapi valley, presents an undulating topography with low hillocks in the southern area and the Hilar hills of the Satpuda ranges in the northern area. Rainfall in the northern area is moderate while it is low in the southern area, the southern most of which is a scarcity tract.

The soils of the district are derived from trap rock to the south of Tapi river; while to the north these are from the trap as well as sedimentary formations of the Satpuda ranges. The central Tapi valley region is a fairly recent alluvium developed on the bed of lacustrine origin. The northern part of the district has dark brown to yellowish brown soils of lighter type on the hill slopes, with clayey deep soils of the Tapi valley to its south. Between the Tapi and Panjhra river valleys comes the belt of medium deep soils mostly, with interception of medium and shallower soils in scattered patches, depending on the local conditions. Below the Panjhra valley in the southern part of the district lies the area of shallow to medium soils as per local relief conditions.

Characteristics of these soils from some representative areas and the profile description and analytical data are as follows :—

Light Soils 0–228·6 mm. (0″–9″).—Lighter soils are largely met with in northern and southern areas flanking on both sides of the central Tapi valley. In general these soils are partly alkaline in reaction with pH round about 8·2 with the total soluble salts moderately low (less than 0·3 per cent). Soils are light loams to clay loams in texture with sub-angular blocky to angular blocky in structure in the lower zone. The calcium carbonate contents are fair being less than 4·0 per cent. They are low in organic matter and nitrogen contents, varying from 0·2 to 0·3 per cent and less than 0·04 per cent respectively. The phosphate and potash levels are low to moderate with available phosphate varying from trace to 11·7 mgm. per cent and available potash from trace to 14·29 mgm. per cent. The exchangeable bases are calcium 23·5–32·5, magnesium 4·0–11·5, and sodium less than 2·5 m.e. per cent. In general these are low in fertility and require judicious supply of manures and fertilizers.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

SOILS.

Medium soils 228·6–457·2 mm. (9″–18″).—These soils are predominantly located in the southern and central zones of the district below the Tapi valley in Dhulia, Sakri, and Nawapur areas with intervening narrow belts of fairly shallow soils. The soils are dark brown to dark reddish brown in colour with fairly good drainage, granular to sub-angular, blocky in structure, loamy to clay loam in texture, alkaline in reaction with pH varying from 8·11 to 8·62, total soluble salts less than 0·3 per cent, calcium carbonate less than 4·0 per cent and the organic matter contents less than 0·3 per cent. The exchangeable calcium varies from 27·5 to 41·5 m.e. per cent while the exchangeable mg. is moderate to fairly high (4·0 to 13·5 m.e. per cent) which can be considered as undesirable when tending towards higher limit. Exchangeable sodium is less than 2·5 m.e. per cent.

As regards the fertility status, the soils are very poor in nitrogen contents with total nitrogen varying from 0·02 to 0·051 per cent, available phosphate is very low to fair varying from trace to 12·64 mgm. per cent. and available K_2O content is moderate, being about 14·29 mgm. per cent. The soils in general are deficient in nitrogen, organic matter and phosphate contents and therefore require adequate doses of the same for better harvest.

Medium deep soils 457·2–914·4 mm. (18″–36″)—These soils are fairly scattered in many smaller river valleys and local pockets, and largely in Tapi and Panjhra river valleys on the outer side of the valleys. The soils are clay loam to clayey in texture with dark brown to very dark gray brown in colour and sub-angular blocky to angular blocky in structure. The soils are alkaline in reaction with pH 8·03 to 8·69 and the total soluble salts are between 0·2 to 0·3 per cent, the calcium carbonate contents are low to moderate varying from 0·3 to 4·0 per cent. The organic matter contents are poor, varying from 0·1 to 0·39 per cent, exchangeable calcium varies from 35·0 to 49·0 m.e. per cent, and the exchangeable mg varies from 14·0 to 17·5 m.e. per cent which is not a desirable feature. The exchangeable Na is less than 2·5 m.e. per cent. The nitrogen contents are very low, total nitrogen being 0·039 to 0·07 per cent. Available P_2O_5 is low to moderately high varying from traces to 33·32 mgm. per cent. Available potash content is fair to moderately high varying from traces to 24·0 mgm. per cent. In general these soils are specifically deficient in nitrogen and organic matter contents in general and phosphate in cases, with high exchangeable mg. and high pH. Application of manures and fertilizers is needed for these nutrients as per local conditions for better returns.

Deep soils more than 914·4 mm. (36″).—These soils are mostly in the valleys of Tapi and Panjhra. Besides a few scattered local patches are sandy clay loam to clayey in texture with clay percentage upto 60·0 per cent at the highest and 40–55 per cent in general for most soils. Structure varies from sub-angular blocky to angular blocky with dark gray brown to very dark gray brown colour.

The special characteristic is that the sub-soil layers have diminishing clay percentage upto certain depth 1·219 to 1·524 metres (4 to 5 ft.) particularly in the Tapi valley. These soils lend onwards alkaline reaction, pH varying from 7·78 to 8·23. Total soluble salts are less than 0·35 per cent and calcium carbonate content is moderate, varying from 1·4 to 3·8 per cent.

Organic matter contents are very low varying from 0·12 to 0·37 per cent. Exchangeable calcium varies from 25·0 to 50·5 m.e. per cent; while exchangeable magnesium is from fair to moderately high, varying from 4·0 to 18·5 m.e. per cent which is not desirable when approaching upper limit. Exchangeable sodium is, however, less than 2·5 m.e. per cent.

The nitrogen contents are very poor varying from 0·035 to 0·057 per cent and the available P_2O_5 varies from fair to moderately high, 11·7 to 29·8 mgm. per cent. The available potash (K_2O) also varies from fair to moderately high varying from 11·77 to 37·5 mgm. per cent. In general the soils are more deficient in nitrogen and organic matter contents and need more manures and fertilizers to supply the same.

The following tables show the physical and chemical analysis of the soils in the district :—

TABLE No. 3

PROFILE RESULT SHEET OF DHULIA DISTRICT

Profile No.	Depth in inches	pH-	T.S.S. per cent	Mech. Analysis	
				Silt per cent	Clay per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6
0-117.8	(0″-7″)	8.36	0.23	13.75	42.00
117.8-284.0	(7″-10″)	8.28	0.24	15.25	55.00
0-228.6 mm.	(0″-9″)	8.03	0.23	21.25	48.00
228.6-381.0 mm.	(9″-15″)	8.11	0.25	23.00	46.75
0-228.6 mm.	(0″-9″)	8.78	0.20	11.00	23.50
228.6-533.4 mm.	(9″-21″)	8.66	0.20	13.75	23.75
533.4-787.4	(21″-31″)	8.61	0.20	22.25	23.75
0-228.6	(0″-9″) surface	8.03	0.27	13.00	53.25
0-279.4 mm.	(0″-11″)	8.86	0.25	21.25	61.25
279.4-673.1 mm.	(11″-26½″)	8.19	0.31	23.75	51.50
673.1-1041.4	(26½″-41½″)	8.11	0.26	4.25	72.25
0—228.6	(0″-9″) surface	8.73	0.26	18.25	51.50
0-203.2	(0″-8″)	8.61	0.24	17.00	50.75
203.2-533.4	(8″-21″)	8.78	0.24	19.00	52.50
533.4-762.0	(21″-30″)	8.83	0.27	17.25	53.75
762.0-965.2	(30″-38″)	8.69	0.27	15.75	52.00
965.2-1270.0	(38″-50″)	8.78	0.20	17.00	27.00
0—288.6	(0″-9″) surface	8.28	0.24	14.50	24.50
0-330.2	(0″-13″)	8.03	0.18	5.00	23.00
330.2-635.0	(13′-25″)	8.09	0.24	18.75	27.00
635.0-990.6	(25″-39″)	8.65	0.18	15.50	32.50
990.6-1600.2	(39″-63″)	8.26	0.13	5.25	31.75
1600.2-1727.2	(63″-68″)	7.74	0.26	10.25	23.50

TABLE No. 3–*contd.*

PROFILE RESULT SHEET OF DHULIA DISTRICT

Profile No.	Ex. Bases. m. e. per cent			Total bases	CaCo 3 per cent	Sticky point moisture per cent	Humus	Org. Carbon per-cent	Av. P_2O_5 mgm. per-cent	Nitrogen per-cent	C/N.	A.K_2O mgm. per-cent.
	Ca. m.e. per cent	Mg. m.e. per cent	Na. K. per cent									
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
0-117.8	35.00	14.50	1.00	50.50	3.6	18.0	0.4015	....	33.32	0.070	..	24.0
117.8-284.8	38.50	16.00	2.00	56.50	3.4	19.0	0.2485					
0-228.6 mm.	36.00	18.50	1.00	55.50	3.8	20.0	0.2772	0.351	13.56	0.042	8.6	Tr.
228.6-381.0 mm.	38.00	14.50	2.50	45.00	3.4	17.0	0.2294					
0-228.6 mm.	36.00	4.00	2.50	42.50	3.0	20.0	0.3537	0.039	2.68	0.057	6.8	Tr.
228.6-533.4 mm.	35.00	6.00	1.00	42.00	1.0	18.0	0.1388					
533.4-787.4	28.00	7.50	2.00	37.00	18.0	17.0	0.066					
0-228·6	35.00	20.00	0.50	63.00	3.6	18.0	0.2390	0.351	5.98	0.052	6.8	19.73
0-279.4 mm.	49.00	16.50	2.00	67.50	3.8	16.0	0.2007					
279.4-673.1 mm.	49.00	21.50	1.00	71.50	3.5	19.0	0.0816					
673.1-1041.4	49.50	19.50	1.00	....	13.0	17.0	0.1529					
0— 228.6	47.00	10.00	2.00	59.00	3.0	18.0	0.086	0.351	Tr.	0.036	9.8	37.03
0—203.2	47.50	9.50	2.50	59.50	3.2	19.0	0.065					
203.2-533.4	47.00	9.00	2.50	59.00	3.6	16.0	0.6309					
533.4-762.0	75.50	9.00	2.50	56.50	3.2	18.0	0.439					
762.0-965.2	42.50	13.50	1.50	57.50	3.2	19.0	0.3341					
965.2-1270.0	27.00	11.50	1.50	40.00	4.2	17.0	0.2868					
0.228.6	47.00	12.00	1.00	60.00	2.8	17.0	0.096	0.576	19.72	0.043	8.7	37.55
0-330.2	34.00	13.50	0.50	48.00	3.0	17.0	0.2581					
330.2-635.0	39.00	11.50	1.00	51.50	3.8	19.0	0.2103					
635.0-990.6	39.50	9.50	0.50	49.50	3.6	20.0	0.1720					
990.6-1600.2	33.00	10.00	0.50	44.50	3.2	19.0	0.1338					
1600.2-1727.2	33.50	11.00	1.00	45.50	....	18.0	0.1816					

TABLE No. 4

PROFILE EXAMINATION—NANDURBAR

Locality S. No.:—187
Profile No. :—1

Relief :—Sloping
Slope :—1 to 3 per cent.
Erosion :—Severe.
Surface Condition :— Full of lime nodules and Murum exposed.

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N.A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul.
Land-use :—Fallow after jowar.
General Remark :—Profile is on ridge.

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moistureness, etc.	Sample depth	Remarks
I	177·8 mm.(7″)	Light brown	Loam	Sub-angular blocky	Dry and loose	Full of lime nodules	0-177·8 mm. (0″-7″)	
II	76·2 mm. (3″)	Brown	Clay loam	Blocky	Moist and friable	Do.	177·8-254·0 mm. (7″-10″)	254·0 mm. Below (10″) is Murum.

TABLE No. 5

PROFILE EXAMINATION—NANDURBAR

Locality S. No. :—189
Profile No. :—2

Relief :—Sloping
Slope :—1 to 3 per cent.
Erosion :—Moderate.
Surface Condition :—Murum exposed.

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N.A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul
Land-use :—Fallow after Groundnut mixed with Tur.
General Remark :—

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moistureness, etc.	Sample depth	Remarks
I	215·9 mm.(8½″)	Brown	Clay loam	Sub-angular blocky	Dry and loose	Few lime nodules	0-215·9 mm. (0″-8½″)	
II	165·1 mm.(6½″)	Dark brown	Clay loam	Sub-angular blocky	Moist and friable.	Moderate cracks	215·9-381·0 mm. (8½″15″)	381·0 mm. Below (15″) Murum.

TABLE No. 6

PROFILE EXAMINATION—DHULIA

Locality S. No. :—302
Profile No. :—3

Relief :—Sloping
Slope :—1 to 3 per cent
Erosion :—Moderate.
Surface Condition: —Few lime nodules.

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N.A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul.
Land-use :—Groundnut harvested.
General Remark :—

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moistureness, etc.	Sample	Remarks
I	228·6 mm. (9″)	Yellowish brown	Loam	Granular	Dry and loose	Few lime nodules mixed with small stones.	0-228·6 mm. (0″-9″)	
II	558·8 mm.(22″)	Do.	Do.	Indefinite	Moist and friable.	Few lime nodules.	228·6-533·4 mm. (9″-21″) 533·4-787·4 mm. (21″-31″)	

TABLE No 7

PROFILE EXAMINATION—NAWAPUR

Locality S. No :—
Profile No. :—4

Relief :—Sloping
Slope :—1 to 3 per cent
Erosion :—Moderate
Surface Condition :—No Stones.

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N.A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul.
Land-use :—
General Remarks :—

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moistureness, etc.	Sample depth	Remarks
I	279·4 mm. (11″)	Very dark gray brown.	Clay loam	Sub-angular blocky	Dry and loose	Full of lime nodules, Moderate cracking roots are seen throughout the profile.	0-279·4 mm. 0″-11″	
II	774·7 mm. (30½″)	Do	Do.	Do.	Most and sticky	Do.	279·4-660·4 mm. (11″-26″) 660·4-1054·1 mm. (26″-41½″).	

TABLE No. 8

PROFILE EXAMINATION—SINDKHEDA

Locality S. No. :—590
Profile No. :—5

Relief :—Sloping
Slope :—0·5 to 1 per cent
Erosion :—Slight

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N. A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul.
Land-use :—
General Remark :—

Surface Condition :—Lime nodules and small stones

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, Moistureness, etc.	Sample depth	Remarks
I	203·2 mm. (8″)	Dark gray brown	Clay loam	Sub-angular blocky	Dry and hard	Few lime nodules	0-203·2 mm. (0″-8″)	
II	330·2 mm. (13″)	Dark brown	Clayey	Blocky	Moist and sticky.	Do.	203·2-533·4 mm. (8″-21″)	
III	431·8 mm. (17″) 203·2 mm. (8″)	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	533·4-762·0 mm.(21″-30″) (30″-38″) 762·0-965·2 mm.	
IV	304·8 mm. (12″)	Dark Yellowish brown	Sandy clay	Structureless	Moist and friable	Do.	965·2-1270·0 mm. (38″-50″)	

TABLE No. 9

PROFILE EXAMINATION—TALODA.

Locality S. No. :—37/2
Profile No. :—6

Relief :—Sloping.
Slope :—0·5 to 1 per cent.
Erosion :—Slight.

Drainage :—Well drained.
Sub-soil water table :—N. A.
Vegetation :—Nim, Babul
Land-use :—*Rabi* jowar harvested.
General Remark :—

Surface Condition : Full of lime nodules.

Horizon	Thickness	Colour	Texture	Structure	Consistency	Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moistureness, etc.	Sample depth	Remarks
I	635·0 mm. (25″)	Very dark brown	Clay loam	Blocky	Moist and friable	Sand particles and full of lime nodules	0-330·2 mm. (0″-13″) (13″-25″)	330·2-635·0 mm. 1727·2 mm.
II	355·6 mm. (14″)	Dark brown	Sandy clay	Sub-angular blocky	Do.	Do.	635·0-990·6 mm. (25″-39″)	Below (68″) same layer continued.
III	609·6 mm. (24″)	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	990·6-1600·2 mm. (39″-63″)	
IV	127·0 mm. (5″)	Dark yellowish brown	Sandy loam.	Structureless.	Do.	Do.	1600·2-1727·2 mm. (63″-68″)	

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILIZATION.

Of the important heads in the land utilisation of the district, agriculture and forest account for the most. The Satpuda hills in the north, the Satmala hills in the south and the central plain, are the main features of the land utilisation. The north and south of the district thus favoured the growth of forests while the central part encouraged cultivation. The proportion of net area sown to the geographical area, however varies considerably from about 8 per cent. in Akrani taluka to about 76 per cent. in Sindkheda taluka. The talukas of Akrani, Shirpur, Taloda and Sakri have large areas of forests and barren lands. The low proportions of the area sown in the district are due to the larger areas being forest and barren lands. The forest area makes about 33 per cent. of the total geographical area of the district and is the third highest in the State. The net area sown in the district is about 45 per cent. of the geographical area against the average of about 58 per cent for the State. The following table gives taluka-wise land utilisation in the district. in 1952-53, 1956-57 and 1961-62 :—

TABLE No. 10.

LAND UTILISATION (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

(Area in Hectares and figures in brackets in Acres)

Taluka	Year	Geographical area	Forests	Barren and unculturable land	Land put to non-agricultural uses	Culturable waste	Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Dhulia ..	1952-53 ..	1,98,843.680 (4,91,353)	59,370.269 1,46,707)	....	160.256 (396)	8,110.717 (20,042)	4,431.312 (10,950)	173.205 (428)
	1956-57 ..	1,98,825.065 (4,91,307)	44,670.455 (1,10,383)	16,838.175 (41,608)	2,184.090 (5,397)	8,488.694 (20,976)	4,431.312 (10,950)	173.205 (428)
	1961-62 ..	1,98,825.065 (4,91,307)	44,670.455 (1,10,383)	16,838.175 (41,608)	2,184.090 (5,397)	3,441.854 (8,505)	4,431.312 (10,950)	210.032 (519)
Sindkheda ..	1952-53 ..	1,30,615.644 (3,22,758)	6,283.560 (15,527)	2,591.609 (6,404)	61.512 (152)	3,955.806 (9,775)	2,933.569 (7,249)	53.419 (132)
	1956-57 ..	1,30,615.239 (3,22,757)	6,198.575 (15,317)	12,445.309 (30,753)	86.198 (213)	456.081 (1,127)	2,933.569 (7,249)	53.419 (132)
	1961-62 ..	1,30,614.430 (3,22,755)	6,198.171 (15,316)	12,381.368 (30,595)	91.054 (225)	4,899.938 (12,108)	9,252.741 (22,864)	218.530 (540)
Shirpur ..	1952-53 ..	1,54,528.135 (3,81,847)	90,464.722 (2,23,543)	....	43.766 (108)	1,653.142 (4,085)	8,654.615 (21,386)	14.569 (36)
	1956-57 ..	1,54,528.135 (3,81,847)	90,186.299 (2,22,855)	3,531.695 (8,727)	3,641.365 (8,998)	1,890.693 (4,672)	1,239.553 (3,063)	....
	1961-62 ..	1,54,967.219 (3,82,932)	90,186.299 (2,22,855)	3,531.695 (8,727)	3,641.365 (8,998)	758.786 (1,875)	1,239.553 (3,063)	....

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILIZATION.

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

LAND UTILISATION (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

(Area in Hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Geographical area	Forests	Barren and unculturable land	Land put to non-agricultural uses	Culturable waste	Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Sakri ..	1952-53 ..	2,44,124.401 (6,03,244)	84,779.289 (2,09,494)	....	20.639 (51)	9,086.819 (22,454)	28,918.052 (71,458)	....
	1956-57 ..	2,44,125.615 (6,03,247)	83,088.915 (2,05,317)	....	5,048.458 (12,475)	10,432.805 (25,780)	23,585.909 (58,282)	....
	1961-62 ..	2,44,113.475 (6,03,217)	83,088.915 (2,05,317)	....	5,048.458 (12,475)	5,889.395 (14,553)	22,985.760 (56,799)	....
Nandurbar ..	1952-53 ..	1,38,810.131 (3,43,007)	23,386.399 (57,789)	445.964 (1,102)	40.873 (101)	2,500.150 (6,178)	17,593.724 (43,475)	104.004 (257)
	1956-57 ..	1,38,810.131 (3,43,007)	23,441.841 (57,926)	8,058.917 (19,914)	44.515 (110)	985.815 (2,436)	7,830.269 (19,349)	66.773 (165)
	1961-62 ..	1,06,534.399 (2,63,252)	11,467.992 (28,338)	7,459.172 (18,432)	1,756.742 (4,341)	4,485.540 (11,084)	6,287.202 (14,536)	66.368 (164)
Nawapur ..	1952-53 ..	1,18,166.289 (2,91,995)	34,900.930 (86,242)	....	50.586 (125)	2,677.403 (6,616)	6,135.849 (15,162)	3,087.754 (7,630)
	1956-57 ..	1,18,161.837 (2,91,984)	34,870.174 (86,166)	2,990.630 (7,390)	304.324 (752)	2,132.695 (5,270)	6,135.849 (15,162)	19.425 (48)
	1961-62 ..	93,949.878 (2,32,155)	23,761.138 (58,715)	2,779.383 (6,868)	304.324 (752)	1,099.532 (2,717)	6,135.849 (15,162)	12.950 (32)
Shahada ..	1952-53 ..	1,24,398.858 (3,07,396)	33,752.431 (83,404)	7,593.528 (18,764)	20.639 (51)	4,362.110 (10,779)	....	285.708 (706)
	1956-57 ..	1,24,596.749 (3,07,885)	29,451.024 (72,775)	7,802.751 (19,281)	207.923 (69)	5,508.181 (13,611)	3,933.548 (9,720)	....
	1961-62 ..	1,24,817.708 (3,08,431)	30,330.002 (74,947)	4,959.427 (12,255)	39.659 (98)	1,779.404 (4,397)	3,933.548 (9,720)	....
Taloda ..	1952-53 ..	66,613·744 (1,64,606)	25,807.231 (63,771)	....	9.712 (24)	425.325 (1,051)	2.19.375 (5,415)	....
	1956-57 ..	66,415.852 (1,64,117)	24,933·919 (61,613)	1,851.843 (4,576)	7.284 (18)	1,528.904 (3,778)	714.271 (1,765)	66.368 (164)
	1961-62 ..	52,567·093 (1,29,896)	25,334·962 (62,604)	1076.465 (2,660)	529.329 (1,308)	314.845 (778)	547.135 (1,352)	128.690 (318)
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53 ..	1,94,817.864 (4,81,405)	16,575.534 (40,959)	1,48,044.661 (3,65,826)	2,117.722 (5,233)	578.701 (1,430)	....	....
	1956-57 ..	1,94,740.569 (4,81,214)	16,494.192 (40,758)	1,47,075.438 (3,63,431)	....	593.270 (1,466)	....	....
	1961-62 ..	82,844.485 (2,04,713)	16,498.239 (40,768)	20,813.406 (51,431)	231.480 (572)	13,995.661 (34,584)	11,020.409 (27,232)	....
Akrani	1952-53 ..	2,39,767.147 (5,92,477)	2,14,723.154 (5,30,592)	....	27.519 (68)	10,667.118 (26,359)	....	....
	1956-57 ..	2,39,767.147 (5,92,477)	2,09,398.700 (5,17,435)	7,799.918 (19,274)	....	1,800.853 (4,450)	....	....
	1961-62 ..	2,39,767.147 (5,92,477)	2,08,511.224 (5,15,242)	7,207.862 (17,811)	....	813.824 (2,011)	1,042.471 (2,576)	....
District Total	1952-53 ..	16,10,685.892 (39,80,088)	5,90,043.519 (14,58,028)	1,58,675.762 (3,92,096)	2,553.164 (6,309)	44,017.292 (1,08,769)	70,858.495 (1,75,095)	37,184.660 (9 189)
	1956-57 ..	16,10,586.340 (39,79,842)	5,62,734.094 (13,90,545)	2,08,394.674 (5,14,954)	11,344.158 (28,032)	33,817.990 (83,566)	50,804.280 (1,25,540)	379.191 (937)
	1961-62 ..	14,29,000.899 (35,31,135)	5,40,047.397 (13,34,485)	77,046.953 (1,90,387)	13,826.502 (34,166)	37,478.780 (92,612)	66,875.980 (1,65,254)	636.571 (1,573)

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

LAND UTILISATION (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

Taluka	Year	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Total cropped area	Total uncultivated area
1	2	10	11	12	13	14	15
Dhulia	.. 1952-53 ..	6,721.834 (16,610)	6,003.517 (14,835)	1,13,872.570 (2,81,385)	10,512.124 (25,976)	1,24,384.694 (3,07,361)	84,971.110 (2,09,968)
	1956-57 ..	153.781 (380)	5,874.422 (14,516)	1,16,010.931 (2,86,669)	15,670.251 (38,722)	1,31,681.182 (3,25,391)	82,814.134 (2,04,638)
	1961-62 ..	1,698.467 (4,197)	5,435.742 (13,432)	1,19,914.937 (2,96,316)	11,638.769 (28,760)	1,31,553.706 (3,25,076)	78,910 (1,94,991)
Sindkheda	.. 1952-53 ..	15,840.624 (39,143)	2,475.060 (6,116)	96,420.486 (2,38,260)	4,016.104 (9,924)	1,00,436.540 (2,18,184)	34,195.158 (84,498)
	1956-57 ..	12,342.114 (30,498)	1,607.413 (3,972)	94,492.562 (2,33,496)	15,830.102 (39,117)	1,10,322.664 (2,72,613)	36,122.677 (89 261)
	1961-62 ..	....	1,724.367 (4,261)	95,848.260 (2,36,846)	20,724.375 (51,211)	1,16,572.635 (2,88,057)	34,766.170 (85,909)
Shirpur	.. 1952-53 ..	....	2,618.723 (6,471)	51,078.658 (1,26,218)	3,021.386 (7,466)	54,100.043 (1,33,684)	1,03,449.477 (2,55,629)
	1956-57 ..	1,307.540 (3,231)	516.379 (1,276)	52,214.611 (1,29,025)	10,883.625 (26,894)	63,098.236 (1,55,919)	1,02,313.524 (2,52,822)
	1961-62 ..	....	1,578.275 (3,900)	54,031.247 (1,33,514)	11,952.806 (29,536)	65,984.052 (1,63,050)	1,00,935.973 (2,49,418)
Sakri	.. 1952-53 ..	107.241 (265)	10,179.472 (25,154)	1,11,032.388 (2,74,368)	18,396.216 (45,458)	1,29,429.105 (3,19,826)	1,33,091.513 (3,28,876)
	1956-57 ..	6,205.050 (15,333)	35.208 (87)	1,15,729.269 (2,85,973)	25,727.508 (63,574)	1,41,456.777 (3,49,547)	1,28,396.346 (3,17,274)
	1961-62 ..	45.730 (113)	3,652.291 (9,025)	1,23,402.925 (3,04,935)	16,067.248 (39,703)	1,39,470.174 (3,44,638)	1,20,710.549 (2,98,282)
Nandurbar	.. 1952-53 ..	19.425 (48)	1,994.293 (4,928)	92,725.298 (2,29,129)	6,465.668 (15,977)	99,190.967 (2,45,106)	46,084.832 (1,13,878)
	1956-57 ..	1,326.765 (3,279)	1,256.550 (3,105)	95,798.484 (2,36,723)	8,037.064 (19,860)	1,03,835.548 (2,56,583)	43,011.647 (1,06,284)
	1961-62 ..	....	852.673 (2,107)	74,158.709 (1,83,250)	14 559.793 (35,978)	88,718.502 (2,19,228)	32,375.689 (80,002)
Nawapur	.. 1952-53 ..	1,064.729 (2,631)	3,181.641 (7,862)	67,067.39[illegible] (1,65,727)	3,155.741 (7,798)	70,223.138 (1,73,525)	51,098.892 (1,26,268)
	1956-57 ..	128.285 (317)	2,491.652 (6,157)	69,088.803 (1,70,722)	3,300.619 (8,156)	72,389.422 (1,78,878)	49,073.034 (1,21,262)
	1961-62 ..	198.701 (491)	996.742 (2,463)	58,661.259 (1,44,955)	3,827.520 (9,458)	62,488.779 (1,54,413)	35,288.619 (87,200)
Shahada	.. 1952-53 ..	1,587.583 (3,923)	129.499 (320)	76,667.358 (1,89,449)	7,075.530 (17,484)	83,742.888 (2,06,933)	47,731.533 (1,17,947)
	1956-57 ..	579.915 (1,433)	674.207 (1,666)	76,619.200 (1,89,330)	10,571.208 (26,122)	87,190.408 (2,15,452)	47,977.549 (1,18,555)
	1961-62 ..	....	1,908.499 (4,716)	81,867.168 (2,02,298)	8,946.798 (22,108)	90,813.967 (2,24,406)	42,950.539 (1,06,133)
Taloda	.. 1952-53 ..	186.156 (460)	1,197.466 (2,959)	36,796.479 (90,926)	473.887 (1,171)	37,270.367 (92,097)	29,817.264 (73,630)
	1956-57 ..	2,025.858 (5,006)	272.353 (673)	35,015.051 (86,524)	3,265.816 (8,070)	38,280.867 (94,594)	31,400.831 (77,593)
	1961-62 ..	....	911.758 (2,253)	23,723.907 (58,623)	1,628.861 (4,025)	25,352.769 (62,648)	28,843.185 (71,273)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILIZATION.

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

LAND UTILIZATION (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

Taluka	Year	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area shown more than once	Total cropped area	Total uncultivated area
1	2	10	11	12	13	14	15
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53 ..	....	891.119 (2,202)	26,610.128 (65,755)	356.123 (880)	26,966.252 (66,635)	1,68,207.736 (4,15,650)
	1956-57 ..	....	2,950.161 (7,290)	27,627.509 (68,269)	643.451 (1,590)	28,270.959 (69,859)	1,67,113.060 (4,12,945)
	1961-62 ..	108.860 (269)	452.034 (1,117)	19,724.396 (48,740)	852.269 (2,106)	20,576.664 (50,846)	63,120.089 (1,55,973)
Akrani ..	1952-53 ..	1,680.661 (4,153)	908.925 (2,246)	11,759.970 (29,059)	1,479.532 (3,656)	13,239.302 (32,715)	2,28,007.377 (5,63,418)
	1956-57 ..	1,086.582 (2,685)	....	19,681.094 (48,633)	34.803 (86)	19,715.897 (48,719)	2,20,086.053 (5,43,844)
	1961-62 ..	1,490.863 (3,684)	698.488 (1,726)	20,002.415 (49,427)	441.108 (1,090)	20,443.523 (50,517)	2,19,764.732 (5,43,050)
District Total ..	1952-53 ..	27,208.254 (67,233)	29,579.714 (73,093)	6,84,031.055 (16,90,276)	54,952.312 (1,35,790)	7,38,983.345 (18,26,066)	9,26,654.859 (22,89,812)
	1956-57 ..	25,156.091 (62,162)	15,678.345 (38,742)	7,02,277.516 (17,35,364)	93,964.447 (2,32,191)	7,96,241.963 (19,67,555)	9,08,308.824 (22,44,478)
	1961-62 ..	3,542.621 (8,754)	18,210.870 (45,000)	6,71,335.224 (16,58,904)	90,639.547 (2,23,975)	7,61,974.771 (18,82,879)	7,57,665.674 (18,72,231)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FORESTS.

Khandesh, prior to its division into west and east Khandesh, was one of the largest forest district in the erstwhile presidency of Bombay. The forest reserves then covered an area over 6024·340 km.^{2} (2326 square miles) or 22·3 per cent. of the entire area of the district. Of the area which was under forest, 4175·080 km^2 (1612 square miles) were declared to be reserved forests and 1849·260 km^2 (714 square miles) as protected forests under Chapters II and IV of the Forest Act (VII of 1878). Arrangements were also made for increasing the area under conservation by transferring to the Forest department some of the waste lands. Schemes like demarcation, settlement etc., were also introduced. However, the absence of conservancy rules in the past and the destructive habits of the forest tribes like Bhils, Gavits etc., have robbed the forests of most of their valuable timber.

Later on the administrative changes that took place during the period from 1869 to 1961 formed the present Dhulia district having nine talukas and one mahal. This district now comprises two forest divisions *viz.* North Dhulia division and West Dhulia division provided with necessary technical and ministerial staff. The forests in the district now cover an area of 3962·625 km^2 (1564·72 square miles of which 3664·125 km^2 (1414·72 square miles) are in the charge of Forest department and 318·570 km^2 (123·00 square miles) in the charge of the Revenue department. The forest area makes 32·26 per cent of the total geographical area as against 17·56 per cent for Maharashtra.

The forests are mainly situated on the sloping hills of Satpuda and Satmala ranges and also on the plateaus in Shahada, Shirpur, Akkalkuwa, Nawapur, Nandurbar, Sakri, Taluda and Akrani talukas. They are of mixed deciduous type and consist of commercially valuable species like teak, *khair, palas, sadada, shisam, tiwas haldu, kalam, ain, biya, dhavada, shaman, sala, bor, hiver, anjan, tendu* and *apta* leaves, *mohwa* flower and fruit. Besides, the *rosha* grass which is found in large areas of Akrani taluka is used for producing scented oil. The forest produce from the forests is valued at about Rs. 20·5 lakhs annually. There is thus a considerable increase in the forest revenue over that of the whole of the former Khandesh district in 1903-1904.

At present a number of schemes such as plantation of valuable trees, afforestation for soil conservation, development of forest pastures, bamboo and agave plantation and establishment of fodder bank etc., have been taken up to regulate the exploitation of the forests and to make it a good source of income and also to complement the agricultural industry in as much as afforestation helps keep up rainfall and, in consequence, proves to be conducive to good growth of crops.

Culturable waste, fallows, barren and unculturable land and permanent pastures and other grazing lands are the other important heads in the land utilisation. They together covered an area of 11253·508 hectares (27808 acres) in 1961-62.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CROPPED AREA.

The food and non-food crops mainly constitute the total cropped area. They accounted for 761974·711 hectares* (18,82,879 acres) in 1961-62. In the same year the total uncultivated area was 757665·674 hectares (18,72,231 acres). This means that about 50 per cent of the total geographical area of the district remained uncultivated. The corresponding figures for the year 1952-53 were 738983·345 hectares* (18,26,066 acres) and 926654·859 hectares* (22,89,812 acres). The proportions of areas under important food and non-food crops for the district and each of its talukas are shown below compared with the corresponding figures for Maharashtra. All the figures are averages for the three years from 1957-58 to 1959-60.

The important crops grown in the district, include jowar, bajri, wheat, groundnut, cotton, gram, mug etc. Of the two categories *viz.*, food and non-food crops, food crops account for 70·8 per cent as against 69·88 per cent. for the whole of the State of Maharashtra. Among the food crops jowar occupies the highest percentage *viz.*, 23·61 of the gross cropped area in the district. Jowar is followed by bajri, pulses, wheat, rice in the order of priority. A very small acreage accounts for the cultivation of condiments and spices and fruits and vegetables.

The importance of the various crops in the agricultural pattern of the district, the area covered by them, their methods of cultivation, the rainfall required by them and such other details are given in the following account. Information about the pests and diseases of the respective crops produced in the district is given separately.

* These figures include areas sown more than once.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

CROPPED AREA.

TABLE No. 11

PERCENTAGE OF GROSS CROPPED AREA IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Details of cropped area	Maharashtra	Dhulia District	Akrani Taluka	Akkalkuwa Taluka	Taloda Taluka	Shahada Taluka	Nandurbar Taluka	Shirpur Taluka	Sindkhed Taluka	Nawapur Taluka	Sakri Taluka	Dhulia Taluka
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Gross cropped area ..	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00
Total area under food crops ..	69·88	70·80	96·75	74·65	80·66	68·99	77·56	57·38	61·52	74·89	77·95	64·39
Area under cereals ..	52·97	56·11	83·66	66·94	65·56	50·88	56·30	44·41	48·07	60·88	61·60	55·23
Rice ..	6·67	4·10	3·73	18·83	5·94	1·39	2·77	0·44	0·12	21·68	3·40	0·37
Wheat ..	4·68	5·36	0·20	3·62	13·48	11·64	8·90	3·66	4·68	1·34	2·94	3·21
Jowar ..	30·95	23·61	37·02	28·45	41·47	34·05	29·52	28·44	22·08	19·22	10·38	18·86
Bajri ..	9·42	17·59	15·19	0·47	0·23	3·42	12·07	11·60	21·11	0·26	33·73	32·68
Other cereals ..	1·25	5·45	27·52	15·27	4·44	0·38	3·04	0·27	0·08	18·38	11·15	0·11
Area under pulses ..	10·69	12·68	12·41	7·40	2·15	14·57	17·03	12·48	11·19	13·68	14·82	7·76
Sugarcane • ..	0·63	0·24	0·07	..	0·20	0·33	0·08	..	0·03	..	0·74	0·27
Other food crops ..	5·59	1·77	0·61	0·31	2·75	3·21	4·15	0·49	2·23	0·33	0·79	1·13
Area under non-food crops ..	30·12	29·20	3·25	25·35	19·34	31·01	22·44	42·62	38·48	25·11	22·05	35·61
Area under oilseeds ..	8·18	19·19	2·44	7·50	14·46	19·57	19·25	19·25	26·52	4·90	19·44	26·11
Groundnut ..	6·11	17·48	1·08	2·69	13·56	18·16	18·62	15·17	24·19	3·36	17·66	25·29
Other oilseeds ..	2·07	1·71	1·36	4·81	0·90	1·41	0·63	4·08	2·33	1·54	1·78	0·82
Cotton ..	13·62	9·41	..	17·33	4·25	10·96	2·64	23·10	11·82	16·75	2·44	9·30
Tobacco ..	0·12	*Nil.*	0·13	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other non-food crops including fodder crops ..	8·20	0·60	0·68	0·52	0·63	0·48	0·55	0·27	0·14	3·46	0·17	0·20

* *District Census Handbook, Dhulia, 1961 p. 34.*

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size of Holdings.

Following is a brief description of the system of land holding prevalent in Khandesh district of which Dhulia district formed part :—

"In dry-crop land, from two to four or five hundred acres is a large, from seventy-five to one hundred and fifty a middle sized, and from ten to twenty-five a small holding. In garden lands, from twenty to forty acres is a large, from ten to twenty a middle sized, and less than ten a small holding. In 1878-79, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 142,034 with an average area of twenty-three acres. Of the whole number, 12,995 were holdings of not more than five acres; 21,824 of from five to ten acres; 40,224 from ten to twenty; 37,765 from twenty to fifty; 9602 from fifty to one hundred; 1484 from one hundred to two hundred; 119 from two hundred to five hundred; twelve from five hundred to one thousand; five from one thousand to two thousand; and four above two thousand. The largest holdings are in Virdel."[1]

The description goes to show that major portion of the cultivated land in the district was owned by the big landlords. Inspite of the uneven distribution of land there was no suggestion of an uneconomic holding. The problem of uneconomic holding is a present day problem which is the resultant of a variety of factors such as increasing pressure of population on land, the traditional laws of inheritance and succession etc. This could be judged from the fall in the average sizes of holdings in about 1900 which was 9·308 hectares (23 acres) to 5·261 hectares (13 acres) in the year 1961.

The table No. 12 gives taluka-wise quinquennial statement of holdings in government rayatwari area in the district.

The uneconomic size of agricultural holdings considerably affected the productivity of land. Efforts were made to regroup agricultural holdings and bring them to the size of an economic unit by the passage of various Acts such as the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1962, and the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

Ceiling on Holdings.

The Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act came in force from 26th January 1962. Four talukas of Shahada, Dhulia, Nandurbar and Akrani have been notified in the district with different ceiling areas for dry crop land, *viz.*, 31·566 hectares (78 acres), 33·994 hectares (84 acres), 46·134 hectares (114 acres) and 38·850 hectares (96 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· 10·927 hectares (27 acres) in areas irrigated in two seasons, and 19·425 hectares (48 acres) in areas which get irrigation water for one season. Holders of land in excess of the ceiling areas are not now free to transfer or partition their possession until the land in

[1] *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. XII, Khandesh, 1880, pp. 136-37.

excess of the ceiling is determined under the Act. Under the Act they were required to furnish returns of their holdings to the Collector, who after enquiries determined the surplus lands and took them over in possession. Those lands shall afterwards vest in the State Government. The Act also provides for payment of compensation to the holders at specified rates and for distribution of surplus lands to landless or other persons in the prescribed order of priority.

CHAPTER 4

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size of Holdings.

Ceiling on Holdings.

The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

The provisions of the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, were applied to the district in 1948. The provisions prohibit any type of fragment and at the same time they aim at the consolidation of fragmented holdings, which implies an exchange or redistribution of land. The enactment further provides a definite procedure to implement the provisions in a manner that will ensure the persons concerned a fair deal.

Accordingly the land has been classified as dry crop land, *bagayat* land and rice land and the standard areas for these three categories have been specified as minimum necessary for profitable cultivation under the Act. The range of the standard area in the district varies between 20 *gunthas* and an acre at different places on the basis of classification of land. The implementation of the Act is thus mainly based on the determination of the standard area which takes into account the economic size of the plot and not of a holding which may be composed of several plots. Such plots pool into an economic unit of cultivation. The standard areas which may vary in accordance with the productivity of soil and the cost of cultivation are as follows :—

(*a*) Dry crop land	..	1·0 acre.
(*b*) *Bagayat* land	..	0·20 acre.
(*c*) Rice land	..	0·20 acre.

All plots of land less in area than the standard area are treated as fragments and their transfer except to holders of contiguous plots is prohibited.

For the speedy implementation of the scheme the district is divided into two divisions, *viz.*, Dhulia and Nandurbar. The Dhulia division comprises Dhulia, Sakri and Shirpur talukas while the Nandurbar division includes Nandurbar, Nawapur, Sindkheda, Shahada, Taloda, Akkalkuwa and Akrani talukas. The Consolidation Officers in charge of Dhulia and Nandurbar divisions are assisted by three and seven Assistant Consolidation Officers respectively. The details about the achievements made under the scheme upto 31st March 1967 are given in table No. 13.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size of Holdings.

TABLE

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT

Magnitude Group	Class	Dhulia			Shirpur		
		No. of persons	Area in Hectares		No. of persons	Area in Hectares	
			Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam
Up to 5 acres	A	....	....	....	2,354	6,145·157 (15,185)	..
	B	....	....	....	751	1,027·902 (2,540)	..
	C	7,765	9,138·619 (22,582)	....	450	758·786 (1,875)	..
5 to 15 acres	A	....	....	....	2,059	9,935·446 (24,551)	..
	B	....	....	....	729	3,496·082 (8,639)	..
	C	7,280	19,430·593 (48,014)	....	658	3,464·112 (8,560)	..
15 to 25 acres	A	....	....	....	1,159	6,065·838 (14,989)	..
	B	....	....	....	907	2,074·420 (5,126)	..
	C	9,664	68,009·101 (1,68,054)	....	551	32,073·100 (8,088)	..
25 to 100 acres	A	....	....	....	735	5,575·764 (13,778)	..
	B	....	....	....	729	1,183·706 (2,925)	..
	C	288	6,814·103 (16,838)	....	568	1,110·458 (2,744)	..
100 to 500 acres	A	....	....	....	....	....	..
	B	....	....	....	....	....	..
	C	....	....	....	....	....	..
500 acres and above	A	....	....	....	....	....	..
	B	....	....	....	....	....	..
	C	....	....	....	....	....	..

Magnitde Group	Clasus	Taloda			Akkalkuwa		
		No. of persons	Area in Hectares		No. of persons	Area in Hectares	
			Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam
1 to 5 acres	A	..	....	..	3,148	2,993·462 (7,397)	..
	B	..	....	..	..	....	..
	C	935	11,65·900 (2,881)	..	..	....	..
5 to 15 acres	A	..	....	..	5,013	15,351·357 (37,934)	..
	B	..	....	..	..	....	..
	C	1,492	6,310·673 (15,594)	..	..	....	..
15 to 25 acres	A	..	....	..	1,366	9,770·739 (24,144)	
	B	..	....	..	..	....	..
	C	564	3,823·473 (9,448)	..	..	....	..
25 to 100 acres	A	..	....	..	213	3,320·853 (8,206)	
	B	..	....	..	..	....	..
	C	196	2,312·780 (5,715)	..	..	....	..
100 to 500 acres	A	..	....	..	..	....	..
	B	..	....	..	..	....	..
	C	2	233·099 (576)	..	..	....	..

Figures in brackets indicate area in acres. Information for Sakri taluka is not available.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size of Holdings.

No. 12

RAYATWARI AREA IN DHULIA DISTRICT (TALUKA-WISE)

Nandurbar			Nawapur			Shahada		
No. of persons	Area in Hectare		No. of persons	Area in Hectares		No. of persons	Area in Hectares	
	Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam
....	....	....	..	....	..	18,232	82,374·240 (2,03,551)	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
3,090	4,827·094 (11,928)	116·145 (287)	.. 530	878·978 (2,172)	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	5,151	6,125·732 (15,137)	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
6,226	11,256·341 (27,815)	282·875 (699)	2,252	16,471·334 (15,991)	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	5,041	13,841·457 (34,203)	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
2,825	17,535.044 (43,330)	426·134 (1,053)	6,197	47,711·670 (1,17,898)	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	8,040	62,406·628 (1,54,210)	..
1,245	12,811·549 (31,658)	433·418 (1,071)	135	4,162·195 (10,285)	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
....	....	.....	..	....	..	..	....	..
35	3,692·760 (9,125)	57·870 (143)	..	....	..	..	....	..
....	....	....	..	....	..	..	....	..
1	230·671 (570)	....	..	....	..	..	....	..

Akrani			Sindkheda		
No. of persons	Area in Hectares		No. of persons	Area in Hectares	
	Kha sa	Inam		Khalsa	Inam
....	....	....	930	1,881·790 (4,650)	229·052 (566)
....	....	....	300	607·029 (1,500)	95·101 (235
195	5,054.933 (12,491)	....	....	....	....
.....	7,188·033 (17,762)	36·421 (90)	1,626	7,896·233 (19,512)	75·271 (186)
....	....	....	500	3,035·145 (7,500)	206·390 (510)
1,683	....	....	97	510·309 (1,261)	....
....	6,518·277 (16,107)	30·351 (75)	2,536	20,525·674 (50,720)	....
.....			1,356	9,900·238 (24,464)	....
692			721	4,376·679 (10,815)	....
....	....	....	117	1,893·930 (4,680)	....
....	....	....	139	2,250·054 (5,560)	....
194	2,274·740 (5,621)	24·281 (60)	33	534·185 (1,320)	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	7	291·778 (721)	....
....	....	....	4	195·868 (484)	....

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size of Holdings.

TABLE No. 13

PROGRESS OF CONSOLIDATION WORK IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1967

Taluka	Year in which consolidation work was taken up	Number of villages where work is completed and the area				Number of villages where the work is in progress and the area			
		Non-plan*		Plan		Non-Plan		Plan	
		No. of villages	Area	No. of villages	Area	No. of villages	Area	No. of villages	Area
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
			Hectares		Hectares		Hectares		Hectares
Dhulia ..	3rd November 1948 ..	149	2,01,164.150 (4,97,087)	..	....	2	6,993.379 (17,281)	..	....
Sindkheda ..	1st July 1954 ..	110	84,132.196 (2,07,895)	..	....	19	22,383.992 (55,312)	..	....
Sakri ..	4th February 1960 ..	67	64,234.190 (1,58,726)	6	3,154.122 (7,794)	9	17,002.073 (42,013)	19	17,049.421 (42,130)
Shahada ..	22nd November 1962 ..	50	25,953.322 (64,132)	..	....	26	20,086.994 (49,636)	..	....
Nanpurbar ..	22nd April 1965 ..	39	23,553.130 (58,201)	4	2,902.631 (5,171)	23	22,862.735 (56,495)	5	4,864.730 (12,021)
Nawapur ..	20th July 1966 ..	..	....	..	..	..	....	15	12,652.192 (31,266)
Shirpur ..	9th July 1966 ..	5	3,352.419 (8,284)	..	....	18	8,606.862 (21,268)	2	373.930 (924)

Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

The scheme of the co-operative farming was introduced in the Bombay State in 1948. The scheme is continued from year to year. The primary aim of co-operative farming is to inculcate the habits of cultivation on co-operative basis among individual land holders in order to minimise the cost of cultivation, to increase average size of holdings, to raise agricultural production, to give full and continuous employment to the agriculturists and thus to raise the standard of living of poor farmers possessing such average size lands.

In the past, four types *viz.*, (i) Better Farming (ii) Tenant Farming (iii) Joint Farming and (iv) Collective Farming societies were organised. However the first two are not now regarded as conforming to co-operative pattern and hence efforts are made to convert these farming societies into either Joint Co-operative or Collective Farming Societies.

The first co-operative society in the district was formed at Navari in 1947 known as the Navari Co-operative Joint Farming Society in Dhulia taluka. Later on efforts were made to organise co-operative farming societies on the government waste lands. In 1949 two Co-operative Collective Farming Societies *viz.*, (i) Waghapur Co-operative Collective Farming Society Ltd. and Bhadne Shetki Majoor Co-operative Collective Farming Society Ltd. at Bhamer in Sakri taluka were registered. During the First Five Year Plan, various types of co-operative farming societies were registered in this district. On 31st December 1964 there were in all 102 co-operative farming societies in the district, the details of which are as under :—

Particulars	As on 30-6-1963	As on 31-12-1963	As on 31-12-1964
Co-operative joint farming societies in Pilot Blocks of Dhulia and Sindkheda talukas (10 each).	20	20	20
Co-operative joint farming societies outside the Pilot Blocks.	34	35	38
Co-operative collective farming societies.	22	29	44
	76	84	102

The total membership of all these societies was 1,751. Of these 1,315 members were working members and the remaining 436 were non-working members. The total land under command of these societies was 6,258-064 hectares (15,464 acres). The total acreage

brought under cultivation was 6,141·110 hectares (15,175). The acreage under different crops during 1963-64 is shown below :—

Type of Crop	Pilot	Non-Pilot	
		Joint	Collective
	hectares	hectares	hectares
Food grains ...	445·964 (1,102 acres)	551·992 (1,364 acres)	1,917·402 (4,738 acres)
Commercial crops ...	549·563 (1,358 acres)	713·866 (1,764 acres)	457·295 (1,139 acres)
Other by-products ...	36·017 (89 acres)	2·428 (6 acres)	15·378 (38 acres)

The total value of production was Rs. 1,224,985. The total sales amounted to Rs. 1,132,147.

The share capital of these societies was to the tune of Rs. 564,241 out of which Government contribution stood at Rs. 113,850 and the reserve fund was Rs. 490,394. The working capital was Rs. 2,562,088. The total borrowing from the Central Financing Agency as on 30th June 1964 was Rs. 1,007,108.

The information regarding the number of members, land under command and cultivation etc. of these societies is given below :—

TABLE No. 14

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

*(Area in hectares)

	Pilot			Non-Pilot			
				Joint		Collective	
	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1961-62	1962-63	1961-62	1962-63
Number of Societies ..	8	20	20	28	34	18	22
Members ..	102	261	261	371	434	476	575
Working ..	..	200	216	..	352	..	519
Non-working ..	..	61	45	..	82	..	54
Reserve Fund ..	114	286	293	10,259	12,044	12,299	23,205
*Land Pooled ..	435·847 (1,077)	1,055.016 (2,607)	1,021·427 (2,524)	1,517·572 (3,750)	1,539·830 (3,805)	1,795.996 (4,438)	2,271·502 (5,613)
*Land under cultivation	435·847 (1,077)	1,005·240 (2,584)	1,012·120 (2,501)	1,423·685 (3,518)	1,309·564 (3,236)	1,290·544 (3,189)	1,331·417 (3,290)

TABLE No. 15

VALUE OF SALES OF THE SOCIETIES

Item	Pilot		Non-Pilot			
			Joint		Collective	
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Food Grains ..	59,085	92,601	94,585	129,478	73,317	111,393
Cotton ..	90,049	141,793	111,510	126,572	22,935	58,762
Jaggery ..	28,253	21,207	49,791	105,307	842	62,124
Chillis ..	....	96,420	65,998	42,801	28,251	12,542
Miscellaneous ..	25,684	89,811	31,909	24,793	14,194	16,544
Total ..	203,071	441,832	353,793	428,951	139,538	261,363

TABLE No. 16

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF THE SOCIETIES

Item	Pilot		Non-Pilot			
			Joint		Collective	
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Food Grains	51,032	126,674	112,925	139,952	91,997	129,898
Cotton	48,098	199,883	121,562	129,361	29,451	67,195
Oil Seeds	64,085	95,411	90,895	119,148	32,953	52,339
Jaggery and Chillis ..	26,108	24,257	47,830 3,802	40,692	983 80	19,564
Miscellaneous	46,101	91,577	46,336	28,522	17,856	20,512
Total ..	235,424	477,802	418,546	457,675	173,220	289,508

The Dhulia District Co-operative Bank is giving adequate crop loan to the co-operative farming societies in this district. The amount of loan given to the co-operative farming societies during 1962-63 and 1963-64 is indicated below :—

Year	No. of societies	Amount sanctioned	Amount recovered
		Rs.	Rs.
1962-63 ...	57	533,820	525,464
1963-64 ...	75	874,189	736,707

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

TABLE No. 17

OPERATIONS OF FARMING SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1963-64

Type of society and No. of societies working	Land Utilisation: Net area sown	Land Utilisation: Gross area cropped	Land Utilisation: Area under food-grains	Land Utilisation: Area under commercial crops: Main crops and by products	Land Utilisation: Total	Value of Production: Food grains	Value of Production: Cotton	Value of Production: Oil-seeds	Value of Production: Jaggery	Value of Production: Miscellaneous	Value of Production: Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Joint farming in pilot area .. 20	1,012·120 (2,501·09)	1,012·120 (2,501·09)	445·964 (1,012·01)	549·563 (1,358·11) 36·422 (89·29)	4,77,802	1,26,674	1,39,883	95,411	24,257	91,577	4,41,842
Joint farming outside pilot area 38	1,526·880 (3,773·15)	1,526·880 (3,773·15)	552·396 (1,364·22)	673·802 (1,664·26) 2·833 (6·20)	4,57,675	1,39,952	1,29,361	1,19,148	40,692	28,522	4,28,951
Collective farming societies 31	4,038·766 (9,979·39)	4,038·766 (9,979·39)	1,915·783 (4,733·29)	457·295 (1,130·12) 15·378 (38·00)	2,89,508	1,29,898	67,195	52,339	19,564	20,512	2,61,364
Total—89	42,999·911 (16,254·23)	4,2999·911 (16,254·23)	2,913·739 (7,200·12)	1,680·661 (4,153·09) 54·228 (134·09)	12,24,985	3,96,524	3,36,439	2,66,898	84,513	1,40,611	11,32,157

Type of society and No. of societies working	Value of Sales: Food grains	Value of Sales: Cotton	Value of Sales: Oil-seeds	Value of Sales: Jaggery	Value of Sales: Miscellaneous	Loans	Government Aid Subsidies: For Administrative purposes	Government Aid Subsidies: For purchase of machinery	Government Aid Subsidies: For construction of godowns	Government Aid Subsidies: For other purposes	Cost of Management: Salaries and wages	Cost of Management: Other expenses
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Joint farming in pilot area .. 20	92,601	1,41,793	96,420	21,207	89,811	33,200	7,179	..	5,000	490	19,001	44,391
Joint farming outside pilot area 38	1,29,478	1,26,572	1,05,307	42,801	24,793	25,000	6,500	..	3,750	38	26,213	37,760
Collective farming societies 31	1,11,393	58,762	62,124	12,542	16,543	21,500	2,900	..	..	..	19,899	17,684
Total—89 ..	3,33,472	3,27,127	2,63,851	76,550	1,31,147	79,700	16,579	..	8,750	528	65,113	99,835

Note.—Figures in brackets are in acres and those outside are in hectares.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

TABLE No. 17–*contd.*

OPERATIONS OF FARMING SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1963-64.

Type of Society	Profit		Loss		No. of societies without profit or loss
	No. of societies	Amount	No. of societies	Amount	
	24	25	26	27	28
		Rs.		Rs.	
Joint farming in pilot area ..	12	92,311	8	2,41,536	....
Joint farming outside pilot area.	13	44,630	23	71,706	2
Collective farming ..	9	36,765	14	36,061	8
Total ..	34	1,73,706	45	4,39,303	10

CEREALS.

The largely grown cereals in the district are jowar, bajri, wheat, rice and maize and the minor cereals produced in the district are *ragi, kodra, sava, banti* and *bhadli.* Jowar occupies the first place with 23·61 per cent of the gross cropped area, bajri has 17·59 per cent, pulses 12·68 per cent, wheat 5·36 per cent, rice 4·10 per cent. and other cereals 5·45 per cent. All the food crops together make 70·8 per cent. against 69·88 per cent. for Maharashtra. Compared with the average crop pattern of the State, the district has lower proportions for rice, jowar and other food crops and slightly higher proportions for wheat and pulses. The district proportion for bajri is almost double that of the State average. Wheat is grown to a large extent in the valley of Tapi river which covers Taloda, Shahada and Nandurbar talukas. Rice and small millets cover large areas in the heavy rainfall and hilly areas in Akrani, Akkalkuwa, Nawapur and Sakri talukas. Bajri is grown mainly in southern talukas of Sindkheda, Sakri and Dhulia. The following table gives the area under various cereals in the district :–

TABLE No. 18

TABLE No. 18

AREA UNDER CEREALS (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT (1952-53 TO 1961-62) *(figures in hectares).

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi
Dhulia	1952-53	277.210 (685)	3,652.291 (9,025)	23,356.857 (57,716)	48,318.294 (1,19,397)	56.154 (161)	....
	1953-54	330.628 (817)	3,740.917 (9,244)	22,766.016 (56,256)	52,898.935 (1,30,716)	144.068 (356)	39.255 97
	1954-55	346.411 (856)	3,685.880 (9,108)	18,902.883 (46,710)	43,238.676 (1,06,845)	67.583 (167)	
	1955-56	283.280 (700)	3,718.255 (9,188)	20,220.945 (49,967)	40,874.500 (1,01,003)	52.204 (129)	....
	1956-57	371.097 (917)	4,666.839 (11,532)	21,076.047 (52,080)	39,141.635 (96,721)	37.231 (92)	....
	1957-58	457.700 (1,131)	3,690.736 (9,120)	19,778.624 (48,874)	42,198.633 (1,04,275)	59.983 (148)	....
	1958-59	414.398 (1,024)	3,892.270 (9,618)	26,224.462 (64,802)	41,647.855 (1,02,914)	39.659 (98)	0.405 (1)
	1959-60	549.968 (1,359)	4,728.756 (11,685)	26,356.390 (65,128)	41,505.406 (1,02,562)	51.800 (128)	....
	1960-61	512.737 (1,267)	4,156.125 (10,270)	21,677.410 (53,566)	39,106.022 (96,633)	76.081 (188)	....
	1961-62	520.831 (1,287)	4,246.370 (10,493)	23,645.398 (58,429)	41,596.685 (1,02,788)	16.187 (40)	....
Sindkheda	1952-53	211.651 (523)	4,342.685 (10,731)	16,800.135 (41,514)	33,997.671 (84,010)	18.21 (45)	....
	1953-54	156.209 (386)	6,034.273 (14,911)	19,015.790 (46,989)	34,952.325 (86,369)	59.489 (147)	... .
Sindhkheda	1954-55	163·088 (403)	7,488.310 (18,504)	21,267.868 (52.554)	26,784.548 (66,186)	14.973 (37)	....
	1955-56	208.413 (515)	7,376.212 (18,227)	24,470.958 (60,469)	28,355.539 (70,068)	36.826 (91)	....
	1956-57	184.132 (455)	6,005.945 (14,841)	22,417.986 (55,396)	26,445.825 (65,349)	67.987 (168)	....
	1957-58	135.974 (336)	4,571.738 (11,297)	21,670.126 (53,548)	25,158.519 (62,168)	15.378 (38)	....
	1958-59	121.406 (300)	5,470.545 (13,518)	24,220.457 (59,850)	24,435.750 (60,382)	23.877 (59)	....
	1959-60	142.045 (351)	5,812.505 (14,363)	29,011.535 (71,689)	21,997.922 (54,358)	17.806 (44)	....
	1960-61	140.426 (347)	5,386.371 (13,310)	25,413.876 (62,799)	23,509.828 (58,094)	10.117 (25)	....
	1961-62	78.104 (193)	3,872.845 (9,570)	26,733.962 (66,061)	23,570.936 (58,245)	5.261 (13)	....
Shirpur	1952-53	161.470 (398)	2,551.545 (6,305)	15,727.312 (38,863)	10,954.041 (27,068)	496.550 (1,277)	....
	1953-54	244.835 (605)	2,821.066 (5,764)	12,884.798 (31,839)	10,465.180 (25,860)	136·379 (337)	6·070 (15)
	1954-55	503.429 (1,244)	2,332.610 (6,971)	16,924.778 (41,822)	21,571.383 (35,304)	872.503 (2,156) (2,156)	6.475 (16)
	1955-56	293.802 (726)	2,886.221 (7,132)	15,184.628 (37,525)	9,128.907 (22,558)	130.309 (322)	38·850 (96)
	1956-57	373.120 (922)	2,753.888 (6,805)	17,943.777 (44,340)	7,748.928 (19,148)	152.566 (377)	6.070 (15)
	1957-58	314·441 (777)	2,113·270 (5,222)	14,401·965 (37,588)	7,752·165 (19,156)	127·071 (314)	5·261 (13)
	1958-59	251·714 (622)	2,182·472 (5,393)	17,766·525 (43,902)	7,613·358 (1,813)	133·951 (331)	....
	1959-60	276.400 (683)	2,766.433 (6,836)	21,793.555 (53,853)	7,003.496 (17,306)	136.784 (338)	....

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi
Shirpur	.. 1960-61 ..	290.969 (719)	2,182.876 (5,394)	19,380.413 (47,890)	6,573.719 (16,244)	115.335 (285)	14.569 (36)
	.. 1961-62 ..	273.972 (677)	2,720.299 (6,722)	19,465.801 (48,101)	6,634.422 (16,394)	130.713 (323)	....
Sakri	.. 1952-53 ..	3,278.361 (8,101)	3,245.582 (8,020)	14,786.822 (36,539)	50,009.882 (1,23,577)	1,473.462 (3,641)	152.971 (378)
	1953-54 ..	3,514.698 (8,685)	3,366.583 (8,319)	18,741.009 (46,310)	46,995.376 (1,16,128)	1,520.810 (3,758)	131.118 (324)
	1954-55 ..	4,054.144 (10,018)	3,912.100 (9,667)	16,768.569 (41,436)	47,894.993 (1,18,351)	1,457.679 (3,602)	201.129 (497)
	1955-56 ..	4,620.300 (11,417)	4,472.994 (11,053)	16,283.755 (40,238)	46,797.080 (1,15,638)	1,170.757 (2,893)	6,035.487 (14,914)
	1956-57 ..	5,123.729 (12,661)	4,561.216 (11,271)	18,329.038 (45,292)	47,002.255 (1,16,145)	949.393 (2,346)	5,663.581 (13,995)
	1957-58 ..	4,774.890 (11,799)	3,470.182 (8,575)	12,653.317 (31,267)	47,126.899 (1,16,453)	904.473 (2,235)	6,563.198 (16,218)
	1958-59 ..	4,681.812 (11,569)	4,172.717 (10,311)	14,240.091 (35,188)	46,057.314 (1,13,810)	1,037.615 (2,564)	6,816.936 (16,845)
	1959-60 ..	4,435.359 (10,960)	4,363.729 (10,783)	15,585.672 (38,513)	44,850.540 (1,10,828)	1,168.733 (2,888)	6,997.830 (17,292)
	1960-61 ..	5,610.971 (13,865)	3,305.880 (8,169)	13,026.033 (32,188)	45,976.781 (1,13,611)	693.227 (1,713)	6,543.773 (16,170)
	1961-62 ..	5,960.215 (14,728)	3,876.487 (9,579)	15,081.433 (37,267)	45,473.352 (1,12,367)	830.416 (2,052)	6,488.735 (15,034)

Nandurbar	.. 1952-53 ..	4,896.701 (12,100)	10,334.062 (25,536)	30,561.887 (75,520)	10,926.522 (27,000)	327.795 (810)	242.811 (600)
	1953-54 ..	5,159.747 (12,750)	10,339.727 (25,550)	30,400.012 (75,120)	10,723.370 (26,498)	330.628 (817)	10.927 (27)
	1954-55 ..	1,766.050 (4,364)	11,687.332 (28,880)	32,677.180 (80,747)	10,753.316 (26,572)	267.902 (662)	82.961 (205)
	1955-56 ..	2,825.518 (6,982)	12,577.236 (31,079)	33,718.438 (83,320)	14,906.204 (36,834)	279.638 (691)	37.231 (92)
	1956-57 ..	3,192.568 (7,889)	12,438.024 (30,735)	31,106.594 (76,866)	13,991.209 (34,573)	152.971 (378)	14.973 (37)
	1957-58 ..	3,195.805 (7,897)	9,242.219 (22,838)	30,996.115 (76,593)	12,342.923 (30,500)	198.701 (491)	....
	1958-59 ..	3,108.395 (7,681)	10,061.708 (24,863)	31,289.107 (77,317)	12,406.459 (30,657)	146.496 (362)	44.515 (110)
	1959-60 ..	2,037.189 (5,034)	7,427.202 (18,353)	26,448.658 (65,356)	11,534.765 (28,503)	114.931 (284)	45.325 (112)
	1960-61 ..	2,045.688 (5,055)	6,127.755 (15,142)	26,005.932 (64,262)	11,368.439 (28,092)	137.998 (341)	28.733 (71)
	1961-62 ..	2,121.364 (5,242)	6,860.237 (16,952)	24,557.156 (60,682)	11,988.013 (29,623)	130.713 (323)	20.234 (50)
Nawapur	.. 1952-53 ..	11,796.597 (29,150)	783.067 (1,935)	15,619.666 (38,597)	460.937 (1,139)	545.112 (1,347)	1,461.321 (3,611)
	1953-54 ..	12,720.090 (31,432)	681.491 (1,684)	13,377.300 (33,056)	583.557 (1,442)	510.714 (1,262)	1,149.713 (2841)
	1954-55 ..	14,396.300 (35,574)	877.359 (2,168)	10,178.662 (25,152)	976.315 (1,177)	513.547 (1,269)	999.979 (2,471)
	1955-56 ..	16,509.570 (40,796)	1,076.060 (2,659)	11,909.909 (29,430)	327.795 (810)	561.299 (1,387)	1,240.363 (3,065)
	1956-57 ..	15,455.363 (38,191)	1,418.829 (3,506)	13,435.980 (33,201)	347.625 (859)	451.225 (1,115)	872.503 (2,156)
	1957-58 ..	15,965.672 (39,452)	789.138 (1,950)	12,153.530 (30,032)	215.697 (533)	477.529 (1,180)	1,075.251 (2,657)

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi
Nawapur	1958-59	15,328·696 (37,878)	859·553 (2,124)	13,305·671 (32,879)	157·859 (395)	624·430 (1,543)	1,119·766 (2,767)
	1959-60	13,261·156 (32,769)	1,093·866 (2,703)	14,068·909 (34,765)	159·851 (395)	609·457 (1,506)	1,046·518 (2,586)
	1960-61	12,185·500 (30,111)	647·902 (1,601)	12,991·230 (32,102)	94·696 (234)	452·844 (1,119)	....
	1961-62	12,974·638 (32,061)	873·717 (2,159)	13,243·349 (32,725)	124·238 (307)	439·894 (1,087)	928·350 (2,294)
Shahada	1952-53	1,066·348 (2,635)	9,091·271 (22,465)	35,500·675 (87,724)	8,858·577 (21,890)	335·484 (829)	....
	1953-54	1,119·361 (2,766)	9,956·894 (24,604)	24,508·594 (60,562)	10,113·913 (24,992)	324·963 (803)	....
	1954-55	1,120·980 (2,770)	12,514·510 (30,924)	25,902·332 (64,006)	6,053·698 (14,959)	248·882 (615)	....
	1955-56	907·306 (2,242)	13,693·360 (33,837)	28,065·593 (69,354)	5,897·894 (14,574)	305·538 (755)	....
	1956-57	915·400 (2,262)	12,921·219 (31,929)	30,941·482 (76,458)	4,289·672 (10,600)	161·874 (400)	....
	1957-58	1,016·571 (2,512)	10,580·920 (26,146)	31,308·532 (77,365)	3,683·047 (9,101)	202·343 (500)	....
	1958-59	1,293·781 (3,197)	10,323·135 (25,509)	29,178·670 (72,102)	3,235·060 (7,994)	210·841 (521)	....
	1959-60	1,562·088 (3,860)	11,594·254 (28,650)	34,428·661 (85,075)	2,611·439 (6,453)	176·038 (435)	10·117 (25)
Shahada	1960-61	1,615·911 (3,993)	10,430·782 (25,775)	38,051·411 (94,027)	2,690·757 (6,649)	225·410 (557)	19·830 (49)
	1961-62	1,105·602 (2,732)	6,658·299 (16,453)	31,774·326 (78,516)	2,664·857 (6,585)	229·861 (568)	....
Taloda	1952-53	2,780·193 (6,870)	5,025·795 (12,419)	15,969·719 (39,462)	369·883 (914)	170·777 (422)	....
	1953-54	2,742·557 (6,777)	5,265·370 (13,011)	13,605·139 (33,619)	418·445 (1,034)	147·306 (364)	0·405 (1)
	1954-55	2,417·999 (5,975)	6,612·165 (16,339)	12,886·821 (31,844)	201·129 (497)	157·018 (388)	2·833 (7)
	1955-56	1,086·987 (2,686)	7,863·454 (19,431)	13,035·341 (32,211)	174·015 (430)	135·570 (335)	....
	1956-57	2,207·967 (5,456)	7,557·511 (18,675)	14,925·629 (36,882)	156·613 (387)	102·790 (254)	....
	1957-58	2,195·017 (5,424)	5,579·406 (13,787)	15,864·501 (39,202)	100·362 (248)	108·456 (268)	....
	1958-59	2,158·595 (5,334)	5,040·769 (12,456)	15,676·726 (38,738)	135·165 (334)	110·884 (274)	....
	1959-60	1,787·903 (4,418)	3,283·218 (8,113)	11,189·973 (27,651)	32·780 (81)	58·679 (145)	....
	1960-61	1,683·089 (4,159)	2,938·830 (7,262)	10,622·603 (26,249)	116·549 (288)	54·633 (135)	....
	1961-62	1,688·755 (4,173)	2,785·049 (6,882)	10,343·774 (25,560)	58·275 (144)	61·108 (151)	....
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	5,158·532 (12,747)	652·354 (1,612)	7,058·938 (17,443)	264·664 (654)	585·581 (1,447)	
	1953-54	6,005·136 (14,839)	677·040 (1,673)	6,937·127 (17,142)	245·644 (607)	510·714 (1,262)	....
	1954-55	5,766·371 (14,249)	906·497 (2,240)	6,745·306 (16,668)	208·413 (515)	505·453 (1,249)	....
	1955-56	6,209·097 (15,343)	1,094·271 (2,704)	6,910·823 (17,077)	170·777 (422)	602·173 (1,488)	2.023 (5)

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi
Akkalkuwa ..	1956-57 ..	6,161·749 (15,226)	1,419·638 (3,508)	6,895·445 (17,039)	92·268 (228)	694·846 (1,717)	6·880 (17)
	1957-58 ..	5,638·085 (13,932)	1,173·994 (2,901)	7,502·878 (18,540)	117·359 (290)	544·303 (1,345)	8·498 (21)
	1958-59 ..	5,283·580 (13,056)	1,040·448 (2,571)	8,934·253 (22,077)	154·185 (381)	428·562 (1,059)	28·328 (70)
	1959-60 ..	3,052·890 (7,538)	617·956 (1,527)	5,809·268 (14,355)	89·031 (220)	427·348 (1,056)	8·903 (22)
	1960-61 ..	3,801·620 (9,394)	460·533 (1,138)	5,199·810 (12,849)	76·890 (190)	471·459 (1,165)	12·950 (32)
	1961-62 ..	4,185·263 (10,342)	379·190 (937)	5,376·254 (13,285)	98·339 (243)	405·900 (1,003)	12·950 (32)
Akrani ..	1952-53 ..	291·778 (721)	....	4,948·500 (12,228)	3,020·576 (7,464)	1,176·422 (2,907)	....
	1953-54 ..	444·750 (1,099)	40·064 (99)	7,334·124 (18,123)	4,285·220 (10,589)	1,400·618 (3,461)	....
	1954-56 ..	516·784 (1,277)	33·589 (83)	7,835·935 (19,363)	4,126·583 (10,197)	1,284·673 (3,174)	7,353·954 (18,172)
	1955-56 ..	408·733 (1,010)	31·161 (77)	7,595·147 (18,768)	4,460·044 (11,021)	1,259·788 (3,113)	....
Akrani ..	*1956-57* ..	653·568 (1,615)	39·255 (97)	7,401·707 (18,290)	3,441·450 (8,504)	1,255·741 (3,103)	....
	1957-58 ..	657·210 (1,624)	20·234 (50)	7,248·331 (17,911)	3,323·281 (8,212)	1,314·420 (3,248)	....
	1958-59 ..	838·509 (2,072)	21·448 (53)	7,300·131 (18,039)	3,164·240 (7,819)	1,427·328 (3,527)	....
	1959-60 ..	729·649 (1,803)	30·756 (76)	7,561·153 (18,684)	2,612·653 (6,456)	957·082 (2,365)	....
	1960-61 ..	971·246 (2,400)	32·780 (81)	7,430·844 (18,362)	3,335·422 (8,242)	1,205·560 (2,979)	....
	1961-62 ..	1,121·790 (2,772)	27·114 (67)	6,915·274 (17,088)	3,749·416 (9,265)	1,127·860 (2,787)	....

*(Figures in brackets indicate area in acres).

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TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Italian Millet	Kodra	Kutki	Vari	Sava	Banti	Bhadli
Dhulia ..	1952-53	....	....	87·007	....	....	....	....
		....		(215)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	....	....	5,071·525	....	....	....	....
		....	....	(12,532)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55				46·944	64·750		
		....	....	....	(116)	(160)	....	....
	1955-56	108.860	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(269)						
	1956-57	92·268	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(228)						
	1957-58	83·770		....	....	....	....	....
		(207)						
	1958-59	13·355	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(33)						
	1959-60	26.709	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(66)						
	1960-61	29·542	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(73)	....	....				
	1961-62	29·542	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(73)						
Sindkheda ..	1952-53				36·017	4·856	....	....
		....	....	....	(89)	(12)	....	....
	1953-54	....	....	2,590.800	....	....	....	....
		....	....	(6,402)	....	....	....	....
Sindkheda ..	1954-55	....	....	1,925.496	....	90·245	....	....
		....	....	(4,758)	....	(223)	....	....
	195 -56	....	....	1,939·255	....	70·415	....	....
	..	....	....	(4,792)	....	(174)	....	....
	1956-57	....	....	72·034	....	15·783	....	....
		....	....	(178)	....	(39)	....	....
	1957-58	....	....	37·636	....	....	....	....
	..	....	....	(93)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	32·375	....	....	....	....	....	....
	..	(80)	....					
	1959-60	26·305	....	....	....	....	....	....
	..	(65)	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	26·305	....	....	....	....	....	....
		(65)						
	1961-62 ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Shirpur ..	1952-53				55·037	141·235	124·238	16·592
		....	....	....	(136)	(349)	(307)	(41)
	1853-54	57·465	4·856	....	45·325	....	27·519	....
		(142)	(12)	....	(112)	....	(68)	....
	1954-55	74·462	....	....	54·228	....	591·246	0·809
		(184)	....	....	(134)	....	(146)	(2)
	1955-56	....	....	0·405	40·873	0·405	45·730	....
	..	....	....	(1)	(101)	(1)	(113)	....
	1956-57	....	....	7·689	....	....	28·733	....
	..	....	....	(19)	....	....	(71)	....
	1957-58		....	6·880	....	....	27·114	....
	..	....		(17)	....	....	(67)	....
	1958-59	23·067	....	0·405	....	....	0·809	....
		(57)	....	(1)	....	....	(2)	....
	1959-60 ..	22.258	....	....	....	....	....	4·047
		(55)						(10)

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Italian Millet	Kodra	Kutki	Vari	Sava	Banti	Bhadli
Shirpur	1960-61	10.522 (26)	....	....	....	....	1.619 (4)	....
	1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Sakri	1952-53	....	600.959 (1,485)	....	258.999 (640)	3,887.414 (9,606)	1,825.943 (4,512)	1,532.546 (3,787)
	1953-54	....	609.052 (1,505)	....	78.509 (194)	3,421.215 (8,454)	1,524.452 (3,767)	1,221.342 (3,018)
	1954-55	....	366.241 (905)	....	102.385 (253)	3,156.146 (7,799)	1,298.233 (3,208)	1,006.049 (2,486)
	1955-56	....	287.731 (711)	....	96.720 (239)	2,708.968 (6,694)	1,541.854 (3,810)	1,130.288 (2,793)
	1956-57	....	60.703 (150)	....	53.823 (133)	3,647.435 (9,013)	1,861.960 (4,061)	1,135.954 (2,807)
	1957-58	1,011·310 (2,499)	345.197 (853)	....	67.583 (167)	2,908.883 (7,188)	1,534.165 (3,791)	1,427.328 (3,527)
	1958-59	130.713 (323)	292.183 (722)	....	41.278 (102)	3,998·298 (9,880)	1,692.397 (4,182)	971.246 (2,400)
	1959-60	72.439 (179)	261.427 (646)	....	77·295 (191)	4,546.243 (11,234)	1,142·429 (2,823)	1,290.139 (3,188)
	1960-61	197·487 (488)	484·814 (1,198)	....	590·437 (1,459)	2,531.311 (6,255)	810·991 (2,004)	1,316.444 (3,253)
	1961-62	458·914 (1,134)	415.208 (1,026)	....	167.540 (414)	3,713·803 (9,177)	635.357 (1,570)	844·175 (2,086)
Nandurbar	1952-53	136.379 (337)	420.873 (1,040)	6·880 (17)	12.950 (32)	7.284 (18)	1,365·006 (3,373)	508.286 (1,256)
	1953-54	....	417·636 (1,032)	....	4·452 (11)	80.937 (200)	1,277·998 (3,158)	393.354 (972)
	1954-55	....	652·354 (1,612)	1,418.020 (3,504)	....	11·331 (28)	937.253 (2,316)	207·199 (512)
	1955-56	....	435.847 (1,077)	1,745·411 (4,313)	....	2.833 (7)	723·579 (1,788)	343·173 (848)
	1956-57	....	353.291 (873)	2,025.858 (5,006)	....	38.041 (94)	649.926 (1,606)	486.433 (1,202)
	1957-58	....	312.417 (772)	2,385.624 (5,895)	32.375 (80)	9.713 (24)	494.526 (1,222)	208.818 (516)
	1958-59	31.566 (78)	293.397 (725)	....	....	6.880 (17)	505·048 (1,248)	312.822 (773)
	1959-60	....	144.877 (358)	2,048.925 (5,063)	....	7.689 (19)	362.598 (896)	184.537 (456)
	1960-61	....	189.798 (469)	306.752 (758)	....	64.345 (159)	362.194 (895)	206.794 (511)
	1961-62	....	158.637 (392)	382.833 (946)	....	26.709 (66)	386.879 (956)	362.194 (895)
Nawapur	1952-53	396.592 (980)	7,130.163 (17,619)	....	26.709 (66)	423.706 (1,047)	5,372.207 (13,275)	3,862.728 (9,545)
	1953-54	....	5,902.750 (14,586)	....	2.428 (6)	269.116 (665)	5,371.802 (13,274)	4,166.647 (10,296)
	1954-55	....	6,070.695 (15,001)	....	27.923 (69)	154.995 (383)	3,826.306 (9,455)	4,317.999 (10,670)
	1955-56	....	5,803.602 (14,341)	....	35.612 (88)	176.038 (435)	3,123.367 (7,718)	2,895.528 (7,155)
	1956-57	....	4,265.795 (10,541)	....	....	178.443 (436)	3,156.551 (7,800)	3,505.390 (8,662)
	1957-58	....	5,849.736 (14,455)	....	....	220.958 (546)	2,866.391 (7,083)	2,979.298 (7,362)

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. CEREALS.

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Italian Millet	Kodra	Kutki	Vari	Sava	Banti	Bhadli
Nawapur	1958-59	....	5,434·528 (13,429)	....	....	212·865 (526)	3,396·125 (8,392)	3,040·001 (7,512)
	1959-60	....	3,773·697 (9,325)	....	....	183·727 (454)	2,225·773 (5,500)	1,991·460 (4,921)
	1960-61	....	3,855·444 (9,527)	1·619 (4)	....	303·514 (750)	2,275·954 (5,624)	3,599·682 (8,895)
	1961-62	....	3,858·681 (9,535)	....	....	169·968 (420)	2,178·925 (5,383)	3,886·604 (9,604)
Shahada	1952-53	448·797 (1,109)	8·498 (21)	....	24·686 (61)	....	227·029 (561)	10·927 (27)
	1953-54	103·600 (256)	17·402 (43)	....	33·184 (82)	....	245·644 (607)	21·044 (52)
	1954-55	43·706 (108)	6·070 (16)	....	132·737 (328)	21·448 (53)	....	6·880 (17)
	1955-56	50·586 (125)	1·214 (3)	....	145·687 (360)	61·917 (153)	....	9·308 (23)
	1956-57	17·806 (44)	0·405 (1)	....	60·703 (150)	6·475 (16)	....	17·402 (43)
	1957-58	66·368 (164)	12·950 (32)	....	....	14·973 (37)	118·573 (293)	21·448 (53)
	1958-59	28·328 (70)	....	20·639 (51)	....	....	102·385 (253)	8·498 (21)
	1959-60	....	....	....	8·903 (22)	....	68·392 (169)	6·880 (17)
Shahada	1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	75·676 (187)	0·405 (1)
	1961-62	21·044 (52)	....	....	....	....	62·726 (155)	1·214 (3)
Taloda	1952-53	0·405 (1)	179·276 (443)	20·243 (50)	....	....	555·634 (1,373)	21·044 (52)
	1953-54	15·378 (38)	153·781 (380)	....	....	....	463·770 (1,146)	37·231 (92)
	1954-55	8·903 (22)	200·724 (496)	....	....	....	282·471 (698)	29·947 (74)
	1955-56	....	163·088 (403)	....	....	....	218·935 (541)	33·184 (82)
	1956-57	....	78·104 (193)	....	....	....	157·423 (389)	29·542 (73)
	1957-58	....	123·024 (304)	....	....	....	206·794 (511)	32·780 (81)
	1958-59	....	156·209 (386)	....	....	....	324·558 (802)	20·234 (50)
	1959-60	....	65·154 (161)	....	....	....	139·617 (345)	1·619 (4)
	1960-61	....	24·686 (61)	1·214 (3)	....	....	193·035 (477)	20·639 (51)
	1961-62	....	12·545 (31)	2·023 (5)	....	....	136·784 (338)	17·806 (44)
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	....	1,461·726 (3,612)	....	....	9·713 (24)	1,909·309 (4,718)	....
	1953-54	....	1,000·788 (2,473)	....	1,436·635 (3,550)	....	1,219·319 (3,013)	7·689 (19)
	1954-55	....	1,247·242 (3,082)	....	1,411·545 (3,488)	....	966·390 (2,388)	7·284 (18)
	1955-56	....	1,025·879 (2,535)	....	1,654·761 (4,089)	....	790·352 (1,953)	14·569 (36)

TABLE No. 18—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Italian Millets	Kodra	Kutki	Vari	Sava	Banti	Bhadli
Akkalkuwa ..	1956-57 ..	....	606·220 (1,498)	....	....	161·470 (399)	867·242 (2,143)	....
	1957-58 ..	....	861·981 (2,130)	....	1,308·350 (3,233)	99·957 (247)	849·436 (2,099)	....
	1958-59 ..	....	1,086·582 (2,685)	....	1,546·710 (3,822)	....	1,040·043 (2,570)	186·965 (462)
	1959-60 ..	....	912·972 (2,256)	....	....	....	891·119 (2,202)	149·329 (369)
	1960-61 ..	....	779·425 (1,926)	1,536·997 (3,798)	....	....	746·241 (1,844)	146·496 (362)
	1961-62 ..	....	638·999 (1,579)	1,444·729 (3,570)	....	....	717·508 (1,773)	217·316 (537)
Akrani ..	1952-53 ..	36·017 (89)	2·833 (7)	....	958·296 (2,368)	....	1,165·496 (2,880)	451·225 (1,115)
	1953-54 ..	38·850 (96)	31·161 (77)	....	118·978 (294)	42·897 (106)	1,299·042 (3,210)	449·201 (1,110)
	1954-55 ..	2·833 (7)	20·639 (51)	....	1,328·584 (3,283)	....	1,507·860 (3,726)	365·836 (904)
	1955-56 ..	27·923 (69)	23·067 (57)	103·600 (256)	1244·814 (3,076)	28·733 (71)	1,322·919 (3,269)	581·129 (1,436)
Akrani ..	1956-57 ..	8·498 (21)	0·809 (2)	103·195 (255)	1,492.077 (3,687)	....	1,736.103 (4,290)	390.926 (966)
	1957-58 ..	14·973 (37)	8·094 (20)	1·619 (4)	1,364.197 (3,371)	....	1,658.808 (4,099)	355.314 (878)
	1958-59 ..	28·733 (71)	137·593 (340)	....	1,653.142 (4,085)	....	1,703.728 (4,210)	348.839 (862)
	1959-60 ..	....	....	2,758·744 (6,817)	....	....	1,745.411 (4,313)	458.509 (1,133)
	1960-61 ..	0·809 (2)	7·689 (19)	2,120.959 (5,241)	....	....	1,643.835 (4,062)	960.320 (2,373)
	1961-62 ..	....	6·880 (17)	2,008.861 (4,964)	....	....	1,605.794 (3,968)	813.014 (2,009)

TABLE No. 19

OUTTURN OF CEREALS (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53 to 1961-62)

(In Metric Tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi	Italian millets	Kodra	Kutki
Dhulia	1952-53	....	....	209·296 (206)	2,760·472 (2,717)	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	394.208 (388)	1,458.976 (1,436)	18,306·288 (18,018)	29,644·848 (29,178)	116·840 (115)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	310·896 (306)	1,680.464 (1,654)	7,912·608 (7,788)	16,154·400 (15,900)	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	32.512 (32)	1,729.232 (1,702)	8,461·248 (8,328)	15,240·000 (15,000)	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	332.232 (327)	3,889·248 (3,828)	6,614·160 (6,510)	18,278·856 (17,991)	....	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	340.360 (335)	3,261.360 (3,210)	6,512·560 (6,410)	18,839·688 (18,543)	....	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	323.088 (318)	3,357·880 (3,305)	7,159·752 (7,047)	18,689·320 (18,395)	....	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	340.360 (335)	3,463·544 (3,409)	7,146·544 (7,034)	18,689·320 (18,395)	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	340.360 (335)	3,463·544 (3,409)	7,146.544 (7,034)	18,689·320 (18,395)	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	340.360 (335)	3,463·544 (3,409)	7,146·544 (7,034)	18,689·320 (18,395)	....	....	....	....	....
Sindkheda	1952-53	5.080 (5)	96·520 (95)	651.256 (641)	3,374·136 (3,321)	2·032 (2)	....	....	....	313.944 (309)
	1953-54	113.792 (112)	1,865·376 (1,836)	1,262.888 (1,243)	9,793·224 (9,639)	7·112 (7)	....	....	....	581.152 (572)
	1954-55	50·800 (50)	1,253·744 (1,234)	2,709·672 (2,667)	2,490·216 (2,451)	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	125·984 (124)	3,345·688 (3,293)	8,200·136 (8,071)	7,945·120 (7,820)	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	103·632 (102)	2,897·632 (2,852)	8,285·480 (8,155)	7,643·368 (7,523)	....	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	109·728 (108)	1,793·240 (1,765)	9,839·960 (9,685)	11,749·024 (11,564)	....	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	106·680 (105)	1,945·640 (1,915)	9,570·720 (9,420)	10,898·632 (10,727)	....	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	111·760 (110)	1,950·720 (1,920)	9,900·920 (9,745)	11,176·000 (11,000)	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	116·840 (115)	1,955·800 (1,925)	9,804·400 (9,650)	12,989·560 (12,785)	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	60·960 (60)	1,092·200 (1,075)	9,408·160 (9,260)	10,988·040 (10,815)	....	....	....	....	....
Shirpur	1952-53	50·800 (50)	284·480 (280)	2,678·176 (2,636)	1,023·112 (1,007)	29·464 (29)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	172·720 (170)	1,437·640 (1,415)	8,233·664 (8,104)	10,104·120 (9,945)	113·492 (112)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	247·204 (244)	1,699·768 (1,673)	7,777·480 (7,655)	7,037·832 (6,927)	91·440 (90)	....	....	3·048 (3)	....
	1955-56	266·192 (262)	1,811·528 (1,783)	6,583·680 (6,480)	3,819·144 (3,759)	81·200 (80)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	281·432 (277)	1,542·288 (1,518)	10,385·552 (10,222)	3,612·896 (3,556)	101·600 (100)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	189·992 (187)	946·912 (932)	7,122·160 (7,010)	2,892·552 (2,847)	68·072 (67)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	144·272 (142)	1,054·608 (1,038)	11,255·248 (11,078)	1,602·232 (1,577)	62·992 (62)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	189·992 (187)	1,658.112 (1,632)	7,122.160 (7,010)	2,892·552 (2,847)	68·072 (67)	....	....	....	....

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

(In Metric Tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi	Italian millets	Kodra	Kutki
	1960-61 ..	199.136 (196)	1,316.736 (1,296)	6,350.000 (6,250)	1,722.120 (1,695)	57.912 (57)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62 ..	199.136 (196)	1,316.736 (1,296)	6,350.000 (6,250)	1,722.120 (1,695)	57.912 (57)	....	....	....	....
Sakri ..	1952-53 ..	3,008.376 (2,961)	3,275.584 (3,224)	12,809.728 (12,608)	44,841.160 (44,135)	23,779.480 (23,405)	....	....	215.392 (212)	1,260.856 (1,241)
	1953-54 ..	4,765.040 (4,690)	3,192.272 (3,142)	9,892.792 (9,737)	26,548.080 (26,130)	1,829.816 (1,801)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55 ..	1,444.752 (1,422)	1,436 624 (1,414)	5,895.848 (5,803)	1,705.864 (1,679)	519.176 (511)	71.120 (70)	....	92.456 (91)	....
	1955-56 ..	3,262.376 (3,211)	1,763.776 (1,736)	7,430.008 (7,313)	1,543.304 (1,519)	550.672 (542)	356.616 (351)	....	168.656 (166)	....
	1956-57 ..	4,134.104 (4,069)	4,361.688 (4,293)	6,536.944 (6,434)	17,559.528 (17,283)	510.032 (502)	4,283.456 (4,284)	....	40.640 (40)	....
	1957-58 ..	4,134.104 (4,069)	4,361.688 (4,293)	6,536.944 (6,434)	17,559.528 (17,283)	510.032 (502)	4,283.456 (4,284)	....	40.640 (40)	....
	1958-59 ..	5,878.576 (5,786)	3,740.912 (3,882)	11,694.160 (11,510)	28,907.232 (28,452)	557.784 (549)	4,572.000 (4,500)	....	36.576 (36)	...
	1959-60 ..	5,567.680 (5,480)	3,651.504 (3,594)	11,595.608 (11,413)	28,150.312 (27,707)	586.232 (577)	5,856.224 (5,764)	....	32.512 (32)	....
	1960-61 ..	7,042.912 (6,932)	2,766.568 (2,723)	10,097.008 (9,938)	28,857.448 (28,403)	347.472 (342)	5,476.240 (5,390)	....	60.960 (60)	....
	1961-62 ..	7,481.824 (7,364)	3,244.088 (3,193)	12,620.752 (12,422)	28,540.456 (28,091)	416.560 (410)	5,403.088 (5,318)	....	51.816 (51)	....
Nandurbar ..	1952-53 ..	812.800 (800)	2,032.000 (2,000)	7,112.000 (7,000)	2,540.000 (2,500)	71,120 (70)	52,832 (52)	10.160 (10)	101.600 (100)	1.016 (1)
	1953-54 ..	1,808.480 (1,780)	3,212.592 (3,162)	12,836.144 (12,634)	2,815.336 (2,771)	74.168 (73)	....	....	93.472 (92)	....
	1954-55 ..	1,712.976 (1,686)	5,874.512 (5,782)	6,100.064 (6,004)	3,208.528 (3,158)	107.696 (106)	22.352 (22)	572.008 (563)	384.048 (378)	....
	1955-56 ..	1,265.936 (1,246)	5,637.784 (5,549)	5,923.280 (5,830)	4,759.960 (4,685)	135.128 (133)	9.144 (9)	671.576 (661)	535.432 (527)	....
	1956-57 ..	1,163.320 (1,145)	3,716.528 (3,658)	8,737.600 (8,600)	4,180.840 (4,115)	56.896 (56)	2.032 (2)	....	133.096 (131)	340.360 (335)
	1957-58 ..	1,165.352 (1,147)	2,901.696 (2,856)	11,009.376 (10,836)	2,508.504 (2,469)	66.040 (65)	....	....	124.968 (123)	239.776 (236)
	1958-59	2,236.216 (2,201)	5,809.488 (5,718)	22,518.624 (22,164)	4,802.632 (4,727)	73.152 (72)	15.240 (15)	....	179.832 (177)	....
	1959-60 ..	1,154.176 (1,136)	1,127.760 (1,110)	2,694.432 (2,652)	1,598.168 (1,573)	135.128 (133)	9.144 (9)	....	535.432 (527)	....
	1960-61 ..	1,154.176 (1,136)	1,127.760 (1,110)	2,694.432 (2,652)	1,598.168 (1,573)	135.128 (133)	9.144 (9)	....	535.432 (527)	....
	1961-62	985.520 (970)	2,143.760 (2,110)	3,007.360 (2,960)	1,803.400 (1,775)	135.128 (133)	....	....	565.912 (557)	....
Navapur ..	1952-53 ..	1,058.672 (1,042)	71.120 (70)	1,439.672 (1,417)	40.640 (40)	51.816 (51)	122.936 (121)	....	646.176 (636)	....
	1953-54 ..	10,264.648 (10,103)	458.216 (451)	6,644.640 (6,540)	218.440 (215)	341.376 (336)	834.136 (821)	....	3,964.432 (3,902)	....
	1954-55 ..	17,421.352 (17,147)	635.000 (625)	6,744.208 (6,638)	267.208 (263)	414.528 (408)	1,007.872 (992)	....	6,123.432 (6,027)	....
	1955-56 ..	14,513.560 (14,285)	542.544 (534)	8,457.184 (8,324)	238.760 (235)	340.360 (335)	901.192 (887)	....	4,370.832 (4,302)	....
	1956-57 ..	12,979.400 (12,775)	1,356.360 (1,335)	5,844.032 (5,752)	1,041.400 (1,025)	242.824 (239)	586.232 (577)	....	2,868.168 (2,823)	....
	1957-58 ..	13,187.680 (12,980)	731.520 (720)	5,753.608 (5,663)	1,046.480 (1,030)	243.040 (240)	607.568 (598)	....	4,124.960 (4,060)	....
	1958-59 ..	12,710.160 (12,510)	797.560 (785)	5,897.880 (5,805)	812.800 (800)	312.928 (308)	640.080 (630)	....	4,069.080 (4,005)	....
	1959-60 ..	14,981.936 (14,746)	797.560 (785)	13,817.600 (13,600)	812.800 (800)	312.928 (308)	640.080 (630)	....	4,069.080 (4,005)	....

* Figures in brackets are in tonnes.

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi	Italian millets	Kodra	Kutki
	1960-61 ..	5,914.136 (5,821)	1,059.688 (1,043)	5,474.208 (5,388)	431.800 (425)	273.304 (269)	558.800 (550)	....	2,262.632 (2,227)	....
	1961-62 ..	12,063.984 (11,874)	608.584 (599)	9,254.744 (9,109)	73.152 (72)	....	539.496 (531)	....	2,688.336 (2,646)	....
Shahada ..	1952-53 ..	428.752 (422)	1,227.328 (1,208)	4,696.968 (4,623)	1,623.568 (1,598)	48.768 (48)	....	6.096 (6)	1.016 (1)	....
	1953-54 ..	718.312 (707)	5,954.776 (5,861)	12,085.320 (11,895)	3,778.504 (3,719)	106.680 (105)	....	38.608 (38)	8.128 (8)	....
	1954-55 ..	780.288 (768)	6,512.560 (6,410)	11,203.432 (11,027)	1,705.864 (1,679)	70,104 (69)	....	18.288 (18)	2.032 (2)	....
	1955-56 ..	505.968 (498)	6,940.296 (6,831)	14,660.880 (14,430)	1,849.720 (1,820)	85.344 (84)	....	18.288 (18)	1.016 (1)	....
	1956-57 ..	265.176 (261)	6,523.736 (6,421)	13,845.032 (13,627)	1,023.112 (1,007)	60.960 (60)	....	7.112 (7)	....	....
	1957-58 ..	354.584 (349)	3,024.682 (2,977)	13,031.216 (12,826)	1,081.024 (1,064)	50.800 (50)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59 ..	1,096.264 (1,079)	2,635.504 (2,594)	16,145.256 (15,891)	1,254.760 (1,235)	59.944 (59)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60 ..	1,130.808 (1,113)	2,985.008 (2,938)	24,661.368 (24,273)	1,051.560 (1,035)	72.136 (71)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61 ..	1,130.808 (1,113)	2,987.040 (2,940)	24,661.368 (24,273)	1,051.560 (1,035)	72.136 (71)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62 ..	1,130.808 (1,113)	2,987.040 (2,940)	24,569.928 (24,183)	1,051.560 (1,035)	72.136 (71)	....	....	....	....
Taloda ..	1952-53 ..	766.064 (754)	2,340.864 (2,304)	8,744.712 (8,607)	171.704 (169)	47.752 (47)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54 ..	2,212.848 (2,178)	3,166.872 (3,117)	6,611.112 (6,507)	156.464 (154)	79.248 (78)	....	....	103.632 (102)	....
	1954-55 ..	1,951.736 (1,921)	2,964.688 (2,918)	5,688.584 (5,599)	93.472 (92)	105.664 (104)	1.016 (1)	....	168.656 (166)	....
	1955-56 ..	2,143.760 (2,010)	1,339.088 (1,318)	844.296 (831)	61.976 (61)	252.984 (249)	....	....	102.616 (101)	....
	1956-57 ..	1,782.064 (1,754)	1,237.488 (1,218)	836.168 (823)	57.912 (57)	54.864 (54)	....	....	52.832 (52)	....
	1957-58 ..	1,997.456 (1,966)	2,177.288 (2,143)	3,469.640 (3,415)	92.456 (91)	122.936 (121)	....	....	106.680 (105)	....
	1958-59 ..	1,030.224 (1,014)	2,766.568 (2,723)	6,649.720 (6,545)	50.800 (50)	58.928 (58)	....	....	65.024 (64)	....
	1959-60 ..	1,188.720 (1,170)	1,612.392 (1,587)	5,181.600 (5,100)	11.176 (11)	24.384 (24)	....	....	32.512 (32)	....
	1960-61 ..	1,188.720 (1,170)	1,612.392 (1,587)	5,181.600 (5,100)	11.176 (11)	24.384 (24)	....	....	32.512 (32)	....
	1961-62 ..	2,008.632 (1,977)	3,446.272 (3,392)	7,719.568 (7.598)	84.328 (83)	75.184 (74)	....	....	57.912 (57)	....
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53 ..	1,078.992 (1,062)	146.304 (144)	1,505.172 (1,482)	3.048 (3)	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54 ..	1,255.776 (1,236)	151.384 (149)	1,892.808 (1,863)	27.432 (27)	....	....	....	336.296 (331)	....
	1954-55 ..	1,316.736 (1,296)	228.600 (225)	1,902.896 (1,873)	25.400 (25)	....	....	....	457.200 (450)	....
	1955-56 ..	1,463.040 (1,440)	254.000 (250)	2,067.560 (2,035)	25.400 (25)	....	....	....	285.496 (281)	....
	1956-57 ..	1,178.560 (1,160)	330.200 (325)	2,006.600 (1,975)	14.224 (14)	84.328 (83)	....	....	167.640 (165)	....
	1957-58 ..	1,155.624 (1,039)	325.120 (320)	1,999.488 (1968)	5.080 (5)	30.480 (30)	....	....	80.264 (79)	....
	1958-59 ..	2,605.024 (2,564)	288.544 (284)	1,761.944 (1,734)	7.112 (7)	24.384 (24)	....	....	101.600 (100)	....
	1 59-60 ..	2,076.704 (2,044)	436.880 (430)	3,657.600 (3,600)	1,341.120 (1,320)	....	....	....	575.056 566)	....

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Ragi	Italian millets	Kodra	Kutki
	1960-61	2,035.048 (2,003)	289.560 (285)	3,730.752 (3,672)	41.656 (41)	....	....	....	558.800 (550)	....
	1961-62	2,078.736 (2,046)	277.368 (273)	3,749.040 (3,690)	35.560 (35)	....	....	....	548.640 (540)	....
Akrani	1952-53	52.832 (52)	....	1,528.064 (1,504)	556.748 (548)	298.704 (294)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	117.856 (116)	....	2,043.176 (2,011)	1,576.832 (1,552)	299.720 (295)	....	14.224 (14)	7.112 (7)	....
	1954-55	292.608 (288)	8.128 (8)	4,084.320 (4,020)	2,399.792 (2,362)	201.168 (198)	....	12.192 (12)	8.128 (8)	446.024 (439)
	1955-56	373.888 (386)	90.424 (89)	4,215.384 (4,149)	3,033.776 (2,986)	205.232 (202)	....	1.016 (1)	7.112 (7)	475.488 (468)
	1956-57	312.928 (308)	70.104 (69)	4,113.784 (4,040)	2,952.496 (2,906)	103.632 (102)	....	1.016 (1)	7.112 (7)	414.528 (408)
	1957-58	272.288 (268)	....	3,472.688 (3,418)	1,973.072 (1,942)	425.704 (419)	....	1.016 (1)	2.032 (2)	269.240 (265)
	1958-59	500.888 (493)	20.320 (20)	3,833.368 (3,773)	1,466.088 (4,443)	406.400 (400)	....	....	24.384 (24)	....
	1959-60	362.712 (357)	5.080 (5)	2,037.080 (2,005)	1,046.480 (1,030)	242.824 (239)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	355.600 (350)	5.080 (5)	2,092.960 (2,060)	1,066.800 (1,050)	254.000 (250)	....	....	1.016 (1)	....
	1961-62	414.528 (408)	4.064 (4)	2,187.448 (2,153)	1,193.800 (1,175)	259.080 (255)	....	....	4.064 (4)	462.280 (455)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Jowar.

Jowar is extensively grown in the district both in *kharif* and *rabi* seasons. Both *kharif* and *rabi* jowars are grown on heavy to medium black soils. *Kharif* jowar is taken between June and December and the *rabi* jowar is produced between September and February. The tillage in the case of both the jowars consists of one ploughing, two to three harrowings, two hoeings and two to three interculturings and weedings. Both the methods, drilling as well as dibbling, are followed in the district. The seeds are drilled at the rate of about 4·536 to 5·443 kg. (10 to 12 lbs) per acre and if the dibbling method is followed the seed rate comes to about 1·814 kg. (4 lbs.) for one acre. In the *kharif* season if the seeds are drilled, the distance between the two lines is 304·8 mm. (12″) and that in the case of dibbling method it is 457·2 mm. × 609·6 mm. (18″ × 24″). In the *rabi* season on the other hand, the distance between the two lines in both the methods of sowing *viz.*, drilling and dibbling is 457·2 mm. (18″) and 609·6 mm. × 609·6 mm. (24″ × 24″) respectively. The rotational crops grown after *kharif* jowar are usually cotton, groundnut and wheat and those produced after *rabi* jowar include wheat and bajri. The basal dose of manuring per acre at the time of sowing consists of 5 to 10 cart loads of farm yard manure and top dressing of 50·802 kg. (112 lbs.) of superphosphate and 45·359 kg. (100 lbs.) of ammonium sulphate. The agriculture department of the State has recommended *Maldandi* 35-1 as an improved strain of *rabi* jowar for the district.

The *kharif* jowar is ready for harvest by December. The crop is usually cut with sickle. The earheads are cut on the same day and are carted to the threshing floor, where they are exposed to the sun for about 4 days. The stalks are tied into small bundles and when sufficiently dried, they are collected at a convenient place. The process of cutting the crop and its earheads is locally known as *Lani*. The earheads are then trampled under the feet of oxen in the threshing floor and the grains are separated by winnowing, taking advantage of a gentle breeze.

Bajri.

Bajri is mainly a *kharif* crop, being sown a little later and reaped a little earlier than jowar. It is usually grown on light to medium black soils. The field is prepared by ploughing and two to three harrowings. About two to three interculturings and weedings and two hoeings are also given. The crop is drilled at the rate of 2·722 to 4·082 kg. (6 to 9 lbs.) per acre at a distance of about 304·8 to 381·0 mm. (12 to 15 inches) between the two lines. After about 20 days the crop is thinned by keeping a distance of about 76·2 to 101·6 mm. (3 to 4 inches) between two plants. Bajri is rotated with jowar, *udid* and *matki*. Niphad 28/15 has been recommended by the department of agriculture as an improved strain of bajri for the district. The crop is ready for harvest by November when it is reaped with sickle close to the ground and left lying in the field for three days, then bound into small bundles and stacked near about

the threshing floor. After some days the earheads are removed and stacked on the floor. The threshing and winnowing are done in the same way as for jowar.

Wheat.

Wheat (*gahu*) is grown as a *rabi* crop between October and March. If wheat is taken as a non-irrigated crop it is sown in heavy black and retentive soils and if it is produced entirely as an irrigated crop it is grown on medium or black soils. The field is ploughed in September and followed by three to four harrowings for irrigated crops. About two interculturings and weedings are done before the flowering stage. The crop is drilled in both the cases, irrigated as well as non-irrigated, at the rate of 18·144 to 22·680 kg. (40 to 50 lb.) and 17·237 to 18·144 kg. (38 to 40 lb.) per acre respectively. Cotton, jowar and gram are taken as rotational crops after wheat. About 10 to 15 cart loads of farm yard manure and top dressing of 34·019 kg. (75 lb.) of ammonium sulphate at the time of sowing the non-irrigated crop and 45·359 kg. superphosphate for irrigated crop are applied per acre. The crop (100 lb.) of ammonium sulphate and 50·802 kg. (112 lb.) of takes about six months to mature and is ready for harvest from the middle of February to the end of March. The plants are cut close to the ground, tied into small bundles and after sufficiently being dried in the sun are carried to the threshing floor where they are threshed by beating with long sticks. The department of agriculture of the State has recommended N. 59 and N. 125 for non-irrigated wheat and N. P. 718, N. 345 and N. 146 for irrigated wheat as the suitable improved strains of wheat for the district.

Rice.

Rice (*bhat*) is taken as a kharif crop in the district. It is usually grown on light to medium black soils. Its tillage consists of one ploughing, and two to three harrowings or puddling before planting. About three weedings are also given. It is both drilled as well as transplanted. The seed rate per acre in the case of drilling and transplanting is 5·443 kg. (12 lb.) and 18·144 kg. (40 lb.) respectively. About 10 to 15 cart loads of farm yard manure or compost are applied to one acre.

Maize.

Maize (*maka*) is grown as a *kharif* crop between June and September usually on medium black soils. One ploughing, two harrowings and two interculturings are sufficient for the healthy growth of the crop. Both drilling as well as dibbling methods are followed. The drilling and dibbling are done at a distance of 457·2 mm. (18″) and 457·2 mm. × 457·2 mm. (18″ × 18″) respectively. About 10 to 15 cart loads of farm yard manure and compost and a top dressing of 50·802 kg. (112 lb.) of superphosphate and 22·680 kg. (50 lb.) of ammonium sulphate are applied to one acre before sowing the crop. After one month, a top dressing of about 22·680 kg. (50 lb.) of the above mentioned fertilisers is applied to the crop. The cobs are cut off the standing stalks and

when sufficiently dry are beaten with sticks to separate the grain. The heads are usually eaten parched or boiled while green and ripe grains are also parched and made into *lahis* and after grinding used as flour. Its green stalks provide an excellent fodder.

PULSES.

The pulses could be regarded as complementary food grains. The chief among them are gram, *mug, tur, udid,* horse-gram, *math, chavali, watana* and *val.* The following tables show the taluka-wise distribution of the area under pulses and its outturn in the district from 1952-53 to 1961-62 :—

TABLE No. 20

AREA UNDER PULSES (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53 to 1961-62)

(In hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur	Math	Val	Chavli	Vatana
Dhulia ..	1952-53	433.755 (1,071)	732.240 (1,808)	196.020 (484)	484.950 (1,190)	....	....	1,764.180 (4,356)	....	358.425 (885)	....
	1953-54	417.150 (1,030)	874.800 (2,160)	236.925 (585)	480.735 (1,187)	....	....	1,988.955 (4,911)	3.240 (8)	413.505 (1,021)	130.815 (323)
	1954-55	443.285 (1,097)	899.910 (2,222)	203.310 (502)	425.655 (1,051)	5,712.525 (14,105)	....	1,822.970 (4,674)	....	479.520 (1,184)	12.960 (32)
	1955-56	592.110 (1,462)	622.080 (1,536)	207.765 (513)	339.795 (839)	5,908.140 (14,588)	....	2,139.615 (5,383)	....	326.430 (806)	37.260 (92)
	1956-57	865.890 (2,138)	554.850 (1,370)	159.570 (394)	314.280 (776)	7,153.110 (17,662)	....	2,286.155 (5,151)	....	340.605 (841)	23.085 (57)
	1957-58	388.850 (960)	929.475 (2,295)	147.825 (365)	341.820 (844)	6,371.055 (15,731)	....	2,116.530 (5,226)	7.290 (18)	288.765 (713)	12.150 (30)
	1958-59	435.780 (1,076)	543.510 (1,342)	144.585 (357)	313.875 (775)	4,514.975 (11,395)	....	2,004.045 (4,949)	29.970 (74)	209.385 (517)	12.555 (31)
	1959-60	596.565 (1,473)	982.530 (2,426)	179.415 (443)	398.925 (985)	6,376.725 (15,745)	....	2,030.670 (5,014)	7.290 (18)	231.255 (571)	....
	1960-61	483.570 (1,194)	1,212.570 (2,994)	310.230 (766)	584.415 (1,443)	4,777.785 (11,797)	....	3,151.305 (7,781)	....	301.725 (745)	....
	1961-62	394.470 (974)	1,191.105 (2,941)	313.065 (773)	585.630 (1,446)	5,617.755 (13,871)	....	1,821.690 (4,498)	....	257.175 (635)	....
Sindkheda ..	1952-53	564.165 (1,393)	2,598.075 (6,415)	260.415 (643)	564.950 (1,390)	....	....	903.555 (2,231)	11.745 (29)	543.915 (1,203)	59.940 (148)
	1953-54	1,028.715 (2,540)	2,641.815 (6,523)	191.565 (473)	1,452.330 (3,586)	....	....	1,793.340 (4,428)	....	850.500 (2,100)	2.025 (5
	1954-55	1,298.835 (3,207)	2,361.960 (5,832)	193.995 (479)	332.100 (820)	112.590 (278)	....	1,190.260 (2,692)	14.580 (36)	333.315 (863)	17.820 (44)
	1955-56	1,146.555 (2,831)	1,823.345 (4,749)	206.955 (511)	541.080 (1,336)	....	....	1,660.500 (4,100)	21.060 (52)	377.055 (931)	50.220 (124)
	1956-57	1,385.505 (3,421)	2,662.470 (6,574)	330.480 (816)	457.650 (1,130)	3,149.280 (7,776)	....	1,436.940 (3,548)	25.515 (63)	468.990 (1,158)	21.060 (52)
	1957-58	835.110 (2,062)	4,551.795 (11,239)	274.995 (679)	425.250 (1,050)	3,395.925 (8,385)	....	1,235.250 (3,050)	15.795 (39)	262.845 (649)	10.125 (25)
	1958-59	1,018.170 (2,514)	3,877.065 (9,573)	838.755 (2,071)	525.285 (1,297)	3,269.970 (8,074)	....	1,226.340 (3,028)	29.565 (73)	558.090 (1,378)	147.825 (365)
	1959-60	1,579.905 (3,901)	3,722.355 (9,191)	354.375 (875)	407.025 (1,005)	3,409.290 (8,418)	....	1,488.375 (3,675)	7.290 (18)	417.555 (1,031)	14.175 (35)
	1960-61	1,234.035 (3,047)	8,688.870 (21,454)	518.400 (1,280)	1,134.810 (2,802)	1,944.000 (4,800)	....	405.000 (1,000)	18.225 (45)	908.275 (1,255)	11.340 (28)
	1961-62	1,296.810 (3,202)	5,888.295 (14,539)	727.595 (1,799)	731.645 (1,809)	1,944.005 (4,800)	....	952.965 (2,353)	14.580 (36)	274.995 (679)	9.720 (24)
Sirpur ..	1952-53	953.370 (2,354)	3,068.280 (7,576)	153.900 (380)	759.375 (1,875)	....	....	654.075 (1,615)	....	434.160 (1,072)	3.240 (8)
	1953-54	1,060.695 (2,619)	2 371.680 (5,856)	144.990 (358)	1,118.205 (2,761)	786.105 (1,941)	55.080 (136)	668.250 (1,650)	....	247.050 (610)	0.810 (2)
	1954-55	1,115.090 (2,778)	2,470.765 (5,113)	157.140 (388)	612.576 (1,513)	825.795 (2039)	....	798.660 (1,972)	1.620 (4)	298.890 (738)	0.405 (1)
	1955-56	1,378.620 (3,404)	1,546.695 (3,819)	200.880 (496)	515.160 (1,272)	797.850 (1,970)	....	572.670 (1,414)	2.025 (5)	192.375 (475)	4.050 (10)
	1956-57	1,167.210 (2,882)	2,209.275 (5,455)	215.055 (531)	910.845 (2,249)	873.990 (2,158)	....	550.800 (1,360)	....	245.025 (605)	8.505 (21)
	1957-58	616.410 (1,522)	4,323.37 (10,675)	216.270 (534)	918.135 (2,267)	778.005 (1,921)	....	596.160 (1,472)	1.215 (3)	373.005 (921)	31.345 (79)
	1958-59	709.560 (1,752)	7,821.580 (9,436)	183.465 (453)	881.685 (2,177)	636.660 (1,572)	....	460.485 (1,137)	0.810 (2)	334.935 (827)	17.415 (43)
	1959-60	1,308.960 (3,232)	343.165 (13,193)	250.695 (619)	985.770 (2,434)	580.365 (1,433)	....	358.020 (884)	25.515 (63)	301.320 (744)	15.795 (39)

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur	Math	Val	Chavali	Vatana
Shirpur — *contd* ..	1960-61	654.075 (1,615)	8,125.515 (20,063)	230.040 (568)	1,067.985 (2,637)	635.445 (1,569)	....	368.145 (909)	2.835 (7)	323.190 (798)	0.810 (2)
	1961-62	929.475 (2,295)	7,168.500 (17,700)	279.855 (691)	1,038.420 (8,564)	666.225 (1,645)	....	590.085 (1,457)	1.620 (4)	291.600 (720)	9.910 (22)
Sakri ..	1952-53	1,686.420 (4,164)	355.185 (877)	165.645 (409)	1,737.045 (4,289)	....	46.170 (114)	911.285 (2,497)	....	505.440 (1,248)	309.015 (763)
	1953-54	2,015.280 (4,976)	573.480 (1,416)	208.575 (515)	2,022.165 (4,993)	....	....	1,328.400 (3,280)	....	628.560 (1,552)	304.560 (752)
	1954-55	2,093.040 (5,168)	6,15.600 (1,520)	375.435 (927)	2,525.175 (6,235)	....	41.715 (103)	1,026.675 (2,535)	....	579.150 (1,430)	446.310 (1,102)
	1955-56	2,301.210 (5,682)	461.295 (1,139)	102.465 (253)	1933.875 (4,775)	....	56.295 (139)	1,144.935 (2,827)	....	313.875 (775)	405.000 (1000)
	1956-57	2,562.840 (6,328)	449.550 (1,100)	40.095 (99)	1,725.705 (4,261)	....	124.740 (308)	1,177.335 (2,907)	....	296.265 (733)	440.640 (1,088)
	1957-58	19,051.120 (4,704)	433.755 (1,071)	120.690 (298)	1,858.545 (45,89)	13,599.900 (33,580)	158.355 (391)	1,226.745 (3,029)	....	395.685 (977)	567.000 (1,400)
	1958-59	2,050.120 (5,064)	390.420 (964)	85.860 (212)	2,163.105 (5,341)	12,789.900 (31,580)	37.665 (93)	1,131.975 (2,795)	49.410 (122)	330.075 (815)	286.335 (707)
	1959-60	2,369.655 (5,851)	622.485 (1,537)	316.305 (781)	2,020.950 (4,990)	13,882.185 (34,277)	18.630 (46)	1,323.540 (3,268)	0.810 (2)	362.880 (896)	243.810 (602)
	1960-61	1,306.935 (3,227)	481.950 (1,190)	126.360 (312)	2,335.635 (5,767)	13,341.510 (32,942)	264.870 (654)	1,318.680 (3,256)	15.795 (39)	317.925 (785)	413.505 (1,021)
	1961-62	1,154.865 (4,333)	434.565 (1,073)	172.125 (425)	2,451.870 (6,054)	11,894.445 (29,369)	138.105 (341)	193.395 (1,959)	14.175 (35)	378.675 (935)	324.810 (802)
Nandurbar ..	1952-53	3,513.375 (8,675)	3 574.125 (8,825)	1,973.375 (4,875)	4,104.675 (10,135)	3,089.340 (7,628)	....	1,863.810 (4,602)	....	981.720 (2,424)	6.885 (17)
	1953-54	3,376.485 (8,337)	536.220 (1,324)	1,970.325 (4,865)	5,832.000 (14,400)	4,282.470 (10,574)	2.025 (5)	2,462.400 (6,080)	.405 (1)	477.495 (1,179)	5·670 (14)
	1954-55	3,208.815 (7,923)	2,184.165 (5,393)	1,909.575 (4,715)	5,068.575 (12,515)	....	....	910.035 (2,247)	.810 (2)	383.130 (946)	10.530 (26)
	1955-56	3,079.215 (7,603)	1,813.995 (4,479)	14,23.170 (3,514)	2,518.290 (6,218)	....	....	1059.885 (2,617)	0·405 (1)	360·045 (889)	2.025 (5)
	1956-57	3,642.570 (8,994)	2,883.600 (7,120)	1·654.830 (4,086)	4·902.930 (12,106)	....	....	1,074.060 (2,652)	.810 (2)	650.430 (1,606)	1.215 (3)
	1957-58	2,861.600 (7,154)	4,685.040 (11,568)	1,916.055 (4,731)	6,378.750 (15,750)	....	....	1,050.165 (2,593)	....	403.785 (997)	2.430 (6)
	1958-59	2,014.065 (4,973)	4,491.450 (11,090)	1,770.255 (4,371)	7,292.025 (18,005)	2,064.235 (5,097)	....	992.655 (2,451)	....	425.655 (1,051)	5.265 (13)
	1959-60	1,924.155 (4,751)	4,548.555 (11,231)	1,165.185 (2,877)	5,946.210 (14,682)	....	....	838.350 (2,070)	....	343.440 (848)	.405 (1)
	1960-61	1,300.455 (3,211)	5,045.085 (12,457)	1,050.165 (2,593)	5,544.000 (13,860)	1,894.995 (4,679)	....	756.540 (1,868)	1.215 (3)	368.955 (911)	5.670 (14)
	1961-62	1,103.625 (2,725)	4,972.995 (12,279)	1,223.505 (3,021)	4,991.625 (12 325)	1,703.835 (4,207)	....	823.770 (2,034)	.405 (1)	291.195 (719)	12.555 (31)
Nawapur ..	1952-53	1,715.580 (4,236)	298.890 (738)	3,131.055 (7,731)	1,553.985 (3,837)	209.790 (518)	2.430 (6)	7.290 (18)	38.475 (95)	378.270 (934)	11.340 (28)
	1953-54	2,028.240 (5,008)	493.010 (1,242)	3,201.120 (7,904)	1,585.980 (3,916)	229.230 (566)	....	59.130	.... (146)	505.245 (1,249)	21.870 (54)
	1954-55	1,740.285 (4,297)	563.355 (1,391)	3,205.170 (7,914)	3,045.600 (7,520)	271.350 (670)	1.620 (4)	.810 (2)	65.610 (162)	494.720 (1,224)	25.920 (64)
	1955-56	2,160.270 (5,334)	395.280 (976)	2,833.380 (6,996)	2,010.015 (4,963)	311.850 (770)	11.745 (29)	....	55.890 (138)	389.205 (961)	26.730 (66)
	1956-57	2,502.090 (6,178)	299.700 (740)	2,146.905 (5,301)	3,432.780 (8,476)	81.405 (201)	17.820 (44)	.810 (2)	54.270 (134)	332.910 (822)	21.870 (54)
	1957-58	1,878.390 (4,638)	350.730 (866)	2,304.855 (5,691)	3,881.925 (9,585)	178.200 (440)	....	1.620 (4)	15.390 (38)	370.980 (916)	8.910 (22)
	1958-59	935.550 (2,310)	422.820 (1,044)	2,482.245 (6,129)	5,627.880 (13,896)	104.085 (257)	....	6.480 (16)	50.220 (124)	416.745 (1,029)	....
	1959-60	1,078.515 (2,663)	351.540 (868)	1,944.405 (4,801)	4,666.005 (11,521)	91.935 (227)	....	....	26.325 (65)	332.100 (820)	....
	1960-61	796.665 (1,893)	454.410 (1,122)	2,059.020 (5,084)	5,832.865 (11,933)	89.505 (221)	....	1.215 (3)	6.480 (16)	306.585 (757)	3.240 (8)
	1961-62	758.160 (1,872)	410.265 (1,013)	2,080.485 (5,137)	3,499.200 (8,640)	66.825 (165)	....	7.290 (18)	15.795 (39)	342.225 (845)	2.025 (5)

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur	Math	Val	Chavli	Vatana
Shahada ..	1952-53	2,985.255 (7,371)	1,191.105 (2,941)	950.535 (2,347)	2,154.195 (5,319)	147.825 (365)	....	470.610 (1,162)	....	212.220 (524)	....
	1953-54	3,179.655 (7,851)	1,592.460 (3,932)	1,054.215 (2,603)	2,356.290 (5,818)	120.890 (298)	....	931.095 (2,299)	.810 (2)	207.765 (513)	4.050 (10)
	1954-55	3,583.440 (8,848)	1,151.810 (2,842)	649.620 (1,604)	1,971.445 (4,869)	99.225 (245)	....	366.525 (905)	.810 (2)	163.620 (404)	....
	1955-56	3,169.125 (7,825)	651.240 (1,608)	836.130 (2,066)	952.155 (2,351)	158.355 (391)	....	463.320 (1,144)	4.860 (12)	112.590 (278)	3.645 (9)
	1956-57	3,092.175 (7,635)	866.295 (2,139)	879.660 (2,172)	2,310.120 (5,704)	242.595 (599)	....	419.175 (1,035)	38.070 (94)	118.665 (293)	2.835 (7)
	1957-58	3,122.550 (7,710)	1,841.535 (4,547)	1,251.855 (3,091)	4,512.105 (11,141)	270.135 (667)	....	377.055 (931)	8.505 (21)	224.775 (555)	4.860 (12)
	1958-59	2,380.995 (5,879)	2,951.640 (7,288)	1,313.415 (3,243)	6,183.540 (15,268)	189.945 (469)	....	364.500 (900)	2.430 (6)	213.030 (526)	8.505 (21)
	1959-60	2,834.025 (7,005)	4,804.110 (11,862)	1,282.290 (3,166)	5,689.035 (14,047)	176.365 (433)	....	335.340 (828)	4.050 (10)	281.070 (694)	1.215 (3)
	1960-61	2,890.485 (7,137)	5,292.135 (13,067)	966.735 (2,387)	5,897.010 (14,562)	162.405 (401)	....	452.790 (1,118)	....	2,117.890 (538)	9.315 (23)
	1961-62	2,164.320 (5,344)	5,443.605 (13,441)	1,182.195 (2,919)	5,344.330 (13,186)	136.890 (338)	....	320.760 (792)	1.620 (4)	164.430 (406)	2.835 (7)
Taloda ..	1952-53	1,274.940 (3,148)	172.125 (425)	1,833.840 (4,528)	945.270 (2,334)	....	....	61.965 (153)	....	30.375 (75)	....
	1953-54	1,317.060 (3,252)	361.870 (894)	1,942.880 (4,796)	1,198.155 (2,951)	71.280 (176)	....	86.670 (214)	....	53.865 (133)	2.835 (7)
	1954-55	1,407.780 (3,476)	430.110 (1,062)	1,549.935 (3,827)	4,112.130 (2,746)	7.290 (18)	....	58.320 (144)	....	22.275 (55)	4.050 (10)
	1955-56	1,524.420 (3,764)	121.500 (300)	1,373.355 (3,391)	292.815 (723)	....	....	23.085 (57)	....	16.605 (41)	1.602 (4)
	1956-57	2,006.395 (4,959)	1,00.035 (247)	1,253.070 (3,094)	343.845 (849)	....	....	29.565 (73)	....	17.820 (44)	.405 (1)
	1957-58	1,828.980 (4,516)	302.535 (747)	1,827.765 (4,513)	881.280 (2,176)	....	....	55.080 (136)	....	25.110 (62)	14.175 (35)
	1958-59	1,287.090 (3,178)	311.040 (768)	1,455.570 (3,594)	1,195.155 (2,951)	....	....	49.005 (121)	....	38.070 (94)	.405 (1)
	1959-60	1,217.430 (3,006)	141.750 (350)	982.125 (2,425)	844.830 (2,086)	....	....	15.795 (39)	....	33.210 (82)	.405 (1)
	1960-61	967.950 (2,390)	348.300 (860)	1,091.475 (2,695)	1,114.560 (2,752)	....	....	13.770 (34)	....	28.350 (70)	....
	1961-62	803.925 (1,985)	429.705 (1,061)	765.450 (1,890)	1,080.135 (2,667)	....	....	6.885 (17)	....	46.170 (114)	....
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53	693.360 (1,712)	4.860 (12)	1,627.820 (4,044)	125.550 (310)	....	....	.405 (1)	1.620 (4)	67.230 (166)	....
	1953-54	678.375 (1,675)	12.150 (30)	1,516.725 (3,745)	178.220 440)	2.025 (5)	....	.405 (1)	1.215 (3)	99.225 (245)	....
	1954-55	705.510 (1,742)	19.845 (49)	1,483.110 (3,662)	19.805 (481)	2.025 (5)	....	1.215 (3)	2.835 (7)	31.185 (77)	....
	1955-56	527.310 (1,302)	3.645 (9)	1,284.255 (3,171)	93.960 (232)	1.625 (4)	....	.810 (2)	2.025 (5)	68.850 (170)	....
	1956-57	1,215.810 (3,002)	35.235 (87)	982.935 (2,427)	121.095 (299)	....	....	....	....	117.820 (44)	....
	1957-58	654.885 (1,617)	9.910 (22)	1,153.845 (2,849)	172.530 (426)	....	....	1.215 (3)	....	13.180 (156)	....
	1958-59	338.173 (835)	23.085 (57)	1,165.995 (2,879)	196.830 (486)	....	....	2.430 (6)	....	158.355 (391)	....
	1959-60	609.120 (1,504)	18.225 (45)	936.360 (2,312)	225.990 (558)	....	....	0.810 (2)	....	76.545 (189)	....
	1960-61	357.820 (884)	12.960 (32)	774.765 (1,913)	345.870 (854)	....	....	2.430 (6)	....	47.385 (117)	....
	1961-62	356.805 (881)	54.675 (135)	1,041.660 (2,572)	350.325 (865)	....	....	2.025 (5)	....	81.405 (201)	....
Akrani ..	1952-53	187.920 (464)	2.025 (5)	178.200 (440)	391.635 (967)	....	....	4.860 (12)	....	323.190 (798)	....

TABLE No. 20—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur	Math	Val	Chavali	Vatana*
Akrani — *contd.*	1953-54	294.840 (728)	....	213.030 (526)	450.360 (1,112)	....	....	7.695 (19)	.... ..	518.365 (1,033)	....
	1954-55	429.705 (1,061)	....	245.385 (607)	467.775 (1,155)	....	....	....	....	421.200 (1,040)	....
	1955-56	714.015 (1,763)	.... .	234.495 (579)	417.555 (1,031)	....	....	....	....	353.565 (873)	....
	1956-57	1,145.745 (2,829)	2.025 (5)	301.320 (744)	607.905 (1,501)	....	....	....	....	474.660 (1,172)	....
	1957-58	707.130 (1,746)	.405 (1)	318.330 (786)	707.940 (1,748)	82.215 (203)	....	....	....	470.205 (1,161)	....
	1958-59	752.490 (1,858)	.405 (1)	268.110 (662)	605.070 (1,494)	57.915 (143)	....	....	....	395.685 (977)	....
	1959-60	1,052.190 (2,598)	24.705 (61)	375.030 (926)	878.445 (2,169)	....	....	....	....	451.575 (1,115)	....
	1960-61	461.700 (1,140)	....	334.530 (826)	753.705 (1,861)	104.705 (261)	....	....	13.365 (33)	64.735 (1,58)	....
	1961-62	303.750 (750)	8.505 (21)	421.165 (1,053)	680.400 (1,680)	65.610 (162)	....	....	14.580 (36)	735.075 (815)	....

*Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE No. 21

OUTTURN OF PULSES (TALUKA-WISE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53 to 1961-62)

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur
Dhulia	1952-53	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	560.832 (552)	....	25.400 (25)	....	....	....
	1954-55	364.744 (359)	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	494.792 (487)	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	711.200 (700)	....	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	760.000 (750)	....	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	800.608 (788)	....	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	810.768 (798)	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	810.768 (798)	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	792.480 (780)	....	....	....	....	....

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur
Sindkheda	1952-53	13.208 (13)	....	....	32.512 (32)	....	....
	1953-54	230.932 (227)	594.976 (586)	21.336 (21)	325.120 (320)	....	....
	1954-55	93.471 (92)	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	426.736 (421)	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	535.432 (527)	....	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	272.288 (268)	....	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	272.288 (268)	....	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	330.200 (325)	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	243.840 (240)	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	173.736 (171)	....	....	....	....	....
Shirpur	1952-53	133.096 (131)	292.608 (288)	146.304 (144)	112.776 (111)	....	....
	1953-54	489.712 (482)	2,191.512 (2,157)	130.048 (128)	594.360 (585)	660.400 (650)	....
	1954-55	525.272 (517)	1,739.392 (1,712)	141.224 (139)	515.112 (507)	64.008 (63)	....
	1955-56	640.080 (630)	970.280 (955)	125.984 (124)	462.280 (455)	716.280 (705)	1,539.240 (1,515)
	1956-57	541.528 (533)	1,979.168 (1,948)	192.024 (189)	815.848 (803)	782.320 (770)	492.760 (485)
	1957-58	228.600 (225)	3,097.784 (3,049)	154.432 (152)	357.632 (352)	556.768 (548)	426.720 (420)
	1958-59	243.840 (240)	2,653.792 (2,612)	127.000 (125)	601.472 (592)	336.296 (331)	....
	1959-60	228.600 (225)	3,097.784 (3,049)	154.432 (152)	357.632 (352)	556.768 (548)	....
	1960-61	113.792 (112)	4,714.240 (4,640)	145.288 (143)	366.776 (361)	557.784 (549)	....
	1961-62	113.792 (112)	4,714.240 (4,640)	145.288 (143)	366.776 (361)	....	....
Sakri	1952-53	1,359.408 (1,338)	318.008 (313)	133.096 (131)	1,556.512 (1,532)	....	....
	1953-54	855.472 (842)	513.080 (505)	120.904 (119)	1,223.264 (1,204)	....	19.304 (19)
	1954-55	744.728 (733)	219.456 (216)	134.112 (132)	898.144 (884)	....	14.224 (14)
	1955-56	858.520 (845)	....	64.008 (63)	....	....	....
	1956-57	2,296.160 (2,260)	....	28.448 (28)	....	....	....
	1957-58	2,296.160 (2,260)	....	28.448 (28)	....	....	....
	1958-59	1,837.944 (1,809)	....	60.960 (60)	....	....	....
	1959-60	1,981.200 (1,950)	....	193.040 (190)	....	....	....

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur
Sakri—*contd.*	1960-61	1,093.216 (1,076)	....	105.664 (104)	....	....	....
	1961-62	1,467.104 (1,444)	....	143.256 (141)	....	....	....
Nandurbar	1952-53	711.200 (700)	304.800 (300)	508.000 (500)	635.000 (625)	533.400 (525)	....
	1953-54	399.288 (393)	2,199.640 (2,165)	1,241.552 (1,222)	2,503.424 (2,464)	....	....
	1954-55	1,676.400 (1,650)	642.112 (632)	1,368.552 (1,347)	1,305.560 (1,285)	....	....
	1955-56	1,551.432 (1,527)	608.584 (599)	614.680 (605)	637.932 (627)	....	....
	1956-57	1,353.312 (1,332)	752.856 (741)	521.208 (513)	1,852.168 (1,823)	....	....
	1957-58	1,038.352 (1,022)	1,061.720 (1,045)	617.728 (608)	2,650.744 (2,609)	....	....
	1958-59	826.008 (813)	1,508.760 (1,485)	1,209.040 (1,190)	2,449.576 (2,411)	741.680 (730)	....
	1959-60	826.008 (813)	1,508.760 (1,485)	1,209.040 (1,190)	2,449.576 (2,411)	741.680 (730)	....
	1960-61	826.008 (813)	1,508.760 (1,485)	1,209.040 (1,190)	2,449.576 (2,411)	741.680 (730)	....
	1961-62	828.040 (815)	1,600.200 (1,575)	1,292.352 (1,272)	2,540.000 (2,500)	741.680 (730)	....
Nawapur	1952-53	156.464 (154)	25.400 (25)	284.480 (280)	142.240 (140)	18.288 (18)	....
	1953-54	1,204.976 (1,186)	....	262.128 (258)	....	....	....
	1954-55	974.344 (959)	314.960 (310)	3,446.272 (3,392)	....	....	....
	1955-56	940.816 (926)	228.600 (225)	2,906.776 (2,861)	....	....	....
	1956-57	934·720 (920)	111·760 (110)	1,538·224 (1,514)	....	....	....
	1957-58	1,780.000 (1,750)	....	1,605.280 (1,580)	....	....	....
	1958-59	386.080 (380)	....	1,620.680 (1,605)	....	....	....
	1959-60	386.080 (380)	....	1,620.680 (1,605)	....	....	....
	1960-61	450.096 (443)	....	2145.340 (2,115)	....	....	....
	1961-62	457.200 (450)	....	2,150.872 (2,117)	....	....	....
Shahada	1952-53	313.944 (309)	146.304 (144)	121.920 (120)	264.160 (260)	18.288 (18)	....
	1953-54	1,234.440 (1,215)	713.232 (702)	472.440 (465)	494.792 (487)	33.528 (33)	....
	1954-55	1,348.232 (1,327)	430.784 (426)	243.840 (240)	643.128 (633)	32.512 (32)	....
	1955-56	1,115.568 (1,098)	252.984 (249)	450.088 (443)	372.872 (367)	52.832 (52)	....
	1956-57	1,166.368 (1,148)	514.096 (506)	327.152 (322)	905.256 (891)	87.376 (86)	....

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur
Shahada—*contd.*	1957-58	19,680·936	458·216	330·200	939·800	45·720	....
		(19,371)	(451)	(325)	(925)	(45)	....
	1958-59	553.720	1,346.200	539.496	3,172.968	65.024	....
		(545)	(1,325)	(531)	(3,123)	(64)	....
	1959-60	649.224	1,240.536	640.080	2,768.600	71.120	....
		(639)	(1,221)	(630)	(2,725)	(70)	....
	1960-61	649.224	1,240.536	640.080	2,768.600	71.120	....
		(639)	(1,221)	(630)	(2,725)	(70)	....
	1961-62	649.224	1,240.536	640.080	2,768.600	71.120	....
		(639)	(1,221)	(630)	(2,725)	(70)	....
Taloda	1952-53	136.144	48.768	510.032	351.536	....	....
		(134)	(48)	(502)	(346)	....	....
	1953-54	552.704	....	1,392.936	....	....	....
		(544)	....	(1,371)	....	....	....
	1954-55	525.272	....	1,388.872	....	....	....
		(517)	....	(1,367)	....	....	....
	1955-56	186.944	....	983.488	....	....	....
		(184)	....	(968)	....	....	....
	1956-57	287.528	....	898.144	....	....	....
		(283)	....	(884)	....	....	....
	1957-58	391.160	....	1,165.352	....	....	....
		(385)	....	(1,147)	....	....	....
	1958-59	480.568	....	909.320	....	....	....
		(473)	....	(895)	....	....	....
	1959-60	515.112	....	....	....	....	....
		(507)	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	515.112	....	....	....	....	....
		(507)	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	499.872	39.624	....	552.704	....	....
		(492)	(39)	....	(544)	....	....
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	421.640	....	106.680	....	....	....
		(415)	.	(105)	....	....	....
	1957-58	101.600	....	67. 056	....	....	....
		(100)	....	(66)	....	....	....
	1958-59	52.832	....	68.072	....	....	....
		(52)	....	(67)	....	....	....
	1959-60	327.152	....	....	....	....	....
		(322)					
	1960-61	208.280	....	....	....	....	....
		(205)					
	1961-62	208.280	....	....	....	....	....
		(205)					
Akrani	1952-53	34.544	....	33. 528	60.960	....	....
		(34)	....	(33)	(60)	....	....
	1953-54	77.216	....	74.168	115.824	....	....
		(76)	....	(73)	(114)	....	....
	1954-55	154.432	....	148.336	188.976	....	....
		(152)	....	(146)	(186)	....	....
	1955-56	256.032	....	148.336	168.656	....	....
		(252)	....	(146)	(166)	....	....

*Figures in brackets are in tons.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

(In Metric Tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Gram	Mug	Tur	Udid	Horse-gram	Masur
Akrani—*contd.*	1956-57	203.200 (200)	....	142.240 (140)	152.400 (150)	....	....
	1957-58	175.768 (173)	....	32.512 (32)	162.560 (160)	....	....
	1958-59	175.768 (173)	....	40.640 (40)	152.400 (150)	....	....
	1959-60	320.640 (315)	....	150.368 (148)	284.480 (280)	....	....
	1960-61	357.632 (352)	....	75.184 (74)	150.368 (148)	....	....
	1961-62	302.768 (298)	4.064 (4)	113.792 (112)	142.240 (140)	47.752 (47)	....

*Figures in brackets are in tons.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

PULSES.

Gram.

Of the pulses grown in the district, gram, *mug*, *tur* and *udid* are very important. Gram (*harbhara*) occupied an area of 9,858·556 hectares (24,361 acres) in 1961-62. It is grown all over the district. It is mostly taken as a *rabi* crop between September and January, *i.e.*, after the cessation of monsoon. Severe cold, frost and cloudy weather are harmful to the crop. If grown on well-drained black soil, gram gives best results. On heavy soil it is grown alone as it gives a high yield, while on light soils it is taken as a mixed crop. The field is made ready by September for sowing. One ploughing and 2-3 harrowings are given. About five to seven cart-loads of farm yard manure are applied. Usually the crop is drilled at the rate of 18·144 kg. (40 lb.) per acre. The agriculture department of the State has recommended *chafa* as an improved variety of gram. A common practice of plucking off the tender tops of the shoots before the flowering time is followed. This renders them strong and bushy and increases the outturn of the grain. The gram crop matures in about four months. The plants are pulled out and stacked for about a week in the threshing floor, dried and trampled under the feet of oxen. Sometimes they are beaten with sticks to get the grain.

Mug.

Usually *mug* is grown as a *kharif* crop between June and August when it is sown mixed with cereals. It occupied an area of 25,982·055 hectares (64,203 acres) in 1961-62. It does best on well-drained, medium black soils of the district. Its tillage consists of one ploughing and two harrowings. The seeds are drilled at a distance of 228·6 mm × 304·8 mm (9″ × 12″). The application of five cart-loads of farm-yard manure and 50·802 kg. (112 lb.) of superphosphate are sufficient for an acre. The crop becomes ready for harvest after three and a half months from its sowing. The plants are uprooted and stacked in the threshing floor for about a week, and threshed by beating with sticks or trampling under the feet of oxen.

Tur.

Tur was grown over an area of 8207·032 hectares (20,280 acres) in 1961-62. *Tur* grown as a *kharif* crop is generally sown in June and is ripe for harvest by January. Well-drained and medium to heavy soils are suitable for the crop. It is sown mixed either with cotton or with jowar at a distance of about 914·4 mm (36 inches) between the two rows. Its tillage and the requirement of manures and fertilisers are the same followed for the main crop with which it is sown. *Tur* crop grows very slowly till the main crop is harvested. Its stem becomes thick, woody and strong. Sometimes ripe pods are picked up before the plants are cut. The crop is usually harvested from January onwards. The plants are then cut close to the ground, tied into bundles and carried to the threshing floor where they are beaten with sticks to break open the pods. The green pods of *tur* are eaten as a vegetable. The ripe pulse is split and eaten boiled in various ways.

Udid.

Udid covered an area of 20,734·492 hectares (51,236 acres) in 1961-62. Generally *udid* is grown as a mixed crop with jowar during

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PULSES.

Other pulses.

the *kharif* season *i.e.*, between June and September. The crop in the district is produced in medium black and red laterite soils. One ploughing and two harrowings are given. The seeds are drilled at the rate of 5·443 to 6·804 kg. (12 to 15 lb.) per acre. Five cart-loads of farm yard manure and top dressing of 50·802 kg. (112 lb.) of superphosphate are applied.

The other important pulses grown in the district are horsegram (*hulge*), *math* and *chavali* which occupied an area of 22,078·454; 5,314·741 and 2,860·725 hectares (54,557; 13,133 and 7,069 acres) respectively in 1961-62. Horsegram is mainly produced in Dhulia, Sindkheda, Shirpur, Sakri, Nawapur and Shahada talukas. *Math* is predominantly grown in Dhulia, Sindkheda, Shirpur, Sakri, Nandurbar and Shahada talukas. *Chavali* is taken almost all over the district. All these pulses are grown in *kharif* season as mixed crops with cereals. The cultivating methods and the harvesting operations are more or less the same as those followed in the case of gram, *udid* or *mug*.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Tobacco (*tambakhu*), betel-leaves (*nagvel*), and *ajwan* seed (*owa*) which can generally be included under the category of drugs and narcotics are the only crops which are produced in the district. Their importance in the economy of the district, however, is negligible as they are grown on a very small scale. They together occupied 188·988 hectares (467 acres) of land in 1961-62. Of these *ajwan* seed alone occupied 125·048 hectares (309 acres) and tobacco and betel-leaves occupied 33·994 hectares (84 acres) and 27·947 hectares (74 acres) respectively. In 1961-62 in the whole of State *owa* was produced only in Dhulia district.

Owa.

Owa is grown for its medicinal value and also for its use as a condiment or spice. It is broadcast in the garden land during any time of the year and in the fields with the dry crops usually in July and August. The seed rate is about 0·907 to 1·361 kg. (2 to 3 pounds) per acre. It matures within a period of about three months.

Tobacco.

Tobacco (*tambakhu*) is a minor crop in the district. It was first sown in 1868 by Mr. Ashburner in his garden near Dhulia. Its seed was first brought from Cuba, Havannah and Shiraz seed was supplied by Dr. Balfour of Hyderabad. It occupied an area of 33·994 hectares (84 acres) in 1961-62 of which 30·351 hectares (75 acres) were found in Akrani mahal. Tobacco seed is sown in the seed-beds during the first week of July and the seedlings are transplanted by about the second or the third week of August when they are about 10·2 mm. (four inches) high. They are usually covered with straw to protect them from the sun. Three or four waterings are given. After about one and a half months the flowering shoots appear; they are nipped off and about 12 leaves are left on the plant. The lower yellowish leaves are also removed. The crop becomes ready for harvest by the middle of January when the colour of the leaves turns from green to golden yellow with brown spots and the tips show signs of drying. The plants are then cut early in the morning and kept in the field in a topsy-turvy direction and close to each other. They are also kept for sun-drying for about seven days.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Betel-leaf.

Betel-leaf (*nagvel* or *pan*), a garden crop, was produced only on 29·947 hectares (74 acres) in Nandurbar taluka in the district in 1961-62. The crop needs abundant supply of water. In order to support the vines, numerous trees such as *shevri, pangera* etc. are planted. The garden is planted with cuttings obtained from the best shoots of the older plants. Leaf-picking is generally started at the end of the second year and then it is repeated after every fourth month.

SUGARCANE.

Sugarcane (*Oos*), an important cash crop, is now being increasingly taken in the district. The total area under sugarcane has showed an increase from 974·484 hectares (2,408 acres) in 1952-53 to 2,643·004 hectares (6,531 acres) in 1961-62. It is mainly produced in Sakri taluka. In 1952-53, the total acreage under sugarcane in Sakri taluka was 657·210 hectares (1,624 acres). It increased to 1,038·829 hectares (2,567 acres) in 1961-62. Thus about 68 per cent of the total cultivation of the crop in 1952-53 was in Sakri taluka alone. In 1961-62, however, the percentage went down to 40 even though the area under sugarcane crop was the highest in the district. The fall in the percentage could be explained by the comparative increasing scale on which the crop is being raised in other talukas also. The government has recently sanctioned a sugarcane factory on a co-operative basis at Sakri.

The following tables show the taluka-wise distribution of the area under sugarcane and its outturn in the district from 1952-53 to 1961-62 :—

TABLE No. 22.

AREA UNDER SUGARCANE, DHULIA DISTRICT.

Year	(Area)
1951-52	31
1954-55	29
1957-58	50
1960-61	70
1964-65	63
1966-67	42
1969-70	4,034 Hectares.

(Figures in ·00 acres except for 1969-70)

TABLE No. 23.

OUTTURN OF SUGARCANE, DHULIA DISTRICT.

Year	Outturn
1951-52	68
1954-55	48
1957-58	86
1960-61	116
1964-65	68
1966-67	112
1969-70	31,700 (M. Tons)

(Figures in ·00 Tons except for 1969-70)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SUGARCANE.

The sugarcane crop is essentially a tropical crop and for high outturns moist hot climate and ample supply of water are necessary. It is entirely an irrigated crop. The crops in the district is grown on heavy black and well drained soils. The preseasonal planting of the crop is done in October and November. The usual seasonal planting on the other hand is carried out in December and January. The crop takes about a year for harvesting.

The soil is ploughed well in time about one and a half months prior to planting. Two deep ploughings and in addition about three harrowings are given. The earthing up of soil which is done twice or thrice is completed before the advent of rains. The land is first put into ridges and furrows and the required channels are prepared for irrigation before planting. Water is first let into the furrows and when the soil is wet, selected sets are put in and pressed. The distance between the furrows, however, depends upon the quality of cane and the soil. In the district the distance between the two furrows, generally in the black soil, is between 0·914 and 1·219 metres (3 and 4 feet). About 12,000 to 15000 sets are planted in an acre. *CO/419* and *CO/740* are the improved varieties of cane which have been recommended by the Agriculture department of the State. The rotation crops grown in the district include cotton, jowar and groundnut.

The timely application of manures and fertilisers in sufficient quantity helps increase the yield. The average yield of the crop per acre in the district comes to about 40·64 metric tonnes (40 tons). A basal dose of 20 to 40 cart loads of farm yard manure or compost is given to an acre. Half of the dose is applied before planting. Fertilisers are also applied. The following table shows the different doses of fertilisers given to the crop in different seasons :—

TABLE No. 24

DOSES OF FERTILIZERS GIVEN TO SUGARCANE

(In kilograms*)

Season	At Planting time		After 8 weeks		After 18 weeks		At the time of earthing up	
	Ammonium sulphate	Super phosphate	Ammonium sulphate	Oil-cake	Ammonium sulphate	Oil-cake	Ammonium sulphate	Oil-cake
Adsali Planting (July-August)	102·058 (225)	136·078 (300)	68·039 (150)	680·388 (1,500)	68·039 (150)	408·233 (900)	102·058 (225)	1,360·77 (3,000)
Pre-seasonal Planting (October-November).	86·183 (190)	136·078 (300)	56·699 (125)	566·990 (1,250)	56·699 (125)	340·194 (750)	86·183 (190)	1,088·621 (2,400)
Seasonal Planting (December-January).	68·039 (150)	136·078 (300)	45·359 (100)	453·592 (1,000)	45·359 (100)	272·155 (600)	68·039 (150)	635·029 (1,400)

*Figures in brackets indicate the doses of fertilisers in pounds.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SUGARCANE.

The more important crops in the category of condiments and spices in the district include chillis, garlic, *methi* and coriander. Of these the crop of chillis is the most important cash crop. Other crops such as garlic, *methi* and coriander are produced on a very small scale. In 1961-62, garlic, *methi* and coriander occupied 53·419, 40·469 and 36·422 hectares (132, 100 and 90 acres) respectively. The crop of chillis on the other hand was raised in 12,081/900 hectares (29,855 acres) in 1961-62. Chillis are grown almost all over the district. It is however, produced on a large scale in Nandurbar, Shahada, Sindkheda, Dhulia, Sakri and Taloda talukas. The first three talukas between them covered about 70 per cent of the total area under chillis.

Chillis. Chillis (*mirchi*) are also known as cayenne pepper or red pepper. The chilli crop yields good results when grown in loamy and black soils. It is raised in both the seasons, *kharif* as well as *rabi*. The dry crop of chilli, in *kharif* season is raised in medium black soil and when it is taken as an irrigated crop in *rabi* reason, it is grown on well drained clayey loam. Usually it is grown as a lone crop. The field is thoroughly cultivated by giving a ploughing and two or three harrowings. The seedlings are raised in a nursery and are transplanted when they become 6 to 8 weeks old. About three seedlings are planted together. The distance between the two rows and between the two plants is about two feet. The plants when established, are earthed up by forming a little mound of soil around them. Cereals such as jowar, bajri, etc., are taken as rotational crops in the field in which chillis are generally grown. Ten cart loads of farm yard manure for dry crop of chillis and twenty cart loads of compost or farm yard manure for irrigated crop of chillis are applied for one acre. Green chillis begin to appear after about three months from the planting of the seedlings. The green chillis are picked thrice a month. The ripe chillis are harvested three or four times during the whole season. The irrigated crop of chillis lasts longer and also gives higher yield. The improved varieties of chilli strains are *C2* and *C9*. The long, narrow and tapering variety of chilli and *lavangi*, a small variety that looks like clove are also very common in the district. The chillis are extensively used in daily food.

The following two tables give the area under condiments and spices and the outturn of chillis in the district during the ten years between 1952-53 and 1961-62 :—

TABLE No. 25

TALUKA-WISE AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES IN DHULIA DISTRICT (1952-53 TO 1961-62).

(In Hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Chillis	Turmeric	Coriander	Garlic	Methi
Dhulia	1952-53	482.386 (1192)	....	11·736 (29)	47·348 (117)	....
	1953-54	586·795 (1450)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	1025·069 (2533)	...	....	....	....
	1955-56	758·381 (1874)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	918·232 (2269)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	969·223 (2395)	7·689 (19)	....	19·830 (49)	....
	1958-59	724·388 (1790)	....	12·141 (30)	11·736 (29)	....
	1959-60	1027·902 (2540)	....	....	23·472 (58)	....
	1960-61	1147·285 (2835)	....	....	16·187 (40)	....
	1961-62	963·962 (2382)	....	....	15·378 (38)	....
Sindkheda	1952-53	373·120 (922)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	469·436 (1160)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	1388·073 (3430)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	1455·655 (3597)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	2117·317 (5232)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	2261·790 (5589)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	1926·496 (4758)	....	6·475 (16)	12·950 (32)	....
	1959-60	2290·523 (5660)	....	....	17·806 (44)	....
	1960-61	2451·588 (6058)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	2451·588 (6058)	....	....	8·903 (22)	1·214 (3)
Shirpur	1952-53	174·420 (431)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	116·954 (289)	....	1·214 (3)	2·833 (7)	....
	1954-55	127·881 (316)	....	2·833 (7)	2·428 (6)	....
	1955-56	150·138 (371)	....	....	1·619 (4)	....
	1956-57	187·774 (464)	....	....	0·809 (2)	....
	1957-58	183·323 (453)	....	....	4·047 (10)	....
	1958-59	163·088 (403)	....	0·809 (2)	2·023 (5)	1·214 (3)
	1959-60	216·507 (535)	....	0·809 (2)	9·713 (24)	0·809 (2)
	1960-61	298·658 (738)	....	1·619 (4)	8·903 (22)	3·237 (8)
	1961-62	282·875 (699)	....	....	....	....
Sakri	1952-53	484·004 (1196)	18·211 (45)	....	8·903 (22)	....
	1953-54	723·983 (1789)	10·117 (25)	....	25·091 (62)	....
	1954-55	790·756 (1954)	2·428 (6)	....	16·592 (41)	....
	1955-56	807·753 (1996)	22·258 (55)	4·856 (12)	34·803 (86)	16·592 (41)
	1956-57	830·820 (2053)	....	8·498 (21)	27·114 (67)	12·545 (31)
	1957-58	1033·568 (2554)	....	9·713 (24)	8·903 (22)	12·141 (30)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 25—*contd.*

(In Hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Chillis	Turmeric	Coriander	Garlic	Methi
Sakri *Contd.*	1958-59	721·960 (1784)	....	6·475 (16)	14·973 (37)	....
	1959-60	791·970 (1957)	....	12·950 (32)	37·231 (92)	21·044 (52)
	1960-61	820·299 (2027)	....	8·498 (21)	16·592 (41)	8·498 (21)
	1961-62	739·361 (1827)	....	32·780 (81)	13·759 (34)	1·619 (4)
Nandurbar	1952-53	2103·153 (5197)	....	....	7·284 (18)	3·237 (8)
	1953-54	2067·136 (5108)	3·237 (8)	....	....	....
	1954-55	2802·855 (6926)	23·067 (57)	....	....	....
	1955-56	2607·796 (6444)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	3134·293 (7745)	7·689 (19)	....	..	9·713 (24)
	1957-58	3887·413 (9606)	13·759 (34)	2·833 (7)	5·666 (14)	2·428 (6)
	1958-59	3938·809 (9733)	....	4·856 (12)	1·214 (3)	....
	1959-60	3497·701 (8643)	2·833 (7)	....	....	....
	1960-61	4284·815 (10588)	....	....	....	0·809 (2)
	1961-62	3816·594 (9431)	....	3·237 (8)	1·619 (4)	....
Nawapur	1952-53	109·670 (271)	....	1·214 (3)	....	....
	1953-54	152·971 (378)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	150·543 (372)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	140·021 (346)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	111·289 (275)	....	....	0·405 (1)	....
	1957-58	113·312 (280)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	111·289 (275)	....	....	....	30·351 (75)
	1959-60	92·268 (228)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	121·406 (300)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	110·884 (274)	....	....	....	....
Shahada	1952-53	1286·497 (3179)	....	3·642 (9)	14·164 (35)	32·375 (80)
	1953-54	1549·542 (3829)	....	10·927 (27)	14·164 (35)	12·950 (32)
	1954-55	2284·452 (5645)	....	0·405 (1)	11·736 (29)	0·405 (1)
	1955-56	1906·880 (4712)	....	2·023 (5)	9·309 (23)	3·642 (9)
	1956-57	2136·742 (5280)	....	4·452 (11)	6·475 (16)	4·047 (10)
	1957-58	2544·665 (6288)	....	0·405 (1)	17·402 (43)	4·856 (12)
	1958-59	2272·716 (5616)	....	0·405 (1)	4·452 (11)	....
	1959-60	2419·617 (5979)	....	....	8·094 (20)	0·405 (1)
	1960-61	3444·687 (8512)	....	1·214 (3)	3·642 (9)	6·475 (16)
	1961-62	3090·587 (7637)	....	0·405 (1)	6·880 (17)	2·023 (5)
Taloda	1952-53	358·956 (887)	....	7·284 (18)	0·405 (1)	....
	1953-54	472·269 (1167)	....	0·405 (1)	11·331 (28)	....
	1954-55	633·333 (1565)	....	4·452 (11)	12·545 (31)	....
	1955-56	501·406 (1239)	....	1·214 (3)	14·569 (36)	2·023 (5)
	1956-57	456·081 (1127)	....	0·809 (2)	10·117 (25)	4·047 (10)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 25—*contd.*

(In Hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Chillis	Turmeric	Coriander	Garlic	Methi
Taloda *Contd.*	1957-58	677·849 (1675)	....	....	14·569 (36)	1·619 (4)
	1958-59	666·518 (1647)	....	....	13·759 (34)	....
	1959-60	558·062 (1379)	....	....	44·111 (109)	....
	1960-61	619·979 (1532)	....	....	8·498 (21)	9·308 (23)
	1961-62	520·021 (1285)	....	....	6·880 (17)	35·208 (87)
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	63·131 (156)	....	0·809 (2)	2·023 (5)	....
	1953-54	33·184 (82)	....	....	2·428 (6)	....
	1954-55	57·061 (141)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	22·662 (56)	....	....	0·405 (1)	....
	1956-57	19·425 (48)	....	....	....	0·405 (1)
	1957-58	29·137 (72)	....	....	....	0·405 (1)
	1958-59	46·539 (115)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	29·542 (73)	....	....	0·405 (1)	....
	1960-61	65·964 (163)	....	....	0·405 (1)	....
	1961-62	36·422 (90)	....	....	....	0·405 (1)
Akrani	1952-53	17·806 (44)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	78·509 (194)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	82·151 (203)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	71·225 (176)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	66·773 (165)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	64·345 (159)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	97·529 (241)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	75·676 (187)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	63·131 (156)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	69·606 (172)	....	....	....	....

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 26.

TALUKA-WISE OUTTURN OF CHILLIS IN DHULIA DISTRICT (1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Chillis		Taluka	Year	Chillis	
Dhulia ..	1952-53	208,280	(205)	Nawapur ..	1952-53	111·760	(110)
	1953 54	....			1953-54	....	
	1954-55	....			1954-55	....	
	1955-56	1262·888	(1243)		1955-56	....	
	1956-57	1235·456	(1216)		1956-57	....	
	1957-58	1249·680	(1230)		1957-58	....	
	1958-59	1204·976	(1186)		1958-59	....	
	1959-60	2971·800	(2925)		1959-60	....	
	1960-61	2971·800	(2925)		1960-61	....	
	1961-62	1210·056	(1191)		1961-62	150·368	(148)
Sindkheda ..	1952-53	134·112	(132)	Shahada ..	1952-53	577·088	(568)
	1953-54	167·640	(165)		1953-54	297·688	(293)
	1954-55	....			1954-55	1548·384	(1524)
	1955-56	....			1955-56	1282·192	(1262)
	1956-57	....			1956-57	2154·936	(2121)
	1957-58	....			1957-58	2463·800	(2425)
	1958-59	....			1958-59	2463·800	(2425)
	1959-60	....			1959-60	2772·664	(2729)
	1960-61	....			1960-61	2772·664	(2729)
	1961-62	1423·416	(1401)		1961-62	2772·664	(2729)
Shirpur ..	1952-53	102·616	(101)	Taloda ..	1952-53	....	
	1953-54	....			1953-54	....	
	1954-55	....			1954-55	....	
	1955-56	....			1955-56	....	
	1956-57	....			1956-57	....	
	1957-58	....			1957-58	....	
	1958-59	....			1958-59	....	
	1959-60	....			1959-60	....	
	1960-61	....			1960-61	....	
	1961-62	355·600	(350)		1961-62	512·208	(513)
Sakri ..	1952-53	1215·136	(1196)	Akkalkuwa..	1952-53	....	
	1953-54	1263·472	(1342)		1953-54	....	
	1954-55	....			1954-55	....	
	1955-56	....			1955-56	....	
	1956-57	....			1956-57	17·272	(17)
	1957-58	....			1957-58	20·320	(20)
	1958-59	....			1958-59	32·512	(32)
	1959-60	....			1959-60	....	
	1960-61	....			1960-61	....	
	1961-62	928·624	(914)		1961-62	45·720	(45)
Nandurbar ..	1952-53	508·000	(500)	Akrani ..	1952-53	....	
	1953-54	....			1953-54	8·128	(8)
	1954-55	1675·384	(1649)		1954-55	36·576	(36)
	1955-56	1317·752	(1297)		1955-56	29·464	(29)
	1956-57	1184·656	(1166)		1956-57	28·448	(28)
	1957-58	696·976	(686)		1957-58	12·192	(12)
	1958-59	3200·400	(3150)		1958-59	....	
	1959-60	3200·400	(3150)		1959-60	....	
	1960-60	3200·400	(3150)		1960-61	10·160	(10)
	1961-62	3327·400	(3275)		1961-62	12·192	(12)

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

The fibre crops grown in the district are cotton, *ambadi* and sann or Bombay hemp. Of these cotton is the most important fibre crop. Its various requirements such as rainfall, climate, etc., its method of cultivation and the various improved varieties evolved at the cotton research centres are described in detail in the following account. The other minor fibre crops produced in the district include *ambadi* and sann.

Cotton.

The total area under cotton in the then West Khandesh district was 1,24,172·233 hectares (3,06,836 acres) in 1955-56 which was about 3 per cent of the total area under cotton in the State, viz., 43,98,532·134 hectares (1,08,69,000 acres). The area under cotton in this district was about 16 per cent of the total cultivated area of the district. The cultivation of this sufficiently important cash crop therefore deserves special mention. Out of the ten talukas in the district three talukas were growing *herbaceum* cotton while the rest of the talukas were producing *arboreum* cotton. The area under cotton and its production during the years between 1947-48 and 1955-56 is given below :—

Year	Area in hectares*	Production in bales of 392 lb. each	Year	Area in hectares*	Production in bales of 392 lb. each
1947-48 ...	26,101·842 (64,499)	14,260	1952-53 ...	62,977·235 (1,55,620)	14,300
1948-49 ...	25,369·765 (62,690)	8,038	1953-54 ...	1,03,400·510 (2,55,508)	61,700
1949-50 ...	19,335·087 (47,778)	10,000	1954-55 ...	1,15,110·100 (2,84,443)	41,700
1950-51 ...	44,910·434 (1,10,976)	26,100	1955-56 ...	1,24,172·233 (3,06,836)	40,500
1951-52 ...	57,471·078 (1,42,014)	16,800			

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

The average area under cotton from 1931 to 1940 was 1,80,158·923 hectares (445,182 acres) which reduced to 33,026·829 hectares (81,611 acres) during the period between 1945-46 and 1950-51. This decrease in area under cotton is due to the enforcement of the Grow More Food Campaign during the period, when considerable area under cotton was diverted to the cultivation of food crops. It was also partly due to increase in area under other important cash crops like groundnut which gave very good monetary return to the farmers due to higher prices realised during that period. After the withdrawal of the campaign, area under cotton came up gradually to normal and this rise in area under cotton was particularly noticed from 1950-51 onwards.

[1] The account of cotton is based on the information supplied by the Cotton Specialist, Agriculture Department, Maharashtra State.

The following two tables give taluka-wise area under different fibres including cotton and the outturn of cotton from 1952-53 to 1961-62, respectively :—

TABLE No. 27

TALUKA-WISE AREA UNDER FIBRES IN DHULIA DISTRICT
(1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(In hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Dhulia ..	1952-53	10077·490 (24902)	6·475 (16)	27·923 (69)
	1953-54	17331·892 (42828)	2·428 (6)	31·566 (78)
	1954-55	22648·656 (55966)	2·833 (7)	58·275 (144)
	1955-56	24177·155 (59743)	8·498 (21)	53·823 (133)
	1956-57	18701·349 (46212)	5·666 (14)	45·730 (113)
	1957-58	11774·339 (29095)	7·284 (18)	21·853 (54)
	1958-59	10507·267 (25964)	3·237 (8)	26·305 (65)
	1959-60	12495·085 (30876)	6·070 (15)	21·044 (52)
	1960-61	17134·810 (42341)	26·305 (65)	28·733 (71)
	1961-62	19309·997 (47716)	14·164 (35)	27·923 (69)
Sindkheda ..	1952-53 ..	11048·737 (27302)	....	....
	1953-54 ..	21957·858 (54259)	....	46·944 (116)
	1954-55	22677·794 (56038)	....	77·295 (191)
	1955-56	20336·685 (50253)	....	80·937 (200)
	1956-57	19408·740 (47960)	....	65·964 (163)
	1957-58	13,722·902 (33910)	7·689 (19)	46·539 (115)
	1958-59	13542·007 (33463)	21·448 (53)	28·733 (71)
	1959-60	12835·830 (31718)	174·015 (430)	26·709 (66)
	1960-61	12082·710 (29857)	19·830 (49)	55·037 (136)
	1961-62	17106·886 (42272)	....	42·087 (104)
Shirpur ..	1952-53	11677·214 (28855)	44·920 (111)	74·867 (185)
	1953-54	17831·679 (44063)	12·545 (31)	23·877 (59)
	1954-55	18795·236 (46444)	14·164 (35)	29·542 (73)
	1955-56	20077·282 (49612)	14·973 (37)	67·178 (166)
	1956-57	16087·482 (39753)	18·616 (46)	53·419 (132)
	1957-58	15276·087 (37748)	16·187 (40)	38·041 (94)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Shirpur—*contd.* ..	1958-59	15,107·738 (37,332)	31·566 (78)	48·562 (120)
	1959-60	14,089·952 (34,817)	25·900 (64)	38·041 (94)
	1960-61	13,860·101 (34,249)	55·037 (136)	36·422 (90)
	1961-62	14,587·312 (36,048)	42·897 (106)	46·944 (116)
Sakri ..	1952-53	5,259·704 (12,997)	....	31·161 (77)
	1953-54	7,687·010 (18,995)	24·281 (60)	69·201 (171)
	1954-55	8,519·450 (21,052)	13·759 (34)	47·348 (117)
	1955-56	1,0799·450 (26,686)	19·425 (48)	40·873 (101)
	1956-57	8,137·831 (20,109)	36.017 (89)	16·997 (42)
	1957-58	3,738·489 (9,238)	44·920 (111)	7·284 (18)
	1958-59	3,332·994 (8,263)	41·683 (103)	5·666 (14)
	1959-60	2,895·124 (7,154)	28·328 (70)	20·234 (50)
	1960-61	4,520·343 (11,170)	34·398 (85)	14·973 (37)
	1961-62	5,564·028 (13,749)	56·251 (139)	19·020 (47)
Nandurbar ..	1952-53	3,432·546 (8,482)	81·342 (201)	170·777 (422)
	1953-54	3,095·848 (7,650)	18·211 (45)	107·646 (266)
	1954-55	5,421·578 (13,397)	100·767 (249)	45·730 (113)
	1955-56	6,875·210 (16,989)	55·847 (138)	28·328 (70)
	1956-57	5,938·362 (14,674)	29·542 (73)	74·867 (185)
	1957-58	3,788·266 (9,361)	53·419 (132)	80·128 (198)
	1958-59	3,140·363 (6,760)	....	27·114 (67)
	1959-60	1,146·880 (2,834)	40·873 (101)	17·806 (44)
	1960-61	1,113·291 (2,751)	28·328 (70)	38·850 (96)
	1961-62	2,367·818 (5,851)	59·084 (146)	21·044 (52)
Nawapur ..	1952-53	7,721·814 (19,081)	378·786 (936)	473·887 (1,171)
	1953-54	9,028·949 (22,311)	416·827 (1,030)	487·242 (1,204)
	1954-55	11,971·826 (29,583)	479·958 (1,186)	56·656 (140)
	1956-56	13,149·462 (32,493)	515·975 (1,275)	433·823 (1,072)
	1956-57	14,251·827 (35,217)	345·602 (854)	395·378 (977)
	1957-58	13,686·480 (33,820)	444·345 (1,098)	317·678 (785)
	1958-59	12,576·022 (31,076)	606·624 (1,499)	281·661 (696)

TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Nawapur—*contd.*	1959-60	8,170·610 (20,190)	360·980 (892)	264·664 (654)
	1960-61	9,084·796 (22,449)	305·133 (754)	263·855 (652)
	1961-62	8,748·906 (21,619)	428·563 (1,059)	308·370 (762)
Shahada	1952-53	10,673·998 (26,376)	5·666 (14)	91·459 (226)
	1953-54	20,650·317 (51,028)	10·117 (25)	244·025 (603)
	1954-55	18,414·832 (45,504)	8·498 (21)	145·282 (359)
	1955-56	19,647·100 (48,549)	8·903 (22)	205·985 (509)
	1956-57	16,167·610 (39,951)	16·187 (40)	202·343 (500)
	1957-58	11,584·137 (28,625)	....	145·687 (360)
	1958-59	11,238·130 (27,730)	42·087 (104)	101·576 (251)
	1959-60	7,372·569 (19,218)	....	45·729 (113)
	1960-61	5,766·371 (14,249)	....	29·947 (74)
	1961-62	11,457·470 (28,312)	....	68·797 (170)
Taloda.	1952-53	2,021·406 (4,995)	19·830 (49)	42·087 (104)
	1953-54	4,345·113 (10,737)	28·328 (70)	77·295 (191)
	1954-55	1,864·388 (4,607)	27·519 (68)	60·298 (149)
	1955-56	4,920·982 (12,160)	9·713 (24)	64·750 (160)
	1956-57	3,098·680 (7,657)	10·522 (26)	31·566 (78)
	1957-58	2,100·320 (5,190)	10·927 (27)	27·519 (68)
	1958-59	1,688·755 (4,173)	16·187 (40)	40·064 (99)
	1959-60	564·537 (1,395)	8·903 (22)	11·736 (29)
	1960-61	806·944 (1,994)	23·877 (59)	17·806 (44)
	1961-62	1,623·196 (4,011)	21·853 (54)	21·044 (52)
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	1,065·133 (2,632)	67·987 (168)	83·770 (207)
	1953-54	1,469·819 (3,632)	63·536 (157)	129·095 (319)
	1954-55	3,177·594 (7,852)	42·492 (105)	100·767 (249)
	1955-56	4,169·884 (10,304)	30·756 (76)	73·653 (182)
	1956-57	5,280·748 (13,049)	29·542 (73)	46·134 (114)
	1957-58	5,588·713 (13,810)	55·847 (138)	44.111 (109)
	1958-59	5,747·755 (14,203)	83.770 (207)	72.843 (180)

TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Akkalkuwa—*contd.*	1959-60	2,228·606 (5,507)	....	55.847 (138)
	1960-61	3,745·774 (9,256)	....	36.422 (90)
	1961-62	3,468·159 (8,570)	....	63.940 (158)
Akrani	1952-53	....	2·833 (7)	26.305 (65)
	1953-54	2·023 (5)	23·067 (57)	45.325 (112)
	1954-55	....	19·020 (47)	65.154 (161)
	1955-56	19·020 (47)	22·662 (56)	81.746 (202)
	1956-57	19·020 (47)	34·398 (85)	65.964 (163)
	1957-58	....	13·759 (34)	85.795 (212)
	1958-59	....	17·402 (43)	63.131 (156)
	1959-60	....	....	37.636 (93)
	1960-61	0·809 (2)	6·880 (17)	23.067 (57)
	1961-62	2·833 (7)	6·070 (15)	27.519 (68)

TABLE No. 28

TALUKA-WISE OUTTURN OF FIBRES IN DHULIA DISTRICT (1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(Figures in bales)*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Dhulia	1952-53	88	....	....
	1953-54	2485	....	....
	1954-55	11422	....	....
	1955-56	6018	....	....
	1956-57	4716	....	....
	1957-58	4816	....	....
	1958-59	4511	....	....
	1959-60	4665	....	....
	1960-61	4665	....	....
	1961-62	4890	....	....
Sindkheda	1952-53	914	....	....
	1953-54	2422	....	....
	1954-55	9037	....	....
	1955-56	8332	....	....
	1956-57	7583	....	....
	1957-58	9201	....	....
	1958-59	8827	....	....
	1959-60	6025	....	....
	1960-61	5548	....	....
	1961-62	5325	....	....

*One bale—392 lbs.

TABLE No. 28–*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann Hemp	Ambadi
Shirpur ..	1952-53	272	....	....
	1953-54	11815	....	....
	1954-55	12835	....	....
	1955-56	16537	....	....
	1956-57	1932	....	....
	1957-58	1449	....	....
	1958-59	1669	....	....
	1959-60	2015	....	....
	1960-61	2001	....	....
	1961-62	4670	....	....
Sakri ..	1952-53	4635	6	....
	1953-54	5009	80	15
	1954-55	4001	....	....
	1955-56	5156	....	....
	1956-57	4445	....	....
	1957-58	4445	....	....
	1958-59	1033	....	....
	1959-60	894	....	....
	1960-61	1396	....	....
	1961-62	1718	....	....
Nandurbar ..	1952-53	500	20	....
	1953-54	1878	....	....
	1954-55	1875	....	....
	1955-56	7785	....	....
	1956-57	5541	....	....
	1957-58	1243	....	....
	1958-59	3374	....	....
	1959-60	4074	....	....
	1961-62	4175	....	....
Nawapur ..	1952-53	3500	33	40
	1953-54	6198	....	....
	1954-55	9810	....	....
	1955-56	15162	....	....
	1956-57	1362	....	....
	1957-58	1405	....	....
	1958-59	1302	....	....
	1959-60	6057	....	....
	1960-61	9525	....	....
	1961-62	5201	....	....
Shahada ..	1952-53	3291	1	20
	1953-54	5412	4	89
	1954-55	7545	3	50
	1955-56	14117	....	75
	1956-57	5510	6	94
	1957-58	4057	4	84
	1958-59	4034	....	39
	1959-60	4593	....	35
	1960-61	4593	....	35
	1961-62	4593	....	35
Taloda ..	1952-53	200	....	....
	1953-54	2374	....	....
	1954-55	....	....	....
	1955-56	324	....	....
	1956-57	289	....	....
	1957-58	1341	....	....
	1958-59	162	....	....
	1959-60	....	....	....
	1960-61	....	....	....
	1961-62	283	....	....

TABLE No. 28–*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Cotton	Sann-Hemp	Ambadi
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53	....	....	....
	1953-54	1853	....	....
	1954-55	3706	....	....
	1955-56	8800	....	....
	1956-57	11440	....	....
	1957-58	12330	....	....
	1958-59	12681	....	....
	1959-60	1180	....	....
	1960-61	1983	....	....
	1961-62	1980	....	....
Akrani ..	1952-53	....	....	4
	1953-54	....	2	10
	1954-55	....	6	23
	1955-56	....	7	28
	1956-57	....	5	25
	1957-58	....	....	9
	1958-59	....	....	....
	1959-60	....	....	....
	1960-61	....	....	....
	1961-62	2	....	10

Rainfall and Temperature.

The crop in the district is grown in the tract with an average rainfall of 642·1 mm. (25·28 inches), the normal varying from 284·2 mm. to 976·1 mm. (11·19 to 38·43 inches). The heavy rains in the last week of September or in October cause shedding of buds and immature bolls and affect the yield considerably. In the district, the average maximum and minimum temperature during the crop growth period *viz.*, June to October is 36·7°C (98°F) in June and 21·7°C (71°F) in October respectively. The range of maximum temperature during the crop growth period is 32·8°C to 36·7°C (91°F to 98°F) and that for minimum is 21·7°C to 25·6°C (71°F to 78°F).

Soil.

The soil and climate are suitable for growing an early variety of cotton as the soil cracks heavily after the cessation of the monsoon in the month of October. Cotton is mainly grown on medium black, deep black and river silt soils in the district. These types of soils are mainly found in Dhulia, Nandurbar, Nawapur, Shirpur, Sindkheda, Taloda, Sakri and Shahada talukas. Thus it can be seen that for the peculiar type of rainfall distribution and the types of soils available, a variety which matures within four to five and a half months would be suitable for the tract, except for the three talukas viz., Akkalkuwa, Nawapur and Akrani where the late maturing *Surti type G. herbaceum* is found to be more suitable.

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Method of cultivation.

Cotton is generally cultivated in this district under natural precipitation i.e. as a rain-fed crop. Irrigated cotton is grown on a very small area and part of this irrigated cotton is grown with the varieties *Devi Raj* or H-4 hybrid. The usual rotation followed is a two years rotation of cotton and jowar or three years rotation of cotton, jowar and groundnut, cotton following groundnut.

Preparation of the land is done in heavy soils by giving four or five harrowings and in light soils by giving light ploughing and three harrowings. The crop is manured at the rate of 7½ to 15 cart loads of farm yard manure per acre. Some farmers now-a-days apply 90·718 kg. (200 lb.) of powdered groundnut cake prior to sowing. They also apply ammonium sulphate in two doses one at the time of sowing and the other five to six weeks after sowing. The cotton crop is sown with the outbreak of monsoon in the third week of June. The crops sown after the first week of July give very low yield. The seed is prepared for sowing by pasting with cowdung and mud to facilitate easy dropping from seed drill. It is drilled 457·2 mm. (18 inches) apart with a seed rate of 7·258 kg. (16 lb.), per acre, The crop is thinned out by most of the farmers one month after sowing, maintaining approximately a distance of 228·6 mm. (9 inches) between plants in a row. Three to four interculturings are given during the growth period with a blade hoe and two to three hand weedings are done as and when required. The picking starts by the end of October or from the beginning of November. Generally three pickings are done. The harvesting is over by the end of December. In years when unusually heavy rains are received in October, some times an additional yield is available which is picked up at the end of January.

The cost of cultivation of cotton has increased due to the increase in the wages to labour, cost of manures and seeds, hire charges of implements, land rent and interest on capital.

As a result of experiments conducted on the farm and on the fields of cultivators, the following improved methods of cotton cultivation are recommended :—

(1) Treating the seed with organic mercurial fungicide like agrosan to protect against the disease, *anthracnose,* which causes seedling blight and

(2) Sowing 457·2 (18″) apart with 6·804 kg. (15 lb.) seed rate per acre and then thinning out.

Diseases. *The cotton wilt* disease (*fusarium vasinfectum*) which causes death of young seedlings and also adult plants is common in the tract. The disease is caused by a soil borne fungus and the only remedy is to grow a disease resistant variety. The present variety *Virnar* is found to be resistant. The other diseases which have been causing considerable damage in years of heavy rainfall during the months of

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Diseases.

September and October are the *anthracnose* disease caused by fungus *collectorichum indicum Dast.* It attacks the seedlings causing seedlings blight and affects mature bolls also. The bolls turn black and open prematurely. The lock remains intact i.e. without flowering out and this symptom is locally known as *Kavdi.* Such damaged bolls have yellowish tinge which reduces the quality of the crop. The extent of damage due to this disease is estimated to be nearly about 10 per cent. The disease is controlled by seed treatments with mercurial fungicide or by delinting the seed with concentrated sulphuric acid as the disease is generally carried by the seed. *Blackarm* is another disease observed in the tract which is of minor importance. It generally affects the seedlings and also the bolls resulting in premature opening. Other disease of minor importance is *grey mildew* caused by the fungus *remuleria.*

The fourth disease is the cotton *root-rot.* It is caused by the fungus *macrophomina phaseoli* and in certain seasons when the environmental conditions are favourable for its spread causes good deal of damage when the seedlings are about a month old causing death of seedlings. No control measures are yet known.

Pests. The most important pest is the *cotton bollworm.* The *spotted bollworm Earias species* is a very serious pest of cotton in this region. In the earlier stages it bores the top tender shoots and with the onset of buds it causes shedding of buds and bolls. The other bollworm is *pink bollworm* which is also a serious pest of cotton and is reported to cause a good deal of damage. There are no remedial measures for this pest except the preventive measures like clean cultivation, discouraging of ratooning of cotton crop and cultivation of cotton in the successive years on the same land, prevention of cultivation of summer bhendi and keeping the fields clean of weeds like abutilon, wild *bhendi,* etc., which serve as alternative hosts for the pest.

Varieties grown. In this district out of 10 talukas, 7 talukas grow the variety commercially known as *Khandesh Omras* which is botanically classified as *G. arboreum race bengalensis.* The remaining three talukas *viz.* Akkalkuva, Nawapur and Akrani grow the Surti type of cotton classified botanically as *G. herbaceum acrifolium.*

The area under the two varieties from 1947-48 to 1956-57 is given below :—

(In hectares*)

Year	Area under		Total
	G. arboreum	G. herbaceum	
1947-48 ..	23,148.848 (57,202)	2,952.994 (7,297)	26,101.842 (64,499)
1948-49 ..	21,638.560 (53,470)	3,731.205 (9,220)	25,369.765 (62,690)

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Varieties grown.

(In hectares*)

Year	Area under G. arboreum	Area under G. herbaceum	Total
1949-50 ..	15,672.679 (38,728)	3,662.408 (9,050)	19,335.087 (47,778)
1950-51 ..	33,352.601 (82,416)	11,557.832 (28,560)	44,910.433 (1,10,976)
1951-52 ..	45,518.272 (1,12,478)	11,952.806 (29,536)	57,471.078 (1,42,014)
1952-53 ..	54,312.503 (1,34,209)	8,664.732 (21,411)	62,977.235 (1,55,620)
1953-54 ..	92,899.718 (2,29,560)	10,500.792 (25,948)	1,03,400.510 (2,55,508)
1954-55 ..	99,960.679 (2,47,008)	15,149.420 (37,435)	1,15,110.099 (2,84,443)
1955-56 ..	1,06,833.866 (2,63,992)	17,338.367 (42,844)	1,24,172.233 (3,06,836)
1956-57 ..	87,540.057 (2,16,316)	19,552.404 (48,315)	1,07,092.461 (2,64,631)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

In addition the variety *Jarila* evolved at Jalgaon was also grown in the above mentioned seven talukas in 1943-44. As this variety suffered from late rains and *anthracnose* disease the Cotton Control Act was withdrawn during 1950-52. People then grew any non-descript seed. The variety *Virnar* evolved from the cross *Jarila*×*N.R.S.* was also given out for cultivation in the year 1949-50 and as this variety was very popular with the farmers and fetched high prices it covered the entire area by 1954. The Cotton Control Act was again applied in 1954-55. The variety is being grown over the entire area in the 7 talukas of this district where cotton is grown.

In the remaining three talukas *viz.*, Akkalkuva, Nawapur and Akrani which grew *Surti* type of cotton, the improved variety 1027 *A.L.F.* evolved at Surat was given out for general cultivation and covered the major portion of the area. From 1952-53 the improved variety 2°37 is being given out for general cultivation in this area and has covered the entire area under cotton in these three talukas.

Cotton Improvement. 1830 to 1880.

During the last fifty years the Government tried to introduce foreign cottons and grow them in East and West Khandesh. Attempts were made to introduce Dharwar American cotton as well as *American, Egyptian, Bourbon,* and *Pernambuco,* which were being grown at the experimental farm at Broach. None of these grew well. In 1837 the Bombay Chamber of Commerce opined on the sample of *Dhulia Bourbon cotton* that it was much better than the samples sent during

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the two previous seasons. Attempts were also made to introduce *Broach* as well as *Hinganghat* cotton. In the beginning these types grew well but did not give sufficient good yield. By 1870 it was observed that the short staple local cotton grew quite well here than the other introduced types.

Cotton Improvement, 1880 to 1900.

During this period no special attempts were made by government to improve cotton except studying the local varieties of cotton grown in Khandesh by growing them at Kirkee by the Cotton Specialist, describing them and classifying the same.

1900 onwards.

Further attempts were made in improvement of Khandesh cotton at the Agricultural Experimental Station, Dhulia which was established in 1906. The composition of the local Khandesh cotton was studied in 1906 and it was found to have following composition :

Variety	Plants per acre	Percentage composition
Gossypium neglectum—		
(*a*) Var* *Vera* ..	1,190	3.5
(*b*) Var. *Vera malvensis* ..	200	0.6
(*c*) Var. *Vera Kathiawarensis* ..	5,190	15.2
(*d*) Var. *Rosea* ..	12,850	37.8
(*e*) Var. *Rosea cutchica* ..	14,320	42.1
Gossypium indicum (*Bani*) ..	190	0.6

*Var.—Variety.

In 1908 attempts were made again to grow exotic cotton and about 34 types were tried at the Agricultural Research Station, Dhulia. These types did not come up well and were not likely to be suitable for cultivation.

From 1908 to 1910 bazar samples of cotton seed were obtained from every taluka in Khandesh and the composition was determined. The average proportion in the mixture was found as under :—

Variety	Percentage composition
Gossypium neglectum—	
(*a*) all *vera* types	25.8
(*b*) Var. *Rosea*	40.6
(*c*) Var. *Rosea cutchica*	27.6

It was observed that the proportion of white flower plants was more in talukas of East Khandesh district and even in east Khandesh it was more in the north than in the south. The proportion of the

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white flower variety *viz.*, *Rosea* was lowest in Chalisgaon, Pachora, Bhadgaon and Erandol and was highest in Amalner and Bhusawal. Different constituents were tried at the Agricultural Research Station, Dhulia from 1906 to 1914 and it was observed that the variety *Rosea N.R.* gave higher yield. In 1913 an experimental farm was opened at Jalgaon to multiply pure seed of *N.R.* for supplying the same to farmers. From 1908 various crosses were grown and studied at Dhulia. One cross *Bani* × *Comila* was found to be superior to other crosses. The three varieties were tried at Jalgaon in 1918-19 and the average result showed that the *Rosea N.R.* gave the higher yield and had higher ginning outturn. It was, however valued lower than the other two types. It was, therefore, concluded that the variety N. R. gives the higher outturn consistently as compared to other varieties. Substantial advantages in ginning outturn secured a higher price for the seed cotton in the market. The net profit per acre was very high in the case of variety *Rosea*. It was found to be drought resistant; its bolls opened well, matured uniformly and earlier than the yellow flowered varieties. The Agriculture department of the then Bombay Province was itself distributing pure seed for about 30 thousand acres a year. But in the meantime it was feared that its wider extension may mean a further lowering of the standard of Khandesh cotton, for the staple of the *Rosea* variety (*N.R.*) was not more than half an inch. Further the lint was considered to be extremely coarse and its spinning capacity only reached to 8 *H.S.W.Cs.* The only recourse was to attempt the improvement by selection or by hybridisation to obtain a type with superior staple and equal to *N.R.* in other qualities.

In 1921 cotton breeding work was taken up for both East Khandesh and West Khandesh at Dhulia and a post of Cotton Breeder in Bombay Agricultural Service Class II was created. From the local mixture on hand various bio-types were isolated and studied. One type *N.R.* 6 was found to be superior to all and given out for general cultivation in 1926. From the synthetic material created in 1908 from the cross of *Bani X Comila*, three cultures were isolated and studied. They were not uniform and were found to be segregating. From these, three types were isolated *viz.*, *Dh.1*, *Dh.2* and *B IX 150*. *Dh. 1* was tried at Jalgaon for three seasons and was found to be equal in yielding capacity to *N.R.* It was superior to *N.R.* cotton in ginning outturn and in staple length. It was valued at Rs. 371 per candy against Rs. 335 to Rs. 340 per candy for *N.R.* Cotton. It was given out for general cultivation in 1931 in East Khandesh under the popular name of *Banila*. It was, however, found to be susceptible to wilt disease caused by *Fusarium vasinfectum* and therefore had to be withdrawn. Its distribution was stopped and as it was considered necessary to breed a wilt resistant type, the cotton breeding work was shifted to Jalgaon in East Khandesh in 1931. As a result of work done at Jalgaon, from the bulk seed obtained from Vidarbha of *Virum-262* from a farmer's field, a selection *N.V. 56-3* was isolated in 1934. It was found to be outstandingly superior to *N.R.* and *Banila*

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in quality and was given out for general cultivation in the year 1937. It was estimated that by growing *Jarila* the farmer would get about Rs. 15 more per acre than by growing *Banila*. It was well received by the farmers and covered the entire area by 1943. It was taken as the basis of cotton contracts. As the ginning percentage of *Jarila* was low, further research work was taken up to combine high ginning and fibre qualities of *Jarila*. *Jarila* in latter years suffered very badly from late rains and anthracnose and hence there was a move to replace the variety by a new one. From the cross of *Jarila* × *N.R.* 5 one segregate 197-3 was isolated in 1943 and given out for general cultivation under the popular name '*Virnar*' in 1949. It was estimated that by growing *Virnar* in place of *Jarila* the farmer would get an extra income of about Rs. 40. It covered the entire area of the Khandesh tract in 1953-54. Further research work was in progress to isolate the type which was superior to *Virnar* in fibre qualities and resistant to wilt. In 1952-53 a research station was started at Agricultural Research Station, Dhulia as sub-station of the main station at Jalgaon for cotton improvement work. At present, a variety of *Virnar* viz., *Dokras* 9-2-8-3, is undergoing trials on the farm and also in the district on the cultivators' fields. The *Deviraj* variety 170-Co-2 as also the H-4 hybrid variety are cultivated on irrigated land.

As a result of cotton research work undertaken for the Khandesh tract the following improved varieties were evolved from time to time and given out for general cultivation to the farmers. The economic characteristics of the new varieties in comparison with the local are given below :—

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Cotton Improvement. 1910 onwards.

TABLE No. 29

INFORMATION REGARDING NEW VARIETIES OF COTTON GROWN IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Variety	How evolved	Flower colour	Year of release	Yield per acre in lbs. (kapas or seed cotton)	Ginning %	Yield of lint per acre in lbs	Staple length in	Fibre weight per inch (10-60z)	Spinning Value (H.S.W.C.)	Remarks
				Kg.*		Kg.*	mm.**			
Local	....	white	..	226·796 (500)	36·0	79·379 (175)	12·7 (0·50)	..	6—8	Susceptible to wilt.
N.R.	Selection from Local ..	Do.	1914	226·796 (500)	40·0	70·718 (200)	12·7 (0·50)	0·277	6—8	Do.
Banila	Hybridisation between Bani and Comila	Pale yellow	1926	226·796 (500)	38·5	87·203 (192·5)	17·8 (0·70)	0·180	16—18	Do.
Jarila ..	Selection from Verum from Berar	Deep yellow	1937	204·117 (450)	25·0	71·348 (157·5)	21·3 (0·84)	0·165	25—30	
Virnar ..	Hybridisation between Jarila and N. R. 5	White	1949	226·796 (500)	30·0	88·451 (195)	21·8 (0·86)	0·183	23—30	

* Figures in kg. and those in brackets in lb.
** Figures in mm. and those in brackets in inches.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FIBRES.

Deccan Hemp.

Deccan hemp (*ambadi*) occupied 644·688 hectares (1,598 acres in 1961-62. It is mainly grown in Nawapur, Shahada, Sindkheda, Taloda and Akkalkuwa talukas and in Akrani mahal. Ambadi is usually produced in *kharif* season more or less as a mixed crop along with jowar, bajri or pulses. Its method of cultivation is the same as that given to the other crops with which it is cultivated. The plants are uprooted in October and November when the stalks become dry and the pods are ripe. The leaves and seed are removed by beating with a stick. The stalks tied in big bundles are then kept in water for about 15 days. The bark is then peeled off and fibre is obtained by beating it on a stone.

Bombay Hemp.

Bombay hemp (sann) was grown on 628·882 hectares (1554 acres) in 1961-62. Of the total acreage under sann in 1961-62, Nawapur taluka alone had 428·563 hectares (1059 acres). The crop requires moderate rainfall and can be grown in a variety of soils, e.g. heavy types, clayey loams, black and lateritic soils. Generally it is grown in *kharif* season, and is widely used as a green manure. When it is grown for green manure it is sown thick. After about two months the crop is levelled by a heavy roller and then ploughed in. Within six weeks the sann decays and as a result nitrogen is added to the soil. The sann stalks when used for fibres are cut close to the ground at the commencement of pod setting. The fibre is obtained by adopting more or less the same method as followed in the case of *ambadi*.

OIL-SEEDS.

The oil-seeds produced in the district include groundnut, sesamum and castor. Of these, groundnut occupied an area of 130311.725 hectares (3,22,007 acres), the highest acreage in the State, in 1961-62. Its cultivation is more or less equally distributed all over the district with the exception of Akrani mahal wherein comparatively a very small area is under the crop. Sesamum was grown over 9597.533 hectares (23,716 acres) in 1961-62. This was the second highest in the State in that year, the first being in the Chanda district which had 33386·595 hectares (82500 acres) under the crop. Sesamum is produced all over the district. Its cultivation is, however, mainly concentrated in Shirpur, Sindkheda, Dhulia and Shahada talukas. In regard to the production of castor oil seeds, Dhulia district stood second in the State in 1961-62 when the total area under the crop was 758.381 hectares (1874 acres). Its cultivation was largely concentrated in Akkalkuwa, Nawapur and Nandurbar talukas. The following table gives taluka-wise area under oil-seeds in the district, while table No. 31 gives the outturn of these crops :—

TABLE No. 30

TALUKA-WISE AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(In hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Dhulia	1952-53	25,785·378 (63,717)	1,030·331 (2,546)	10·522 (26)	....	14·569 (36)
	1953-54	12,921·219 (31,929)	1,573·419 (3,888)	1·619 (4)	....	....
	1954-55	21,456·047 (53,019)	1,668·925 (4,124)	....	....	19·020 (47)
	1955-56	22,814·983 (56,377)	1,458·893 (3,605)	2·428 (6)	....	14·973 (37)
	1956-57	31,447·340 (77,708)	1,153·760 (2,851)	1·619 (4)	....	21·853 (54)
	1957-58	35,086·276 (86,700)	1,006·049 (2,486)	....	12·950 (32)	12·545 (31)
	1958-59	31,864·166 (78,738)	878·169 (2,170)	....	5·261 (13)	10·117 (25)
	1959-60	30,014·347 (74,167)	1,223·770 (3,024)	....	6·880 (17)	13·355 (33)
	1960-61	30,083·548 (74,338)	959·915 (2,372)	....	....	14·164 (35)
	1961-62	28,177·477 (69,628)	935·634 (2,312)	....	....	12·950 (32)
Sindkhed	1952-53	22,646·633 (55,961)	2,105·581 (5,203)	....	37·636 (93)	40·064 (99)
	1953-54	8,794·636 (21,732)	2,168·307 (5,358)	....	45·325 (112)	31·566 (78)
	1954-55	17,933·660 (44,315)	1,724·367 (4,261)	22·662 (56)	97·125 (240)	64·750 (160)
	1955-56	14,328·313 (35,406)	1,502·194 (3,712)	79·318 (196)	110·479 (273)	61·917 (153)
	1956-57	20,401·031 (50,412)	2,403·835 (5,940)	7·689 (19)	320·511 (792)	44·920 (111)
	1957-58	26,590·703 (65,707)	2,202·301 (5,442)	3·642 (9)	80·937 (200)	47·753 (118)
	1958-59	28,215·517 (69,722)	2,204·729 (5,448)	1·619 (4)	165·516 (409)	29·947 (74)
	1959-60	27,271·385 (67,389)	2,716·657 (6,713)	....	419·659 (1,037)	23·877 (59)
	1960-61	28,058·904 (69,335)	2,487·605 (6,147)	21·853 (54)	206·794 (511)	36·422 (90)
	1961-62	26,767·146 (66,143)	2,158·999 (5,335)	....	191·012 (472)	45·730 (113)
Shirpur	1952-53	3,958·234 (9,781)	1,565·325 (3,868)	4·047 (10)	4·452 (11)	2·023 (5)
	1953-54	1,356·507 (3,352)	2,273·526 (5,618)	....	4·047 (10)	9·713 (24)
	1954-55	4,082·068 (10,087)	2,925·070 (7,228)	....	11·736 (29)	12·950 (32)
	1955-56	4,602·899 (11,374)	3,242·749 (8,013)	....	18·616 (46)	6·070 (15)
	1956-57	7,418·704 (18,332)	3,800·811 (9,392)	....	34·398 (85)	6·475 (16)
	1957-58	9,324·775 (23,042)	3,001·151 (7,416)	....	15·783 (39)	9·713 (24)
	1958-59	10,610·462 (26,219)	2,610·225 (6,450)	....	10·522 (26)	6·070 (15)
	1959-60	9,262·858 (22,889)	2,192·993 (5,419)	....	14·973 (37)	12·141 (30)
	1960-61	9,145·904 (22,600)	2,033·952 (5,026)	....	....	7·689 (19)
	1961-62	6,279·917 (15,518)	4,306·668 (10,642)	....	....	12·950 (32)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 30—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Sakri	1952-53	14,660·964 (36,228)	523·259 (1,293)	....	....	19·020 (47)
	1953-54	11,196·448 (27,667)	626·454 (1,548)	2·023 (5)	....	18·616 (46)
	1954-55	14,241·305 (35,191)	453·248 (1,120)	19·020 (47)	....	16·997 (42)
	1955-56	12,893·296 (31,860)	439·489 (1,086)	....	....	29·137 (72)
	1956-57	16,908·995 (41,783)	375·548 (928)	....	....	23·472 (58)
	1957-58	22,093·832 (54,595)	297·444 (735)	....	....	13·759 (34)
	1958-59	25,320·394 (62,568)	226·219 (559)	10·927 (27)	....	6·880 (17)
	1959-60	24,795·111 (61,270)	250·096 (618)	....	....	10·117 (25)
	1960-61	25,044·802 (61,887)	206·794 (511)	....	....	13·355 (33)
	1961-62	26,118·030 (64,539)	289·755 (716)	....	....	7.689 (19)
Nandurbar	1952-53	12,261·986 (30,300)	770·927 (1,905)	33·589 (83)	68·392 (169)	176.038 (435)
	1953-54	89,05·115 (22,005)	831·630 (2,055)	....	65·559 (162)	135·570 (335)
	1954-55	14,261·539 (35,241)	1,536·997 (3,798)	60·298 (149)	33·994 (84)	149.329 (369)
	1955-56	10,784,·477 (26,649)	1,065·134 (2,632)	18·211 (45)	157·018 (388)	262·236 (648)
	1956-57	12,558·621 (31,033)	697·679 (1,724)	54 228 (134)	218·935 (541)	119·382 (295)
	1957-58	16,799·325 (41,512)	590·032 (1,458)	14·569 (36)	99.148 (245)	83·365 (206)
	1958-59	20,246·441 (50,030)	350·458 (866)	18·616 (46)	57·465 (142)	55·442 (137)
	1959-60	18,945·375 (46,815)	299·467 (740)	6·070 (15)	64·750 (160)	25·091 (62)
	1960-61	17,817·515 (44,028)	205·985 (509)	3·237 (8)	16·187 (40)	27·114 (67)
	1961-62	18,933·128 (46,933)	300·277 (742)	10·522 (26)	....	15·378 (38)
Nawapur	1952-53	798·445 (1,973)	1,460·916 (3,610)	....	....	1 477·104 (3,650)
	1953-54	1,117·743 (2,762)	1,599·724 (3,953)	....	....	17,70·501 (4,375)
	1954-55	2,690·757 (6,649)	1,180·874 (2 918)	....	....	524·473 (1,296)
	1955-56	2,382·791 (5,888)	598.531 (1,479)	....	....	865·219 (2,138)
	1956-57	1,680·256 (4,152)	245·644 (607)	....	....	778·616 (1,924)
	1957-58	1,947·349 (4,812)	315·250 (779)	....	....	566·965 (1,401)
	1958-59	2,359·724 (5,831)	340·745 (842)	....	....	536·614 (1,326)
	1959-60	2,640·576 (6,525)	295·016 (729)	....	....	360·980 (892)
	1960-61	2,558·020 (6,321)	225·815 (558)	....	....	171·182 (423)
	1961-62	3,413·931 (8,436)	249·691 (617)	....	....	191·416 (473)
Shahada	1952-53	6,679·747 (16.506)	1,370·671 (3,387)	1·619 (4)	27·519 (68)	20·234 (50)

TABLE No. 30—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Shahada—*contd.*	1953-54	4,279·150 (10,574)	2,104·367 (5,200)	10·927 (27)	26·305 (65)	27·114 (67)
	1954-55	9,209·035 (22,756)	1,636·145 (4,043)	....	94·696 (234)	19·020 (47)
	1955-56	5,154·890 (12,738)	1,970·416 (4,869)	16·187 (40)	96·315 (238)	34·803 (86)
	1956-57	7,872·357 (19,453)	1,584·346 (3,915)	23·067 (57)	256·571 (634)	16·187 (40)
	1957-58	11,476·086 (28,358)	1,367·434 (3,379)	4·047 (10)	186·965 (462)	65·154 (161)
	1958-59	16,511·189 (40,800)	874·931 (2,162)	1·214 (3)	91·054 (225)	46·134 (114)
	1959-60	22,716·239 (56,133)	809·777 (2,001)	....	92·268 (228)	14·164 (35)
	1960-61	15,007·780 (37,085)	638·190 (1,577)	....	89·031 (220)	7·689 (19)
	1961-62	5,792·466 (39,024)	929·564 (2,297)	....	66·368 (164)	83·770 (207)
Taloda	1952-53	3,356·061 (8,293)	242·002 (598)	....	....	167·540 (414)
	1953-54	3,432·547 (8,482)	223·386 (552)	8·094 (20)	28·328 (70)	321·725 (795)
	1954-55	5,515·061 (13,628)	377·572 (933)	9·713 (24)	12·950 (32)	136·784 (338)
	1955-56	2,528·073 (6,247)	269·116 (665)	13·355 (33)	55·037 (136)	270·735 (669)
	1956-57	3,259·341 (8,054)	87·007 (215)	31·566 (78)	114·121 (282)	101·981 (252)
	1957-58	4,139·938 (10,230)	146·901 (363)	3·237 (8)	129·095 (319)	78·104 (193)
	1958-59	5,721·046 (14,137)	107·242 (265)	15·783 (39)	94·292 (233)	78·509 (194)
	1959-60	4,073·974 (10,067)	47·753 (118)	14·973 (37)	40·469 (100)	48·562 (120)
	1960-61	3,799·597 (9,389)	52·609 (130)	2·428 (6)	33·184 (82)	34·803 (86)
	1961-62	3,982·110 (9,840)	110·074 (272)	3·642 (9)	26·305 (65)	21·448 (53)
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	1,005·240 (2,484)	810·991 (2,004)	....	4·451 (11)	2,375·507 (5,870)
	1953-54	1,252·098 (3,094)	420·469 (1,039)	....	....	2,889·053 (7,139)
	1954-55	1,921·449 (4,748)	209·222 (517)	....	....	1,487·626 (3,676)
	1955-56	705·772 (1,744)	83·770 (207)	....	....	1,871·673 (4,625)
	1956-57	603·387 (1,491)	103·600 (256)	....	....	932·801 (2,305)
	1957-58	734·505 (1,815)	93·078 (230)	....	....	827·988 (2,046)
	1958-59	945·751 (2,337)	70·820 (175)	....	....	634·548 (1,568)
	1959-60	463·365 (1,145)	29·137 (72)	....	....	512·737 (1,267)
	1960-61	290·160 (717)	15·378 (38)	....	....	456·486 (1,128)
	1961-62	405·900 (1,003)	35·612 (88)	....	....	367·050 (907)
Akrani Mahal	1952-53	21·044 (52)	125·048 (309)	....	....	....
	1953-54	66·773 (165)	370·287 (915)	....	....	....
	1954-55	70·011 (173)	369·073 (912)	....	....	....

TABLE No. 30—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Akrani Mahal—*contd.*	1955-56	110·074 (272)	248·477 (614)	....	....	....
	1956-57	94·696 (234)	102·385 (253)	....	....	5·261 (13)
	1957-58	136·379 (337)	89·840 (222)	....	....	2·833 (7)
	1958-59	247·263 (611)	74·057 (183)	....	....	2·428 (6)
	1959-60	270·735 (669)	75·272 (186)	....	....	....
	1960-61	229·861 (568)	62·322 (154)	....	....	....
	1961-62	381·619 (943)	281·257 (695)	....	....	....

TABLE No. 31.

TALUKA-WISE AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS IN DHULIA DISTRICT
(1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Dhulia	1952-53	192·024 (189)	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	10,137·648 (9,978)	705·104 (694)	1·016 (1)	....	11·176 (11)
	1954-55	11,542·776 (11,361)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	11,455·400 (11,275)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	21,148·040 (20,815)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	21,656·040 (21,315)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	20,238·720 (19,920)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	19,512·280 (19,205)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	19,512·280 (19,205)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	19,586·448 (19,278)				
Sindkheda	1952-53	3,807·968 (3,748)	44·704 (44)	....	....	1·016 (1)
	1953-54	2,298·192 (2,262)	....	....	5·080 (5)	....

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

TABLE No. 31—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Sindkheda—*contd.*	1954-55	5,505·704 (5,419)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	7,494·016 (7,376)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	10,913·872 (10,742)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	13,787·120 (13,570)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	13,326·872 (13,117)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	14,342·872 (14,117)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	16,167·608 (15,913)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	13,934·440 (13,715)	....	....	....	....
Shirpur	1952-53	777·240 (765)	....	2·032 (2)	1·016 (1)	....
	1953-54	878·840 (865)	849·376 (836)	....	....	....
	1954-55	2,669·032 (2,627)	1,093·216 (1,076)	....	....	....
	1955-56	3,371·088 (3,318)	970·280 (955)	....	....	....
	1956-57	4,863·592 (4,787)	111·760 (110)	....	....	....
	1957-58	8,023·352 (7,897)	712·216 (701)	....	....	....
	1958-59	4,281·424 (4,214)	658·368 (648)	....	....	....
	1959-60	8,023·352 (7,897)	712·216 (701)	....	....	....
	1960-61	8,006·080 (7,880)	690·880 (680)	....	....	....
	1961-62	8,006·080 (7,880)	690·880 (680)	....	....	....
Sakri	1952-53	14,452·600 (14,225)	469·392 (462)	....	....	13·208 (13)
	1953-54	8,281·416 (8,151)	421·640 (415)	....	....	11·176 (11)
	1954-55	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	....	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	....	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	17,436·592 (17,162)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	18,675·096 (18,381)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	18,875·248 (18,578)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	21,857·208 (21,513)	....	....	....	....
Nandurbar	1952-53	2,032·000 (2,000)	203·200 (200)	6·096 (6)	15·240 (15)	40·640 (40)
	1953-54	5,821·680 (5,730)	128·016 (126)	....	....	....
	1954-55	3,585·464 (3,529)	403·352 (397)	15·240 (15)	8·128 (8)	38·608 (38)
	1955-56	42,30·624 (4,164)	411·480 (405)	7·172 (7)	60·960 (60)	77·216 (76)

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

TABLE No. 31—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Nandurbar—*contd*	1956-57	4,749·800 (4,675)	158·496 (156)	12·192 (12)	55·880 (55)	26·416 (26)
	1957-58	6,615·176 (6,511)	66·040 (65)	2·032 (2)	15·240 (15)	14·224 (14)
	1958-59	25,532·080 (25,130)	98·552 (97)	5·080 (5)	14·224 (14)	15·240 (15)
	1959-60	21,554·480 (21,215)	93·472 (92)	5·080 (5)	14·224 (14)	15·240 (15)
	1960-61	21,554·480 (21,215)	93·472 (92)	....	....	....
	1961-62	24,815·800 (24,425)	101·600 (100)	....	....	....
Nawapur	1952-53	37·592 (37)	149·352 (147)	....	....	....
	1953-54	560·832 (552)	474·472 (467)	....	....	658·368 (648)
	1954-55	2,111·248 (2,078)	529·336 (521)	....	....	232·664 (229)
	1955-56	1,330·960 (1,310)	210·312 (207)	....	....	284·480 (280)
	1956-57	878·840 (865)	73·152 (72)	....	....	232·664 (229)
	1957-58	965·200 (950)	76·200 (75)	....	....	205·232 (202)
	1958-59	894·080 (880)	81·280 (80)	....	....	208·280 (205)
	1959-60	894·080 (880)	81·280 (80)	....	....	208·280 (205)
	1960-61	894·080 (880)	81·280 (80)	....	....	....
	1961-62	2,936·240 (2,890)	70·104 (69)	....	....	....
Shahada	1952-53	1,569·720 (1,545)	306·832 (302)	....	2·032 (2)	4·460 (4)
	1953-54	2,877·312 (2832)	834·136 (821)	4·064 (4)	8·128 (8)	7·172 (7)
	1954-55	3,698·240 (3,640)	736·600 (725)	3·048 (3)	14·224 (14)	4·064 (4)
	1955-56	3,466·592 (3,412)	662·432 (652)	6·096 (6)	26·416 (26)	9·144 (9)
	1956-57	5,179·568 (5,098)	479·552 (472)	2·032 (2)	60·960 (60)	2·032 (2)
	1957-58	7,128·256 (7,016)	305·816 (301)	....	50·800 (50)	....
	1958-59	11,305·032 (11,127)	219·456 (216)	....	38·608 (38)	23·368 (23)
	1959-60	11,105·896 (10,931)	221·488 (218)	....	42·672 (42)	20·320 (20)
	1960-61	11,105·896 (10,931)	221·488 (218)	....	42·672 (42)	20·320 (20)
	1961-62	11,105·896 (10,931)	221·488 (218)	....	42·672 (42)	20·320 (20)
Taloda	1952-53	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	1,795·272 (1,767)	....	....	8·128 (8)	....
	1954-55	3,605·784 (3,549)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	1,395·984 (1,374)	....	....	14·224 (14)	....
	1956-57	1,192·784 (1,174)	....	....	....	....

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

TABLE No. 31—*contd.*

(In Metric tonnes)*

Taluka	Year	Groundnut	Sesamum	Mustard	Linseed	Castor
Taloda—*contd.*	1957-58	1,997·456 (1,966)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59	4,162·552 (4,097)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	3,390·392 (3,337)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	3,390·392 (3,337)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	3,934·968 (3,873)	....	....	....	....
Akkalkuwa	1952-53	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54	....	....	....	....	....
	1954-55	....	....	....	....	....
	1955-56	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	418·592 (412)	....	....	....	....
	1957-58	228·600 (225)	....	....	....	139·192 (137)
	1958-59	284·480 (280)	....	....	....	217·791 (105)
	1959-60	416·560 (410)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	260·096 (256)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	288·544 (284)	....	....	....	....
Akrani Mahal	1952-53	7·112 (7)	40·640 (40)	....	....	....
	1953-54	19·340 (19)	103·632 (102)	....	....	....
Akrani Mahal—*contd.*	1954-55	25·400 (25)	149·352 (147)	....	....	....
	1955-56	33·528 (33)	100·584 (99)	....	....	....
	1956-57	30·480 (30)	91·440 (90)	....	....	....
	1957-58	41·656 (41)	12·192 (12)	....	....	....
	1958-59	93·472 (92)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	49·784 (49)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	....	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	314·960 (310)	221·488 (218)	....	....	....

* Figures in brackets are in tons.

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OIL-SEEDS.

Groundnut.

The groundnut (*bhuimug*) crop is grown mainly as a *kharif* crop in the district. Light sandy-soil, medium black but well drained and good alluvial loams are favourable for groundnut. Fields are ploughed and harrowed to get a good seed bed for sowing the crop. Manures are also applied. After 2/3 showers of monsoon *i.e.* about the end of June groundnut seed are sown with a three coultered drill or are dibbled. The distance kept between the rows in case of erect varieties and that for spreading or creeping varieties is about 304·8 mm. (12 inches) and 457·2 mm. (18 inches), respectively. The rotational crops taken by the cultivators of the tract are cotton, jowar and bajri in that order. The seed rate, per acre in the case of spreading and erect varieties is 27·216 to 36·287 kg. (60 to 80 lbs.) and 36·287 to 45·359 kg. (80 to 100 lbs.), respectively. The basal dose of manures per acre consists of five cart loads of farm-yard manure as top dressing, 50·802 kg. (112 lbs) of superphosphate and 25·401 kg. (56 lbs) of ammonium sulphate before sowing.

After sowing the seedlings are seen to take roots in the soil in about two weeks. In about one and a half month the crop is intercultured with one hoe. One or two weedings are also required. The flowering starts after about two months. The crop usually takes about 3½ to 4 months to ripen. The harvesting consists of pulling the plants up by the workers as also with the help of a plough. The pods are then picked by hand. The Spanish improved variety of groundnut is recommended by the agriculture department as an improved strain of the crop for the district.

The groundnut crop is mainly cultivated for oil. The groundnut may however be eaten raw or cooked. Its oil is used in cooking, in the manufacture of *vanaspati*, in soap industry, etc. Its leaves and branches form good fodder. Its cake is also a very highly concentrated food for cattle.

Seasamum.

The sesamum (*til*) crop is usually grown as a *kharif* crop on light sandy loams or light soil. It is produced mainly as a rainfed crop. It is taken either as a single entire crop or as a mixed or bordered crop. The field is got ready by repeated ploughing and harrowing. Before sowing the seed, usually in June-July, it is mixed either with ash, sand or manure or with the seed of the main crop with which it is sown. The crop matures within three or four months. It is harvested in September–October. The plants are cut close to the ground, and collected in bundles and allowed to dry. The grain pods split open and the seed are extracted by shaking the plants against the ground.

Castor.

Among non-edible oil-seeds, castor is grown both as a *kharif* and a *rabi* crop. It is produced on deep red loams both sandy and clayey and also on good light alluvial loams. Two types of plants are grown, annual and perennial. The annual varieties are smaller. The perennial varieties are mainly grown along the irrigation water channels on the borders of sugarcane fields and in garden lands. The *kharif* castor crop is generally sown in June-July and it ripens in

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OIL-SEEDS.

Castor.

December. When the crop is grown single its seeds are drilled. The plants grow to a height of about 3 metres (10 feet) and bear for several months. The seeds are gathered after the end of February of the following year. The castor oil is used in soap industry and in medicine. It is also used as a hair oil after perfuming, and for burning purposes and for lubrication.

FRUITS.

The principal fruit trees grown in the district, except Akkalkuwa taluka and Akrani mahal where no fruit trees are cultivated, include banana, mango, lime, sweet-lime, orange and guava. Of these, banana and mango are important fruit trees in the district. The following table gives the taluka-wise area under fruit trees in the district :—

TABLE No. 32

TALUKA-WISE[1] AREA UNDER FRUITS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53 TO 1961-62)

(In hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Banana	Mango	Lime	Sweet-lime	Orange	Guava
Dhulia	1952-53	65·559 (162)	10·927 (27)	3·642 (9)	11·736 (29)	16·187 (40)	9·308 (23)
	1953-54	56·656 (140)	10·522 (26)	6·475 (16)	11·736 (29)	15·378 (38)	....
	1954-55	41·278 (102)	2·428 (6)	4·047 (10)	10·927 (27)	6·070 (15)	6·070 (15)
	1955-56	57·465 (142)	2·833 (7)	13·355 (33)	....	6·070 (15)	....
	1956-57	89·031 (220)	25·495 (63)	5·666 (14)	....	4·452 (11)	....
	1957-58	93·078 (230)	40·469 (100)	7·284 (18)	....	6·070 (15)	8.903 (22)
	1958-59	83·365 (206)	40·873 (101)	4·856 (12)	4·047 (10)	....	9·713 (24)
	1959-60	135·165 (334)	33·994 (84)	6·880 (17)	10·117 (25)	1·619 (4)	....
	1960-61	106·432 (263)	73·653 (182)	6·475 (16)	14·569 (36)	6·070 (15)	....
	1961-62	118·168 (292)	80·532 (199)	13·759 (34)	2·023 (5)	5·666 (14)	4·047 (10)
Sindkheda	1952-53	8·498 (21)	17·402 (43)	7·689 (19)	42·492 (105)	6·070 (15)	75·272 (186)
	1953-54	8·498 (21)	17·402 (43)	7·689 (19)	42·492 (105)	6·070 (15)	75·272 (186)
	1954-55	10·117 (25)	12·141 (30)	5·261 (13)	8·498 (21)	2·428 (6)	31·566 (78)
	1955-56	10·522 (26)	9·713 (24)	6·475 (15)	27·114 (67)	4·452 (11)	32.375 (80)
	1956-57	11·331 (28)	10·927 (27)	1·619 (4)	7·689 (19)	0·809 (2)	69.606 (172)
	1957-58	21·853 (54)	11·331 (28)	....	10·117 (25)	2·428 (6)	69·201 (171)
	1958-59	17·806 (44)	11·331 (28)	2·833 (7)	55·847 (138)	10·117 (25)	69·201 (171)
	1959-60	14·569 (36)	23·877 (59)	7·284 (18)	17.806 (44)	0.405 (1)	....
	1960-61	12·141 (30)	21·853 (54)	7·284 (18)	16·592 (42)	0·405 (1)	....
	1961-62	7·689 (19)	27·114 (67)	0·809 (2)	14·164 (35)	....	....
Shirpur	1952-53	2·023 (5)	4·452 (11)	1·214 (3)	4·452 (11)	5·666 (14)	....
	1953-54	8·094 (20)	3·642 (9)	1·214 (3)	....	2·428 (6)	0·405 (1)
	1954-55	10·522 (26)	....	....	....	10·522 (26)	0·809 (2)
	1955-56	16·187 (40)	4·452 (11)	1·619 (4)	1·214 (3)	0·809 (2)	0·405 (1)
	1956-57	20·234 (50)	1·619 (4)	0·809 (2)	1·214 (3)	1·214 (3)	2·023 (5)
	1957-58	20·639 (51)	4·856 (12)	0·809 (2)	5·261 (13)	11·331 (18)	2·023 (5)
	1958-59	14·569 (36)	10·927 (27)	0·809 (2)	1·619 (4)	2·023 (5)	2·023 (5)
	1959-60	3·237 (8)	1·214 (3)	0·809 (2)	0·405 (1)	3·237 (8)	....
	1960-61	11·331 (28)	2·023 (5)	1·214 (3)	1·214 (3)	4·452 (11)	1·214 (3)
	1961-62	7·689 (19)	....	0·809 (2)	0·405 (1)	0.405 (1)	....

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

1. There is no area under fruits in Akrani Taluka.

TABLE No. 32–*contd.*

(In hectares)*

Taluka	Year	Banana	Mango	Lime	Sweet-lime	Orange	Guava
Sakri	1952-53	2.023 (5)	14.569 (36)	....	....	....	0.405 (1)
	1953-54	1.214 (3)	14.164 (35)	....	0.405 (1)	....	0.809 (2)
	1954-55	....	14.164 (35)	....	0.405 (1)	....	0.809 (2)
	1955-56	....	4.047 (10)	1.214 (3)	0.405 (1)		
	1956-57	....	6.475 (16)	1.619 (4)	....	....	....
	1957-58	....	16.187 (40)	2.428 (6)	....	....	....
	1958-59	....	10.117 (25)	....	....	....	....
	1959-60	....	10.117 (25)	....	....	....	....
	1960-61	....	12.140 (30)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	....	12.140 (30)	....	....	....	....
Nandurbar	1952-53	68.392 (169)	12.950 (32)	0.405 (1)	7.689 (19)	4.452 (11)	0.809 (2)
	1953-54	38.445 (95)	3.642 (9)	0.405 (1)	31.566 (78)	10.927 (27)	....
	1954-55	83.365 (205)	1.619 (4)	0.405 (1)	2.428 (6)	8.498 (21)	....
	1955-56	91.864 (227)	12.545 (31)	0.405 (1)	3.237 (8)	2.428 (6)	0.809 (2)
	1956-57	110.479 (273)	....	....	8.903 (22)	....	....
	1957-58	158.637 (392)	2.833 (7)	...	14.973 (37)	8.094 (20)	....
	1958-59	157.827 (390)	4.047 (10)	0.405 (1)	4.856 (12)	68.797 (170)	....
	1959-60	40.064 (99)	3.237 (8)	4.047 (10)	106.028 (262)	6.070 (15)	0.809 (2)
	1960-61	107.646 (266)	0.809 (2)	3.237 (8)	6.475 (16)	1.619 (4)	....
	1961-62	161.470 (399)	1.619 (4)	1.619 (4)	7.689 (19)	2.428 (6)	1.214 (3)
Nawapur	1952-53	5.666 (14)	8.903 (22)	2.023 (5)	....	2.023 (5)	....
	1953-54	5.666 (14)	5.261 (13)	0.403 (1)	....	....	....
	1954-55	3.237 (8)	6.880 (17)	1.619 (4)	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	....
	1955-56	3.642 (9)	12.141 (30)	1.619 (4)	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	0.405 (1)
	1956-57	3.237 (8)	11.331 (28)	2.023 (5)	....	0.405 (1)	0.405 (1)
	1957-58	1.619 (4)	8.903 (22)	1.619 (4)	....	0.405 (1)	....
	1958-59	0.405 (1)	16.187 (40)	6.475 (16)	0.809 (2)	1.214 (3)	....
	1959-60	0.809 (2)	10.927 (27)	2.023 (5)	0.405 (1)	....	....
	1960-61	0.809 (2)	10.927 (27)	2.023 (5)	0.405 (1)	....	....
	1961-62	4.452 (11)	16.187 (40)	0.809 (2)	....	....	....
Shahada	1952-53	131.523 (325)	21.448 (53)	4.047 (10)	....	26.305 (65)	9.308 (23)
	1953-54	166.326 (411)	11.736 (29)	2.023 (5)	....	59.489 (147)	4.856 (12)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

TABLE No. 32—*contd.*

Taluka	Year	Banana	Mango	Lime	Sweet-lime	Orange	Guava
Shahada—*contd.*	1954-55 ..	141.235 (349)	17.402 (43)	0.405 (1)	....	49.776 (123)	0.809 (2)
	1955-56 ..	169.968 (420)	19.020 (47)	2.023 (5)	23.472 (58)	27.519 (68)	0.809 (2)
	1956-57 ..	258.594 (639)	12.950 (32)	....	....	46.539 (115)	....
	1957-58 ..	283.280 (700)	23.067 (57)	3.642 (9)	9.713 (24)	13.355 (33)	....
	1958-59 ..	291.778 (721)	23.067 (57)	3.642 (9)	8.498 (21)	8.903 (22)	....
	1959-60 ..	299.872 (741)	22.258 (55)	3.237 (8)	16.187 (40)	6.070 (15)	10.117 (25)
	1960-61 ..	358.147 (885)	26.305 (65)	4.856 (12)	12.950 (32)	15.378 (38)	....
	1961-62 ..	412.375 (1,019)	26.305 (65)	6.880 (17)	28.733 (71)	33.994 (84)	....
Taloda ..	1952-53 ..	9.713 (24)	10.927 (27)	1.619 (4)	....	....	....
	1953-54 ..	29.542 (73)	4.047 (10)	0.405 (1)	....	....	4.047 (10)
	1954-55 ..	5.666 (14)	25.900 (64)	0.405 (1)	0.809 (2)	2.833 (7)	4.856 (12)
	1955-56 ..	44.920 (111)	6.070 (15)	3.642 (9)	1.214 (3)	....	7.689 (19)
	1956-57 ..	53.823 (133)	6.070 (15)	0.405 (1)	2.023 (5)	....	6.880 (17)
	1957-58 ..	45.730 (113)	1.214 (3)	....	0.809 (2)	....	5.666 (14)
	1958-59 ..	40.873 (101)	9.308 (23)	....	0.809 (2)	....	5.666 (14)
	1959-60 ..	40.469 (100)	8.903 (22)	....	0.405 (1)	....	....
	1960-61 ..	29.947 (74)	7.284 (18)	9.713 (24)	....	....	....
	1961-62 ..	8.903 (22)	9.713 (24)	4.047 (10)	....	....	7.284 (18)
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53 ..	1.619 (4)	....	....	....	....	....
	1953-54 ..	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....
	1954-55 ..	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....
	1955-56 ..	0.405 (1)	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....
	1956-57 ..	....	2.023 (5)				
	1957-58 ..	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....
	1958-59 ..	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....	....
	1959-60 ..	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1960-61 ..	....	0.809 (2)	....	....	....	....
	1961-62 ..	....	0.405 (1)	....	....	....	....

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FRUITS.

Banana.

Banana (*kele*) occupied an area of 720·745 hectares (1781 acres) in 1961-62. The cultivation of this crop is mainly concentrated in Shahada, Nandurbar, Dhulia, Taloda, Sindkheda and Shirpur talukas. Banana in the district is grown in deep, heavy soils having good drainage. The field is brought to a fine tilth by ploughing and harrowing it. Shallow furrows are prepared 1·371 × 1·371 metres (4½ × 4½ feet) or 1·829 by 1·829 metres (6 feet by 6 feet) (for tall varieties) and suckers (*kand*) are planted at each crossing of the furrows in loose surface soil sometime between June and August. It requires watering from September onwards when the rainy season is almost over and continues upto the beginning of next monsoon. Timely and heavy irrigation is very important. About 18·144 kg. (40 lb.) of farm yard manures is applied at the time of planting each sucker. After planting, a mixture of 0·113 kg. (¼ pound) of ammonium sulphate, 0·907 kg. (two pounds) of superphosphate and 0·907 kg. (two pounds) of potash is applied to each plant.

The application of manures is stopped after the fifth month from the planting. The crop takes about one and half years, to come to maturity. An average bunch contains about 100 to 150 fruits. The crop is harvested when the fruits get rounded. It is better to harvest the bunch after two or three bananas have become yellow at the base of the bunch.

Banana is a highly nutritious fruit. The unripe fruit and the flower (*kelful*) are used as vegetable. The juice of the inner part of the stem is used in preparing *papads*. The green leaves are used as plates for meals.

Mango. Mango crop covered an area of 174·015 hectares (430 acres) in 1961-62. Mango trees are mainly found in Dhulia, Shahada, Sindkheda, Sakri, Nawapur, Taloda and Akkalkuwa talukas. They thrive best on deep heavy soils with good drainage and are adaptable to a very wide range of climate. Good varieties of mango are usually propagated by grafts. For planting these grafts pits of the size of 0·914 m. × 0·914 m. × 0·914 m. (3′ × 3′ × 3′) are first dug. The spacing between two plants is 9·144 m.×9·144 m. (30′×30′) in light soil and 12·192 m. × 12·192 m. (40′ × 40′) in heavy soil. The pits are filled up with good soil. The planting is done in the beginning of monsoon. Farm yard manure and watering is required periodically. Generally after 4-5 years, mango plantations do not require any watering as the roots penetrate deep into the soil. The mango tree bears after about five years of its plantation. It starts flowering between November and February and bearing of fruits takes place between March and April. Mango trees last for about 50 years.

The picking is usually done by hand and no scratching is allowed. The fruits are then exposed to air for about 24 hours and then ripened in grass. When they become yellowish they are again exposed to air. The pickles, chutneys, *moramba* and *gulamba* made from the

unripe mango (*kairee*), and the *ambras* (mango juice) and the *ambapoli* made from the juice of ripe mango are the most delectable uses of the mango.

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FRUITS.

Mango.

Other Fruits.

The other fruit trees such as sweet-lime, orange, lime and guava occupied 53·014; 42·492; 28·733 and 12·545 hectares (131; 195; 71 and 31 acres), respectively in 1961-62. Sweet-lime is grown on well drained heavy soil. Usually bud-grafts are planted in small pits of 0·057 cu. metres (2 cubic feet) each duly filled with silt and good soil. A mixture of 27·216 to 36·287 kg. (60 to 80 lbs.) of farm yard manure, 2·268 kg. (5 lbs.) of bone meal or superphosphate is applied to each plant at the time of its planting. The planting is done 6·096 to 7·620 metres (20 to 25 feet) apart in squares in June-July. Periodical irrigation is also given. The plant bears at the age of four or five years. It flowers during the *ambebahar, i.e.*, in January-February and fruits are ready for harvest in August-September. Orange is grown in fertile garden lands. The requirements of this crop as regards soil, irrigation and cultivation are similar to those of sweet-lime. Lime and guava trees on the other hand occupied a very small area, *i.e.* 41·278 hectares (102 acres) in 1961-62.

Vegetables.

The principal vegetables of both the varieties, roots tubers and green vegetables in the district include onion, sweet potato, *bhendi*, brinjal and musk melon. The following table gives the taluka-wise area under vegetables in the district :—

TABLE No 33

TALUKA-WISE AREA UNDER VEGETABLES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

(1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62)

(In hectares*)

Taluka	Year	Sweet Potato	Onion	Radish	Brinjal	Bhendi	Musk Melon
Dhulia	1952-53	122·215 (302)	144·887 (358)	....	19·425 (48)	36·826 (91)	....
	1956-57	32·375 (80)	....	....	10.927 (27)	40.469 (100)	48.562 (120)
	1961-62	43.706 (108)	261.832 (647)	....	29.947 (74)	33.994 (84)	8.903 (22)
Sindkheda	1952-53	76.486 (189)	33.589 (83)	3.642 (9)	18.616 (46)	17.806 (44)	12.141 (30)
	1956-57	86.198 (213)	75.272 (186)	2.428 (6)	27.923 (69)	26.305 (65)	6.475 (16)
	1961-62	38.850 (96)	50.586 (125)	2.023 (5)	24.281 (60)	21.448 (53)	1.619 (4)
Shirpur	1952-53	0.809 (2)	3.642 (9)	1.214 (3)	22.258 (55)	19.425 (48)	....
	1956-57	2.428 (6)	1.619 (14)	3.642 (9)	16.997 (42)	26.709 (66)	48.967 (121)
	1961-62	1.214 (3)	....	....	22·662 (56)	26.305 (65)	9·713 (24)
Sakri	1952-53	44·111 (109)	61.108 (151)	....	20.234 (50)	13.759 (34)	....
	1956-57	17.806 (44)	20.639 (51)	6.070 (15)	6.880 (17)	24.281 (60)	1.619 (4)
	1961-62	14·164 (35)	....	....	....	110·074 (272)	9·713 (24)
Nandurbar	1952-53	55.442 (137)	23.472 (58)	13.355 (33)	....	10.927 (27)	53.823 (133)
	1956-57	65.154 (161)	....	2·428 (6)	....	....	....
	1961-62	17·402 (43)	28·328 (70)	....	14·973 (37)	5·261 (13)	16·187 (40)
Nawapur	1952-53	....	....	....	28.328 (70)	38.445 (95)	2·023 (5)
	1956-57	....	....	....	13.759 (34)	53.419 (132)	4.047 (10)
	1961-62	....	2.428 (6)	....	16.187 (40)	13.355 (33)	....
Shahada	1952-53	2.428 (6)	16.997 (42)	0.405 (1)	18.211 (45)	12.950 (32)	60.298 (149)
	1956-57	0.809 (2)	0.809 (2)	2.023 (5)	22.258 (55)	11.331 (28)	61.917 (153)
	1961-62	1·214 (3)	11.331 (28)	2·023 (5)	21·448 (53)	2·833 (7)	13·759 (34)

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

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VEGETABLES.

TABLE No. 33—*contd.*

(In hectares*)

Taluka	Year	Sweet Potato	Onion	Radish	Brinjal	Bhendi	Musk Melon
Taloda ..	1952-53 ..	20.234 (50)	24.281 (60)	6.070 (15)	20.234 (50)	5.261 (13)	36.017 (89)
	1956-57 ..	....	28.733 (71)	0.809 (2)	8.094 (20)	1.619 (4)	73.248 (181)
	1961-62 ..	....	13.759 (34)	0.405 (1)	38.90 (22)	1.214 (3)	25.090 (62)
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53 ..	....	2.428 (6)	....	4.452 (11)	2.833 (7)	....
	1956-57 ..	....	53.823 (133)	....	1.619 (4)	0.405 (1)	....
	1961-62 ..	....	5.261 (13)	....	2.023 (5)	1.214 (3)	....
Akrani Mahal ..	1952-53 ..	....	....	....	....	10.927 (27)	....
	1956-57 ..	....	3.642 (9)	14.164 (35)	2.023 (5)	25.495 (63)	....
	1961-62 ..	....	....	....	21.448 (53)	25.091 (62)	....

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

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Onion.

The area under onion (*kanda*) has shown an increase from 310·394 hectares (767 acres) in 1952-53 to 373·525 hectares (923 acres) in 1961-62. Its cultivation is mainly concentrated in Dhulia, Sindkheda, Taloda and Nandurbar talukas. In 1947-48 the crop was grown on 157·827 hectares (390 acres) in the district. Onion is produced in both the seasons, *kharif* as well as *rabi*. Its *kharif* season lasts for four months from August to November, while the *rabi* season starts from November and ends in February. The crop in the district is usually grown on well drained medium black or clayey loam soils. One deep ploughing and two to three harrowings are required. The cultivation of onions is for two purposes, *viz.*, the cultivation for the bulbs and that for the seeds. However the largest bulk of the cultivation is for the bulbs.

The seeds are sown on a raised seed bed in October-November. The seedlings get ready for being transplanted within four to five weeks. Irrigation is given just prior to transplanting. The seedlings are transplanted at a distance of 152·4 mm. × 101·6 mm. (6″ × 4″) in *kharif* season and that in *rabi* season at a distance of 127·0 mm. × 76·2 mm. (5″ × 3″). Beds of the size of about 3·048 m. × 3·048 m. (10′ × 10′) or 3·658 m. × 4·877 m. (12′ × 16′) are laid for irrigation purpose. About twenty to thirty cart loads of farm yard manure are applied. In addition, half of the quantity of a mixture of 136·078 kg. (300 lbs.) of ammonium sulphate and 90·718 kg. (200 lbs.) of superphosphate is applied as top dressing at the time of planting and the remaining after about two months. The bulbs are ready for uprooting in about three months from transplanting and the seed is ready for harvesting in about 3½ to 4 months. The young leaves (*path*) as well as the bulbs are widely used as vegetables. The rotational crops taken after onions include wheat, jowar, bajri, groundnut and chillis.

Sweet potato.

The area under sweet-potato (*ratali*) has gone down from 321·725 hectares (795 acres) in 1952-53 to 116·549 hectares (288 acres) in 1961-62. The crop is mainly grown in Dhulia, Sindkheda, Nandurbar and Sakri talukas. It is taken in both the seasons, *kharif* (July-September), and *rabi* (October-March). In the district, sweet-potato is produced on well drained, medium black soil. Its cultivation comprises one deep ploughing, two or three harrowings and weeding. The land is made into ridges and furrows. The crop is propagated by cuttings with three nodes from the vines of the previous year on the sides of ridges, about a foot apart. About 10 to 15 cart loads of farm yard manure are applied, and 45·359 to 113·398 kg. (100 to 250 lbs.) of oil cake are also applied. Manures are applied at the time of planting and after four weeks from planting. The crop comes to maturity in 5 to 5½ months. There are two varieties of the crop, red and white. The tubers are used as a food for human beings and the vines are fed to cattle.

Green Vegetables.

Among the green vegetables *bhendi* and brinjal (*vange*) are more important. Brinjal is grown in *kharif*, *rabi* and summer seasons. The

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Green Vegetables.

bhendi crop is also produced in *kharif* and summer seasons. Brinjal and *bhendi* occupied 161·874 and 240·788 hectares (400 and 595 acres), respectively in 1961-62. The area under both the crops increased from 151·757 and 169·159 hectares (375 and 418 acres) in 1952-53 to 161·874 and 240·788 hectares (400 and 595 acres) in 1961-62. Both the crops can be grown on well drained medium black soil. Brinjal gets ready for harvesting after about three months and the harvesting continues for about three months. The seedlings of brinjal are grown on beds and then transplanted after five weeks. Irrigation is given. In the case of lady's finger (*bhendi*) the seed is either drilled or dibbled at a distance of about one and a half feet. Harvesting of tender fruits of *bhendi* is done two months after sowing. The number of pickings is usually 8 to 10 at an interval of about a week.

Radish (*mula*) and musk melon (*kharbuj*) are grown on a very small scale. They together occupied an area of 89·436 hectares (221 acres) in 1961-62. Of these radish was grown in 4·452 hectares (11 acres) only.

LIVE-STOCK.

Agricultural economy of the district is still dependent on the live-stock. The farmers consider the cattle as their valuable asset. The live-stock can be broadly classified into bovine, ovine and poultry population. Bovine includes cattle and buffaloes, ovine covers sheep and goats, while poultry comprises ducks and fowls. Farmers keep bullocks and he buffaloes as draught and breeding animals, cows and she-buffaloes as milch cattle and poultry for flesh and eggs.

Bullocks are usually kept for carrying out heavy agricultural operations and rural transportation. Farmers who do not have enough draught animals usually come together and jointly do the heavier agricultural operations such as ploughing, sowing, harrowing, etc. The ovines on the other hand are kept along with the cattle for flesh, skins, wool and green manure. In rural areas, the milk of a she-goat is also used for domestic consumption.

Poultry keeping on the other hand provides a subsidiary occupation to the cultivators. Most of the birds, however, are of *deshi* and non-descript variety. They are being replaced by improved pure bred birds such as White leghorn and Rhode Island Red which are supplied at concessional rates from the government poultry farm at Dhulia. Financial assistance is also given to the poultry keepers. In 1964-65 loans to the tune of Rs. 6,750 and subsidy of Rs. 200 were distributed to the poultry keepers. Hatching eggs worth Rs. 869 and 8973 birds costing Rs. 14,223 were also distributed. Flesh and eggs, have a good demand in the market. The farmers, however, do not necessarily consider poultry keeping as a subsidiary source of income. Though some farmers keep poultry they do so because they need not have to pay for their own requirements.

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The following table gives taluka-wise live-stock population as per the 1961 census :—

TABLE No. 34

LIVE-STOCK, DHULIA DISTRICT

(1961 CENSUS)

Taluka	Cattle	Buffalo	Sheep	Goats	Horses and Ponies	Poultry
Akrani ..	27,331	2,483	....	10,556	186	40,587
Akkalkuwa ..	26,713	2,178	....	9,499	262	38,785
Taloda ..	22,276	2,741	15	5,057	271	14,704
Shahada ..	62,059	11,139	2,968	19,791	1,799	39,829
Nandurbar ..	53,594	9,862	1,746	18,840	1,202	24,041
Shirpur ..	53,711	8,318	2,468	23,883	594	24,226
Sindkheda ..	68,237	9,447	1,631	30,744	1,015	26,521
Nawapur ..	50,054	4,730	1,299	14,326	201	41,962
Sakri ..	1,11,245	14,463	21,844	54,548	1,987	52,329
Dhulia ..	87,690	19,016	9,741	45,241	906	35,944

The only important weekly cattle market is at Dhulia held on every Thursday. The animals brought to this market are mostly local and non-descript. The prices vary from Rs. 150 to 300 for a bullock, Rs. 80 to 200 for a cow, Rs. 200 to 300 for a bull and Rs. 300 to 500 for a buffalo.

Due to introduction of various cattle development schemes such as premium bull scheme, supplementary cattle breeding centres, key village centres and artificial insemination, there is improvement in local and non-descript cattle. 32 *Dangi* bulls and 80 *Dangi* cows were given to *Adiwasi* people of Akrani Taluka for improvement of cattle in the hilly tract. Besides these there are 100 premium bulls on active list, and 3 supplementary cattle breeding centres functioning in the district.

The information regarding the various schemes is given in what follows :—

Artificial Insemination Centres.

These sub-centres are located at Shahada, Sakri, Akkalkuwa, Taloda, Shirpur and Nandurbar and are supplied with semen from the District Artificial Insemination Centre at Dhulia. The centre is housed in well built premises.

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Supplementary Cattle Breeding Centres.

The supplementary cattle breeding centres are established at Shirud, Borvihir, Dahiwad, Kakani and Nawapur. Under this scheme a cost subsidy of Rs. 200 is given for each cow and Rs. 350 for each bull. In addition, the monthly maintenance charges at Rs. 30 per month are paid towards each bull. Every centre comprising five villages is provided with 50 cows and 5 bulls. At present five such centres are functioning in the district.

District Premium Bull Scheme.

Under this scheme 55 bulls are located in the district. A maintenance charge of Rs. 30 per month for each bull is given. Apart from this scheme, there are some bulls located in the district on 50 per cent subsidy basis. For this, half the cost of the bull limited to an amount of Rs. 500 is given to each owner of the cow bull and buffalo bull.

Poultry Schemes.

Poultry distribution centres also are being run at Nandurbar, Taloda, Akkalkuwa, Shirpur, Sindkheda, Mulgi and Shahada to meet the requirements of the pure bred birds and hatching eggs in the surrounding areas. In addition, every year 150 pure bred cocks and 65 dozens of hatching eggs are supplied free to *Adiwasis* in the scheduled areas of the district. Besides there are three types of poultry schemes under which loans amounting to Rs. 750 (without any subsidy), Rs. 1,000 (with subsidy @ Rs. 250 to each loanee) and Rs. 5,000, respectively are advanced to individuals fulfilling certain conditions. A loan of Rs. 750 without any subsidy is granted to a person who is specially trained in poultry keeping. A loan of Rs. 1,000 with subsidy of Rs. 250 is available for any person having a stock of 50 birds of improved variety. A loan of Rs. 5,000 on the other hand is made available to a person having a foundation stock of 200 birds of improved variety.

Sheep Development.

There are schemes for the development of sheep also. Bennur breed has been introduced for mutton purpose. Two such centres of sheep breeding are functioning one each at Boradi and Nyahalod. These centres are under State control. Two villages or a group of contiguous villages are selected for each such centre. About ten cultivators are selected who could contribute 100 sheep of local breed. Government supplies them equal number of pure bred Bennur sheep.

Pig Development.

A piggery unit has been started at the School of Agriculture at Dhulia. The improved breed of Yorkshire pigs is made available at the above centre.

Panjarpols.

There are two *panjarpols* in the district. Every year a grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000 is paid to each *panjarpol*.

In addition to these activities of the Animal Husbandry department of the Zilla Parishad, veterinary aid is also promptly made available. For this 12 full fledged veterinary dispensaries have been established at Dhulia, Sakri, Nandurbar, Akkalkuwa, Dhadgaon, Shahada, Taloda, Shirpur, Nawapur, Sindkheda, Dondaicha and Mulgi. Besides, there are 30 veterinary aid centres in the district.

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Intensive Cattle Development.

This project is envisaged mainly with a view to ensure progressive improvement of the live-stock for qualitative and efficient production of milk in the district. In fact, the object of this project is to increase milk yield by 30 per cent at the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. To achieve this object two methods have been adopted. One is posting of breeding bulls at the sub-centres, and thus upgrading the local cattle. For this, cow bulls of *Tharparkar* breed and buffalo bulls of *Murrah* and *Surti* breed have been introduced in the irrigated and non-irrigated areas, respectively. The other method followed is to provide high milk yielding cows of *Tharparkar* breed on loan to deserving dairy societies.

The milk shed area of the project includes Shirpur, Shahada and Dhulia talukas of Dhulia district and Chalisgaon taluka of Jalgaon district comprising 456 villages. The project started functioning on 1st November 1965.

The programme of the project envisages cattle development, disease control and fodder development. Under the cattle development programme adequate breeding facilities, both artificial insemination and natural service, have been provided for the breedable bovine population. For this purpose, till the end of March 1967, 82 *Tharparkar* cow bulls, 50 *Murrah* and 32 *Surti* buffalo bulls were purchased and located at the centres where they rendered services to 548 cows and 4865 buffaloes. In addition, four regional artificial insemination centres have been established at Shahada, Shirpur, Nakana and Chalisgaon. They are managed by Veterinary Officers. Under each regional artificial insemination centre, 15 such sub-centres have also been established. They are in charge of the trained Live-stock Supervisor. The Centralised Semen Collection Centre is located in the District Artificial Insemination Centre at Dhulia. All the regional artificial insemination centres are equipped with laboratory and other required appliances. Four cow and four buffalo bulls are located at each regional artificial insemination centre and 6 cow and 6 buffalo bulls are located at the Centralised Semen Collection Centre at Dhulia. These bulls are utilised for collection of semen and its further supply to the sub-centres.

Under the dairy extension programme 535 cows of *Tharparkar* breed have been supplied on loan to dairy and joint farming co-operative societies. So far the total quantity of milk supplied to the Government milk scheme amounts to 30,000 litres and the daily average supply of milk comes to about 2,000 litres of cows' milk. For the remunerative market for milk the project is linked with the Government dairy scheme already operating in the areas. The total number of dairy societies that fall under the project is 250.

The breeding programme alone will not, however, solve the problem unless feeds and fodder resources are increased. Whatever fodder is locally available is not only inadequate but is not upto the nutritive standard. To provide balance feed to the milch cattle the scheme

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called Feed Mixing Unit has been envisaged. Under the fodder development programme, as an incentive to the cattle owners, subsidies have been granted for fodder crop cultivation, construction of silo pits, purchase of chaff cutters, etc. The *grampanchayats* also have been given grant-in-aid for the development of pastures. Till the end a March 1967, the amount spent on these items was Rs. 47,560 and the total expenditure incurred on the whole project during the same period was Rs. 8,72,592·89.

Under the disease control programme intensive work was taken up for preventing contagious diseases, such as H.S., R.P., B.P. in the project area. In addition, first aid equipment is also provided to the farmers as well as to the co-operative societies. So far 26,332 cases were treated and 1,56, 150 cattle were vaccinated.

The proper implementation of this comprehensive programme of intensive cattle development and increased milk production as envisaged in the project would necessarily require a well knit organisation. For this, a class I Officer, *viz.*, Project Officer, who is under the direct control of the Director of Animal Husbandry and assisted by various other technical officers, is appointed.

Dairy Conditions.

Dhulia district is known for production of good quality ghee since the past. Crops like jowar, wheat, cotton, groundnut, availability of grazing area and *anjan* leaves in the hilly portions, and availability of ample water have provided good natural potentialities for the establishment of dairy industry in this district. Naturally the most valuable cattle feeds like jowar-*kadbi*, wheat bran, cotton seed and groundnut cake are available in abundance. Grazing areas are extensive and have spread mostly in the hilly portions.

The *anjan* trees are mostly found in the hilly parts of Dhulia, Sakri, Sindkheda and Shirpur talukas. The leaves of these trees mixed with chaff, and bran are fed to buffaloes. These provide very nutritive and succulent feed to the animals.

There is no special and pure breed of cows or buffaloes in this tract. The milch animals are mostly buffaloes. The buffaloes are hardy and of medium type, locally known as *Malvis*. The breed is said to have originated in the Malwa tract of Madhya Pradesh. The milk yield of *Malvi* breed is 5 to 6 lbs per day. Besides *Malvi* buffaloes another mixed breed of buffaloes known as Ahmedabadi is also found. These buffaloes give 7 to 8 lbs. of milk per day.

Some farmers kept milch animals for their own requirements while the professional dairy men who are called *Gawalis* maintain large herds of cows and buffaloes and sell the milk and milk products.

A number of private dairies have been started for supplying milk to nearby towns and also for exporting by rail to Bombay after pasteurisation. These dairies usually buy milk on butter fat basis

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paying 5 paise to 9 paise for each percentage of fat. The higher rate of 9 paise per percentage of fat prevails during summer. All the dairies have their own arrangements such as cold storage, etc.

The West Khandesh district co-operative milk producers federation started its activities of milk collection from the villages and distribution of the same in Dhulia town, from 1959. There are 25 dairy societies which supply milk to the union at present. The Dhulia union collects about 7,000 litres of milk daily and supplies the same to Government milk scheme, Dhulia. Government advanced a loan of Rs. 96,000 in 1962-63 and Rs. 4,26,000 in 1963-64 to the union for purchase of milch animals and transport vehicles.

With a view to increasing milk production in this area and supplying the same to Bombay, Goverment has started a dairy project at Dhulia. This project was included in the Third Five-Year Plan and an amount of Rs. 31·25 lakhs was provided for the same. About 16·187 hectares (40 acres) of land was acquired for the construction of dairy buildings near Dhulia station.

In 1962 a pilot milk supply scheme was started at Dhulia. Milk is supplied by the Dhulia Union to this project. The milk after pasteurisation is sent to Bombay by rail daily. Part of the milk is also given to the union for local distribution. This project handles about 7,000 litres of milk daily.

IRRIGATION.

It is the perennial source of irrigation that helps the land to be green throughout the year, and provides with an assured remedy to relieve the tillage from the random rains that still determine the agrarian pattern of the district. There is still an imbalance between the 'dry' and 'wet' crops which are found everywhere side by side in the district. The efforts to increase the irrigational facilities so as to bring more land under 'wet' crops in the district, however are restricted to a very limited area as could be seen from the proportion of gross irrigated area to gross cropped area in the year 1959-60 which was 4·89 per cent as against the State average of 6·23 per cent.

The chief source of irrigation in the district are the wells. Canals have also been made and are supplied with water either from artificial tanks or from rivers that have been dammed up. The fields are watered either by lift or by flow from canals and water courses. Such canals numbered 112 in 1961-62, out of which 96 were government canals and the remaining 16 were owned by non-governmental bodies. They together irrigated an area of 9947·182 hectares (24,580 acres) in 1961-62. Dhulia, Sakri, Nandurbar and Shahada talukas together have more than 90 per cent of the area irrigated by canals in the district. Private canals are mainly found in Shahada taluka. The irrigation wells numbered 13024 in 1961-62, and they irrigated an area of 18902·074 hectares (46,708 acres). Wells provide the main source of irrigation in all the nine talukas of the district. Akkalkuwa, Taloda, and Shirpur talukas have their lands irrigated entirely by wells, while Akrani Taluka has practically no area under irrigation.

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The wells are usually of two kinds *pakka* or masonry wells and *kachcha* or unfaced wells. They are worked by *mot* which is in almost universal use. The *mot*, a large leathern bucket, is so suspended as to discharge itself on rising to the surface. The motive power is supplied by a pair of bullocks advancing and retreating on an inclined plane.

The net irrigated area[1] increased from 27166·976 hectares (67,131 acre) in 1952-53 to 29741 993 hectares (73,494 acres) in 1961-62 or by 9·5 per cent in the course of ten years.

Another remarkable improvement has been in the number of oil engines and electric pumps used for irrigation. The number of electric pumps increased from 13 in 1951 to 81 in 1961. The number of oil engines increased from 844 in 1951 to 3826 in 1961[2].

Other details regarding the sources of irrigation such as their location, area irrigated by them, water rates charged, the crops irrigated and their constructional description are given in the following tables. The table No. 35 gives information about the irrigation works completed before the First Five-Year Plan, and those which have been completed during the first three Five-Year Plans, while the table Nos. 36 and 37 give information about the irrigation works which are in progress under the control of the Zilla Parishad, and the Panchayat Samitis, respectively.

Food crops occupy about 90 per cent of the gross irrigated area. Of these wheat is an important irrigated crop. Other irrigated crops are rice, jowar, pulses, vegetables and chillis. Area under irrigated cotton has been gradually increasing. In Dhulia taluka more than half the irrigated area is under wheat. Another remarkable change in the cropping pattern under irrigation in the taluka is that the whole cotton producing area is under irrigation. Nandurbar taluka has the largest irrigated area under chillis. In Sakri taluka the area under irrigation is fairly well distributed among the different crops. In Taloda, Shahada and Sindkheda talukas the irrigated areas are somewhat equally distributed between wheat and chillis. The Dhulia, Shahada and Sakri talukas have got more irrigated areas under non-food crops.

[1] These figures include areas irrigated by canals, wells and tanks.

[2] Census of India 1961, District Census Handbook, Dhulia, p. 3.

TABLE No. 35

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TABLE No. 35

IRRIGATION WORKS COMPLETED BEFORE AND DURING THE FIVE-YEAR PLANS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Sr. No.	Name of work	Location of work	Taluka or Talukas served	Period and cost of construction	Area Commanded (in hectares)*	Approximate Area Irrigated in 1963-64. (in hectares)*	Description of each dam, canal, weir, tank, bandhara etc.	Water rates charged	Crops irrigated.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bandharas on Panzra River				*Works completed before the First Five Year Plan*					
1	Warsha Bandhara ..	Warsha	Sakri	Not available	Not available.	21.044 (52)	Kaccha Bandhara	Not available.	
2	Pankheda Upper Bandhara	Pankheda	Do.	Do.	Do.	104.004 (257)	Stone masonry bandhara	1) For *kar ambagayat* the water rates are charged by the revenue department.	Sugarcane, Plantain, wheat, gram, *dadar*, cotton, groundnut vegetables, fruit trees, etc.
3	Pankheda Lower Bandhara	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	65.559 (162)	Do.		
4	Pimpalner Nadipur Bandhara	Pimpalner	Do.	Do.	Do.	57.870 (143)	Do.		
5	Shenpur Bandhara ..	Shenpur	Do.	Do.	Do.	139.617 (345)	Do.	2) For temporary *bagait* the water rates are charged as follows :— Sugarcane & Plantain Rs. 120 per acre per annum Other perennial Rs. 70 per acre per annum *Two seasons* Rs. 15 per acre. *Kharif crops* Rs. 6 per acre.	
6	Dhadne Bandhara ..	Dhadne	Do.	Do.	Do.	114.931 (284)	Do.		
7	Pimpalner Panthal Bandhara	Pimpalner	Do.	Do.	Do.	96.720 (239)	Do.		
8	Pimpalner Bor Kund Bandhara	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	161.874 (400)	Do.		
9	Kasara Bandhara ..	Kasara	Do.	Do.	Do.	142.854 (353)	Do.		
10	Sayana Bandhara ..	Sayana	Do.	Do.	Do.	8.498 (21)	Do.		
11	Malpur Bandhara ..	Malpur	Do.	Do.	Do.	91.459 (226)	Do.		
12	Gondur Bandhara ..	Gondur	Do.	Do.	Do.	159.851 (395)	Do.	*Hot seasonal crops* Rs. 18 per acre.	
13	Nandvan Bandhara ..	Nandvan	Do.	Do.	Do.	68.797 (170)	Do.	*One watering to Kharif crop* Rs. 3 per acre.	
14	Samoda Bandhara ..	Samoda	Do.	Do.	Do.	167.540 (414)	Do.		
15	Dotarthi Bandhara ..	Dotarthi	Do.	Do.	Do.	11.331 (28)	Do.	*One watering to rabi crop* Rs. 4 per acre.	
16	Bhadne Bandhara ..	Bhadne	Do.	Do.	Do.	180.085 (445)	Do.		
17	Ner Upper Bandhara ..	Ner	Dhulia	Do.	Do.	77.700 (192)	Do.	*Groundnut* double the *bhusar* rate per acre. *Cotton Crop* Rs. 37 per acre for 1964-65 & 1965-66 only.	
18	Ner Lower Bandhara ..	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	106.028 (262)	Do.		
19	Kusumba Upper Bandhara	Kusumba	Do.	Do.	Do.	198.296 (490)	Do.		
20	Kusumba Lower Bandhara	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	198.296 (490)	Do.		
21	Kheda Bandhara ..	Kheda	Do.	Do.	Do.	178.871 (442)	Do.		
22	War Bandhara ..	War	Do.	Do.	Do.	173.205 (428)	Do.		
23	Mukti Tank (L. P. R. Works)	Dhulia	Do. (Sindkheda, Amalner)	Do	Do.		Earthen dam.....		
24	Dhulia Bandhara ..	Dhulia town ..	Dhulia ..	Do	Not known	161.874 (400)	Stone masonry Bandhara.		
25	Nimkhedi Bandhara ..	Nimkhedi ..	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	77.295 (191)	Do. ..		
26	Nyahalod Bandhara ..	Nyahalod	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	323.749 (800)	Do. ..		
27	Japi Bandhara ..	Japi	Do. ..	Do	Do. ..	164.707 (407)	Do. ..		
28	Mohadi Bandhara ..	Mohadi	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	135.165 (334)	Do. ..		
29	Mandal Bandhara ..	Mandal	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	196.677 (486)	Do. ..		
30	Walkheda Bandhara ..	Walkheda	Sindkheda ..	Do.	Do. ..	162.684 (402)	Kaccha bandhara and channel stone.		
31	Betawad Bandhara ..	Betawad	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	171.991 (425)	masonry bandhara earthen dam.		
32	Shanimandal Tank ..	Talwade	Nandurbar ..	Do.	Do. ..	Not available.	Stone masonry bandhara.		
33	Peer Tank	Nandurbar town ..	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	Do. ..			
34	Sutara Bandhara ..	Sakri Sutara ..	Sakri ..	Do.	Not available	Not available	Not available ..	Not available	Not available ..
35	Dhaner Bandhara ..	Dhaner	Do. ..	Do.	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.	

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

TABLE

No. 35—*contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
36	Machamal Bandhara	Machamal	Sakri	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available.	
37	Khandbara Bandhara	Khandbara	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
38	Dahivel Bandhara	Dahivel	Do.	Do	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
39	Bhadgaon Bandhara	Bhadgaon	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
40	Kirwade Bandhara	Kirwade	Do.	Do	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
41	Surpan Bandhara	Surpan	Do.	Do	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
42	Astane Bandhara	Astane	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
43	Jirethal Bandhara	Jirethal	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
44	Bhandane Bandhara	Bhandane	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Stone masonry.	
	Bandharias on the tributaries of Panzra river.								
45	Kudashi Bandhara	Kudashi	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
46	Dangshirwada Bandhara	Dangshirwada	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
47	Virkhel Upper Bandhara	Virkhel	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
48	Virkhel Lower Bandhara	Virkhel	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
49	Balnane Bandhara	Balnane	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
50	Deshirwade Bandhara	Deshirwade	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
51	Chiksa Bandhara	Chiksa	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
52	Morane Bandhara	Morane	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
53	Jirapur Bandhara	Jirapur	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	
54	Gondur Tank	Gondur	Dhulia	Do.	Do.	Do.	Earthen dam	Do.	
				Works completed during the First Five Year Plan.					
55	Bandhara at Kolde	7 miles away from Nandurbar.	Nandurbar	Not available	Do.	Do.	Stone masonry bandhara.	....	
56	Bandhara at Girasgaon	Girasgaon	Do.	Do.	141·640 (350)	101·171 (250)	Do.	Not assessed	No Irrigation.
57	Bandhara at Dhamdod.	Dhamdod	Do.	Do.	Not available.	Not available.	Do.	....	
58	Bandhara at Devale	Devale	Do.	Do.	121·406 (300)	97·125 (240)	Do.	....	
59	Bandhara at Dhulawad	On River Shivan	Do.	*Year 1963*— Rs. 0.49 lakhs	242·811 (600)	242·811 (600)	Do.	Not assessed.	No Irrigation.
60	Bandhara at Navitanda.	Navitanda	Do.	*Year 1953*— Rs. 0.80 lakhs.	242·811 (600)	242·811 (600)	Do.	Do.	Do.
61	Bandhara at Bhone	On river Patalganga near Bhone.	Do.	Very old.	121·406 (300)	84·984 (210)	Do.	....	
62	Bandhara at Adchi	Adchi.	Do.	*Year 1953*— Rs. 0.19 lakhs.	283·280 (700)	283·280 (700)	Do.	Rs. 9 per acre for rabi crops and irrigation cess Rs. 3 per acre.	Wheat, gram, *dadar*
63	Bandhara at Dudhala	Dudhala	Do.	*Year 1953*— Rs. 0.17 lakhs.	76·890 (190)	76.890 (190)	Do.	....	
64	Bandhara at Kothali	On Goon Nalla near Kothali.	Do.	*Year 1953*— Rs. 0.19 lakhs.	121·406 (300)	121·406 (300)	Do.	Not assessed	No Irrigation.
65	Bandhara at Guiar Bhawali.	On River Shivan near Guiar Bhawali.	Do.	*Year 1953*— Rs. 0.13 lakhs.	283·280 (700)	283·280 (700)	Do.	Rs. 9 per acre for rabi crops and irrigation cess Rs. 3 per acre.	Wheat, gram, *dadar*
66	Renovation to Bandhara at Sunderde.	Sunderde	Do.	Very old. Rs. 0.29 lakhs.	121·406 (300)	121·406 (300)	Do.	....	
67	Bandhara at Nimdhani	Nimdhani	Do.	....	....	....		Rs. 9 per acre for rabi crops and irrigation cess Rs. 3 per acre.	Wheat, gram.
68	Bandhara at Devi	Devi	Sindkheda	Very old.	192·226 (475)	101·171 (250)			
69	Bandhara at Hol	Hol	Shahada	Do.	607·029 (1500)	323·749 (800)	Stone masonry	Not assessed	No irrigation.
70	Bandhara at Chaupale	Chaupale	Nandurbar	....	....	....	....	....	
				Works completed during the Second Five-Year Plan.					
71	New channel from Betawad Bandhara to Betawad Paste on Panzra River.	One mile away from Ajande Bk.	Sindkheda	*1952-60* not known.	404·686 (1000)	404·686 (1000)	Extension of canal,	Rabi crops at Rs. 9 per acre Kharif crops at Rs. 6 per acre.	Wheat, gram, *dadar* rice.
72	B and C on River Burai near Chimathana	3 miles away from Chimathana.	Do.	*1952-60*— cost of construction not known.	2687·115 (6640)	2687·115 (6640)	Stone masonry bandhara.	Do.	Do.
73	Extension of Old Kapadne Channel on Lower Panzra River.	Nimkhedi	Dhulia	1953-61— Rs. 185950	687·966 (1700)	445·155 (1100)	Extension of canal	Do.	Do.

TABLE

1	2	3	4	5
				Works completed during
74	Earthen dam at Purmepada.	15 miles away from Dhulia.	Dhulia ..	1953-64. Rs. 41·03 lakhs.
75	B and C at Anchade ..	Anchade ..	Do. ..	1959-66, Rs. 0·55 lakhs.
76	Bandhara across Moti Nalla	4 miles away from Dhulia	Do. ..	1959-66, Rs. 0·66 lakhs.
77	Bandhara across Panzra river.	Sayyadnagar ..	Sakri ..	1953-64, Rs. 27·37 lakhs.
78	Extension of Shahada Canal.	Kawalith ..	Shahada ..	1952-64. Rs. 15·65 lakhs.
79	Bandhara and Channel on River Susari.	4 miles away from Shahada	Do. ..	1952-62. Rs. 4·76 lakhs.
80	B. and C. across Ajnad Nalla near Nageshwar.	Nageshwar ..	Shirpur ..	1962-63. Rs. 0·46 lakhs.
81	Bandhara and Canal at Gogapur.	Jidhare ..	Shahada ..	11th September 1962 to 31st December 1963. Rs. 0·46 lakhs
82	Bandhara at Dhong ..	Gaon Nalla near Dhong.	Nawapur ..	1962-63. Rs. 0·35 lakhs.
83	Bandhara on Rangawali river near Umardi.	Umardi ..	Do. ..	24th February 1961 to 15th April 1962. Rs. 0·29 lakhs.
84	S. R. to Bandhara at Raingaon.	Raingaon. ..	Do. ..	Not known. Rs. 0·14 lakhs.
85	Canal at Umaj ..	On Gaon Nalla near Umaj.	Nandurbar ..	1961. Rs 0·19 lakhs.
86	C.R. to Bandhara across river Patalganga near Bhone.	Bhone ..	Do. ..	Not known.
87	Improvements to Bandhara at Narayanpur.	On river Shivan near Village Narayanpur.	Do. ..	1963-64. Rs. 0·33 lakhs.
88	Bandhara at Sangwi ..	Sangwi ..	Shirpur ..	1961-64. Rs. 0·75 lakhs (Revised).
89	Bandhara at Boradi ..	Shirpur, Boradi ..	Do. ..	1957-62 Rs. 0·24 lakhs.
90	Bandhara at Nagzari ..	Nagzari ..	Nawapur ..	1961-64. Rs. 0·35 lakhs.
91	Improvements to Bandhara at Shewade.	Sindkheda Shewade ..	Sindkheda ..	1962-64. Rs. 0·77 lakhs.
				Works in Progress Taken up
92	Tank at Jamphal ..	Songir ..	Sindkheda ..	20th March 1965. Rs. 11·94 lakhs.
93	Tank at Kulthe ..	Kulthe ..	Dhulia ..	15th April 1961 Rs. 7·47 lakhs.
94	Tank at Chawadi ..	Chawadi ..	Sakri ..	Not started. Rs. 10·58 lakhs.
95	Remoulding Shanimandal Tank including diverting the Asarbari Nalla in the existing tank.	Talwade ..	Nandurbar ..	12th March 1966. Rs. 0·80 lakhs.
96	Drainage Scheme between Mohida and Desai branch of Shahada canal.	Shahada ..	Shahada ..	14th October 1963. Rs. 2·71 lakhs.
97	Bandhara and Canal at Walkheda.	Mandal ..	Sindkheda ..	2nd November 196 Rs. 3·28 lakhs
98	Extension and improvement bandhara at Dhanrat.	Nawapur ..	Nawapur ..	12th October 1963 Rs. 1·59 lakhs

No. 35—*contd.*

6	7	8	9	10
the Third Five-Year Plan.				
4856·232 (12000)	9000	Earthen dam ..	Rabi crops at Rs. 9 per acre, Kharif crops at Rs. 12 per acre (cotton).	Wheat, gram, dadar rice, cotton, at Rs 37.
121·406 (300)	80·937 (200)	Stone masonry bandhara.	Not assessed. ..	No irrigation.
161·874 (400)	121·406 (300)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
6047·628 (14944)	6047·628 (14944)	Do. ..	Rabi crops at Rs. 9 per acre, Kharif crops at Rs. 6 per acre, Hot weather crops Rs. 12 per acre, other perennial crops at Rs. 70 per acre.	Do.
1214·058 (3000) For extension.	6591·983 (16215) including old canal.	Extension of canal ..	Rabi crops at Rs. 9 per acre, Kharif crops at Rs. 6 per acre, Hot weather crops Rs. 12 per acre, other perennial crops at Rs. 70 per acre.	Do.
2225·733 (5500)	2225·733 (5500)	Stone masonry bandhara.	Rabi Rs. 23, Kharif Rs. 14, Hot Rs. 33.	
323·749 (800)	161·874 (400)	Do. ..	Not assessed ..	No irrigation.
129·499 (320)	129·499 (320)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
182·109 (450)	101·171 (250)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
72·843 (180)	52·609 (130)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
....	242·811 (600)	Special repairs to existing bandhara	Do.	Do.
161·874 (400)	77·125 (240)	Excavation of canal ..	Do. ..	Do.
....	....	Special repairs to existing bandhara.	Do. ..	Do.
346·006 (955)	242·811 (600)		Rs. 9 per acre. ..	Wheat, gram in rabi season.
121·406 (300)	121·406 (300) (Revised)	Stone masonry Bandhara.	Not assessed ..	No irrigation.
80·937 (200)	60·703 (150)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
80·937 (200)	60·703 (150)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
121·406 (300)	121·406 (300)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
During the Third Five-Year Plan.				
968·818 (2394)	290·564 (718)	Earthen dam ..	Do. ..	Do.
424·920 (1050)	424·920 (1050)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
520·831 (1287)	520·831 (1287)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
Not known	30·756 (76)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
256·571 (634)	256·571 (634)	Drainage Scheme ..	Do. ..	Do.
768·903 (1900)	768·903 (1900)	Stone masonry ..	Do. ..	Do.
182·109 (450)	182·109 (450)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.

TABLE

BANDHARA WORKS UNDERTAKEN DURING THE THIRD

Location of Bandhara or canal	Taluka	Cost of construction	Area commanded (in hectares)*	Area irrigated
1	2	3	4	5
Akhatwade	Nandurbar	36,968	80·937 (200)	The works are in progress.
Ranala	Nandurbar	45,000	60·703 (150)	Do.
Deojopada	Sakri	....	60·703 (150)	Do.
Budki	Shirpur	45,512	80·937 (200)	Do.
Across the river Dehli near village Ghotpada.	Akkalkuwa	65,748	97·125 (240)	Do.

* Figures in brackets

TABLE

BANDHARA WORKS IN PROGRESS WITH THE PANCHAYAT

Location of Bandhara or canal	Taluka	Cost of Construction	Area commanded (in hectares)*	Area irrigated (in hectares)*
1	2	3	4	5
Samoda	Sakri	93,714	210·437 (520)	121·406 (300)
Chikse	Do.	35,526	121.406 (300)	80·937 (200)
	Do.	29,689	60·703 (150)	40·469 (100)
	Do.	49,702	161·874 (400)	70·820 (175)
	Do.	41,502	60·703 (150)	32·375 (80)
	Do.	20,278	40·469 (100)	28·328 (70)
	Do.	15,128	40·469 (100)	28·328 (70)
	Do.	12,410	28·328 (70)	28.328 (70)
	Akkalkuwa	22,149	28·328 (70)	4.047 (10)
	Do.	13,119	20·234 (50)	....
	Do.	2,767	6·070 (15)	1.619 (4)
	Nawapur	33,141	60·703 (150)	The work is in progress.
Chinchapada	Nawapur	34,811	101·171 (250)	Do.
	Do.	22,679	40·469 (100)	Do.
	Do.	30,826	48·562 (120)	Do.

* Figures in brackets

No. 36

FIVE-YEAR PLAN BY THE ZILLA PARISHAD

Description of bandhara	Water-rates charged	Crops irrigated
6	7	8
Masonry bandhara with one canal only	Not yet decided, but the rates will be followed as per the rates of State sector.	*Kharif* bandharas are not found successful in Dhulia district and hence as per Government orders, only *Rabi* bandharas are selected for execution. In Rabi season generally the following crops are grown:— (1) Wheat, (2) Dadar, (3) Chilli, (4) Gram.
Do.		
Do.		
Do.		
Do.		

indicate area in acres.

No. 37

SAMITIS IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1964-65.

Description of bandhara	Water rates charged	Crops irrigated
6	7	8
Masonry bandhara with one main canal only.	Not yet decided, but the rates will be followed as per the rates of State sector.	Wheat.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do	Do.	Wheat, Nagali, Rice.
Do.	Do.	Wheat.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	The bandhara works are in progress and are useful for rabi crops such as.— (1) Wheat, (2) Dadar, (3) Chilli and (4) Gram.	
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.
Do.	Do.	Do.

indicate area in acres.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

TABLE No. 38

TALUKA-WISE SOURCES OF WATER-SUPPLY AND AREA IRRIGATED IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

*(Figures of area in hectares)

Taluka	Year	Government canals			Private canals			Irrigation wells		Wells for domestic purposes	Wells not in use	Reservoirs	Tanks		No. of oil engines
		No.	Mileage	Net area irrigated	No.	Mileage	Net area irrigated	No.	Net area irrigated				No.	Net area irrigated	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Dhulia ..	1952-53	13	35	4,934·336 (12,193)	1	4	....	901	866·837 (2,142)	383	....	5	....	88·221 (218)	38
	1956-57	13	35	4,337·829 (10,719)	1	4	248·82 (615)	901	2,799·618 (6,918)	383	....	5	1	....	188
	1961-62	13	35	2,054·186 (5,076)	1	4	....	1,582	3,390·864 (8,379)	885	65	5	1	841·342 (2,079)	439
Sindkheda ..	1952-53	4	10	350·453 (866)	3	3	46·539 (115)	2,855	2,251·673 (5,564)	....	351	....	1	....	32
	1956-57	7	13	392·141 (969)	3	4	157·01 (388	2,899	3,981·706 (9,839)	2,081	353	142	....	....	181
	1961-62	7	13	746·241 (1,844)	3	4	....	2,947	1,838·893 (4,544)	2,105	351	....	....	....	222
Shirpur ..	1952-53	..	..	....	..	..	....	189	150·138 (371)	....	....	....	....	....	12
	1956-57	..	..	....	..	..	....	343	383·642 (948)	1,157	177	....	....	....	37
	1961-62	..	..	....	..	..	....	250	577·892 (1,428)	100	....	....	....	....	75
Sakri ..	1952-53	70	45	3,018·553 (7,459)	..	..	....	1,351	1,094·271 (2,704)	979	157	....	....	....	89
	1956-57	70	45	1,099·064 (10,129)	..	..	....	1,405	1,862·770 (4,603)	1,008	135	....	....	....	157
	1961-62	70	45	4,099·064 (10,129)	..	..	....	1,405	1,862·770 (4,603)	1,008	135	....	....	....	198
Nandurbar ..	1952-53	1	1	553·206 (1,367)	2	2½	86·198 (213)	....	3,895·912 (9,627)	689	297	....	31	80·937 (200)	193
	1956-57	1	1	2,114·882 (5,280)	2	..	120·192 (297)	386	4,527·650 (11,193)	689	297	....	1	112·907 (279)	386
	1961-62	1	1	1,072·823 (2,651)	2	1	111·288 (275)	3,171	5,108·756 (12,624)	697	435	....	1	46·539 (115)	501
Nawapur ..	1952-53	2	½	83·770 (207)	3	½	22·682 (56)	198	149·734 (370)	276	192	644	....	....	10
	1956-57	2	½	131·928 (326)	3	½	65·964 (163)	201	175·229 (433)	276	192	644	....	....	15
	1961-62	4	½	134·760 (333)	1	½	....	248	165·516 (409)	276	192	644	....	....	86
Shahada ..	1952-53	1	12	1,214·058 (3,000)	8	12	1,062·301 (2,625)	1,627	2,803·260 (6,927)	950	250	....	....	....	200
	1956-57	2	12	1,447·967 (3,578)	9	17	384·45 (950)	1,873	3,393·497 (8,386)	1,073	112	....	1	....	....
	1961-62	1	12	1,313·206 (3,245)	9	17	415·613 (1,027)	2,758	4,358·063 (11,769)	1,120	422	....	1	....	1,058
Taloda	1952-53	..	..	....	..	..	....	573	149·734 (370)	1,250	33	....	....	....	60
	1956-57	..	..	....	..	..	....	582	43·301 (107)	1,253	40	....	....	....	145
	1961-62	..	..	....	..	..	....	613	1,122·194 (2,694)	850	47	....	....	....	315
Akkalkuwa ..	1952-53	..	..	....	..	..	....	....	3,201·875 (6,985)	4	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	..	..	....	..	..	....	93	59·893 (148)	525	23	....	....	....	....
	1961-62	..	..	....	..	..	....	30	89·031 (220)	190	....	....	....	....	12
Akrani ..	1952-53	..	..	....	..	..	....	11	628·072 (1,552)	....	....	....	....	....	....
	1956-57	..	..	....	..	..	....	11	....	18	....	....	1	....	....
	1961-62	..	..	....	..	..	....	20	15·378 (38)	101	7	....	1	4·856 (12)	21

* Figures in brackets are in acres.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

Amongst the factors that lead to an increase in the agricultural output, seeds occupy an important place. The soil, the rainfall, irrigational facilities if any, manures and such other factors together help for the vigorous growth of crops. But their total impact upon agricultural production is reduced if the seeds are of inferior quality. The recommendation of appropriate varieties or strains of crops suitable for the tracts, therefore, is equally important and cannot be overlooked. The governmental agro-technical personnel which is propagating the improved strains though met with little success in creating the required faith to accept a change in the traditional way of cultivation, they are doing a pioneering work. Such efforts have been institutionalised in the form of the taluka seed farms at nine places in the district. These farms have been established at Pimpri Kalambu, Sakri, Nawapur, Dhadgaon, Sindkheda, Shirpur, Akkalkuwa and Taloda up to 1965-66. A proposal for establishing a tenth taluka seed farm in Nandurbar taluka is under consideration at government level. So far, the agriculture department has recommended the following improved varieties or strains of crops for the district :—

(1) Bajri	..	*Niphad 28/15, Hybrid-HB-I.*
(2) Wheat (Dry)	..	*N.* 59, *N.* 125, *N.* 1200
(3) Wheat (Irrigated)	..	*N.P.* 710, *N.P.* 718, *N.* 345, *N.* 146
(4) Rabi Jowar	..	*Maldandi* 35-1, *Hybrid Jowar*-CHS-1
(5) Cotton	..	197/3 ; 170/Co/2.
(6) Maize	..	*Deccan double, Ganga* 101
(7) Paddy	..	*Taichung Native* 1.
(8) Gram	..	*Chafa.*
(9) Groundnut	..	*Spanish Improved.*
(10) Sugarcane	..	*Cp*/419, *Co*/740.

The area under all the taluka seed farms is about 204·771 hectares (506 acres) and the quantity of seed distributed from these farms during 1964-65 and 1965-66 was as under :—

Crop.		1964-65		1965-66	
		Quintals	kg.	Quintals	kg.
Wheat	..	353	24	242	60
Paddy	..	68	40	41	..
Tur	..	5	88	7	..
Gram	..	59	80	6	25
Udid	..	3	90	16	..
Jowar	..	167	32	125	04
Mug	..	32	40	91	60
Bajri	..	98	80	152	85
Groundnut	..	60	80	360	90
Til	..	2	..	..	..

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

In the past, special efforts to improve the staple of the local cotton were made for many years, but the cultivation of exotic varieties did not spread ; it was found that the exotics deteriorate speedily in quality and give an inferior yield to that of the local variety. In 1903-4 a small plot of land was acquired by the then local authority at Dhulia and several varieties of cotton and jowar, new to the district, were sown. The experiment was reported to be more promising than previous attempts, but definite results were not arrived at.

Another way of obtaining the seeds of good quality generally followed by the cultivators in the district is to preserve their own seeds of important crops like jowar, gram, paddy, bajri etc. Those who preserve seeds pick up selected earheads from healthy and vigorous plants at the time of harvest and preserve the same for the next sowing season. Some cultivators obtain their seeds either by exchange or by purchasing them from those who preserve good seeds. The seeds distributed by the taluka seed farms are also multiplied on the fields of registered seed-growers and are sold to other cultivators through co-operative societies.

MANURES.

Manures add to the fertility of the soil. The non-appliance of manures results in the low return of agricultural products. With the minimum required supply of water, and other things being equal manures necessarily increase the agricultural productivity during the same year in which they are applied. They are indispensable for the present agricultural development programme. The scientific application of the manures and especially that of the chemical fertilisers mainly depends upon the concretions, consistency, structure and the texture of the land and also upon the availability of water-supply.

The application of manures in the district is still not widely and sufficiently followed by the cultivators. Most of the lands are cultivated without applying manures even though the farmers have since long realised the utility of manuring the fields. They have all the same been unable to act upon it due to the scarcity of indigenous manures on the one hand and the prohibitive cost of chemical fertilisers on the other. Whatever fields in the district are manured they are manured with cattle-dung, dung of the sheep and goats, farm refuse, etc. Another method of applying the manures is by folding sheep and goats when the flocks of professional graziers pass through the fields. They are paid either in cash or in kind.

Now-a-days cattle-dung, village and farm refuse is converted into compost manue. For this a pit of the size $3 \cdot 048 \times 1 \cdot 829 \times 0 \cdot 914$ metres ($10' \times 6' \times 3'$) is dug and filled systematically with the above material. The contents are allowed to decompose for about a year. This compost manure has proved more effective in improving the fertility of the soil which lasts longer than that increased by the chemical fertilisers. Of the various schemes undertaken by the Zilla Parishad to increase the quantity of manures in the district, the

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

MANURES.

scheme of preparing compost manure is of unique importance. Green manuring is also practised in few parts of the district by sowing the *tag* seeds in June and burying their vegetative growth in the field, by means of a hoe. This adds to the nitrogen contents of the soil. The other manures include the chemical fertilisers such as ammonium sulphate, calcium, ammonium nitrate, urea and nitro phosphates. The Dhulia District Central Co-operative Sale-Purchase Union carries on the work of distributing the chemical fertilisers on a wholesale scale as a consignee of the government. The fertilisers are distributed to various co-operative societies which in turn distribute the same to their cultivator share-holders. The number of such co-operative societies in different talukas of the district is given below :—

Taluka	No. of co-operative societies
Dhulia	14
Nandurbar	6
Nawapur	1
Shirpur	11
Shahada	12
Sindkheda	4
Akkalkuwa	1
Taloda	2

The quantity* of nitrogenous fertilisers distributed in the district during 1964-65 and 1965-66 was as under :—

	1964-65	1965-66
Ammonium sulphate ..	4,256·540	1,866·000
Calcium, ammonium nitrate ..	112·000	..
Urea ..	1,749·118	44·685
Nitrophosphates ..	366·700	641·000
Ammonium sulphate, nitrate.	..	640·170

*The figures are in metric Tonnes.

PESTS OF CROPS.

Cotton.

Boll Worms.

Boll Worm.—Boll worms are of two types—(*i*) Spotted boll worm (*earias fabia*, S and *E. insulana*, B), (*ii*) Pink boll worm (*Pectinophora gossypiella*, S.) 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 fully fed larvae measure about 19·05 mm. (3/4″) in length. The other boll worms are pink in colour with brown heads.

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PESTS OF CROPS.

Cotton.

(*ii*) Pink boll worm—

Marks of identification.—The moth is about 12·7 mm. (½″) across wings and is dark brown in colour. The first segment of the antenna has 4 to 6 stiff hair and the palps are long and curved upwards. Caterpillars when full grown measure 19·05 mm. (3/4″) long and are pink in colour with a brown head.

Host plants.—Cotton, *Bhendi, Ambadi* and other malvaceous plants.

Nature of damage.—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 in 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.

Life History.—Eggs are laid singly on leaves, flower buds, bracts, bolls etc. They hatch within 4 to 6 days. Larval period in case of spotted boll worms is 9 to 16 days depending upon the climatic conditions. The pupation takes place inside the silken cocoons, outside the bolls in which stage it remains for 8 to 14 days. The total period of a life cycle is about 22 to 35 days. The pest is active from July to November.

In case of pink boll worms, the caterpillars on hatching feed on developing flowers, seed or lint. The larval period usually is about 3 to 4 weeks but some of them remain dormant in the seeds for a pretty long time for the perpetuation of the species. Pupation generally takes place inside the bolls or in the soil in silken cocoons from which moth emerges after about 10 days. 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—

(*i*) Removal and destruction of stubbles to check carryover of the pests to the next season ;

(*ii*) Destruction of all the malvaceous plants growing in off season which serve as alternate hosts for the pest ;

(*iii*) Fumigation of seed before sowing with carbon-di-sulphide @ 2 ozs. per 0·425 cu. metres (15 cu. feet) or heating seed at 145°F. to destroy the hibernating pink boll worm larvae ;

(*iv*) Quick removal and destruction of the affected plant parts in the early stage of the pest incidence ;

(*v*) Six dustings with 10 per cent. DDT + 2 per cent lindane + 40 per cent. sulphur mixture or with 1 per cent endrin dust ; and

(*vi*) Six sprayings at fortnightly intervals with 1 oz. of 20 per cent. E. C. endrin in 4/6 gallons of water strating from a month prior to flowering.

Red cotton bug–(*Dysdercus Cingulatus*, (Fabr.)

Marks of intentification.–The adult is about half an inch long. It is bright red with eyes, scutellum and antenna coloured black. They have a series of white transverse bands on the ventral side of their abdomen. The nymphs resemble the adults in colour but are wingless.

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. Due to the excreta of these insects, the lint is spoilt.

Life history.–The female lays rounded bright yellow eggs in a mass on the soil near the plant. The eggs hatch in six to seven days. The nymphs, which are bright red, pass through six instars in 30 to 35 days before reaching the adult stage. The total period of their life cycle is about six to eight weeks, but in winter the pest hibernates in the adult stage. The pest is active from October to February.

The adults and nymphs can be collected in large numbers by shaking them in a tray containing little kerosene oil added to ordinary water. In case the pest becomes serious, which rarely happens, the crop may be treated with 5 per cent BHC.

Jassids (*Empoaca Devasthans, Dist.*)

The adult is wedgeshaped, 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 the leaves. They walk diagonally in relation to their body.

Host Plants.–Cotton, *bhendi*, brinjal, potato and hollyhock.

Nature of damage.–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 are seen.

Life history.–About 30 eggs are laid at a time by the adult female in the tissue of the leaf vein. The eggs hatch in 4 to 11 days. The nymphal stage remains from 7 to 21 days during which the nymphs moult five times. The entire life cycle is completed in two to four weeks. The pest is particularly active during the monsoon season.

Five per cent DDT dust mixed with an equal quantity of sulphur at the rate of 6·804 to 9·072 kg. (15 to 20 lb.) per acre is known to be effective. 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. 0·2 per cent spray of DDT 50 per cent (w/d) and sulphur (w/d) is very effective against jassids. 4 ozs. or 2 ozs. of endrin per acre or 0·01 per cent to 0·02 per cent parathion are also effective against this pest.

Aphids (*aphis gossypii*, Glower)

The adult is oblong 1mm. 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.

Life history.–The alate and apterous forms reproduce parthenogenetically and viviparously. A single apterous female gives rise to 8 to 22 young ones per day, called nymphs. They pass through four moults before reaching the adult stage. The duration of their life cycle is 7 to 9 days.

The pest can be effectively controlled by spraying with nicotine sulphate at the rate of 0·453 kg. (1 lb.) in 363·677 litres (80 gallons) of water with 2·268 kg. (5 lb.) of soap. Spraying with pyrethrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1,000 parts of water also gives satisfactory results. Nearly 363·677 to 454·596 litres (80 to 100 gallons) of spray are required per acre. For control of aphids, DDT should not be used as it may not only not kill them but may also lead to their increase." BHC is somewhat effective but the kill obtained is less, than that with such compounds as nicotine sulphate and pyrethrum extract and may be used if others are not available. It is relatively cheaper. 2 ozs. of endrin per acre or 0·01 per cent to 0·02 per cent parathion is also effective against cotton aphids.

Mealy bugs (*Ferrisiana Virgata*, CKLL.)

The adult female is pale yellow in colour and its body is covered with white meal and glossy threads. Its average length is 2·6 to 3 mm. Newly hatched nymphs are light yellow in colour. Male 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.

Alternate host plants.–Cashew, cocoa, azaleas, jute, lantana aculeata, soyabean, avocado, cettee, pepper, croton, acalypha, ferm, colocasia, gladiolus, eranthemum and tuberose.

Life history.–The female reproduces parthenogenetically. The eggs hatch in about 19·29 minutes. A female undergoes 3 nymphal instars, while a male has 4 nymphal instars. Total nymphal period lasts for about 18-19 days and the total life cycle from egg to the oviposition lasts for 42-56 days. The pest is active from June to October.

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Cotton.

Spraying with 1 per cent fish oil rosin soap, 0·03 per cent diazinon or parathion and 0·10 per cent malathion helps in reducing the pest infestation.

Mites (*Eriophes Gossypii*, Bank)–

Marks of identification.–Eggs are creamy, spherical and semi-translucent and the larva is flesh coloured with three pairs of legs. It undergoes 3 moults before reaching the adult stage. Adults are minute with an oval body and four pairs of legs. They are usually found on the lower surface of leaves.

The nymphs and adults usually feed on the lower surface of the leaves. As a result they become silvery white and ultimately dry up. In case of severe infestation complete defoliation of plants is caused.

Host Plants.–It is a polyphagous species. However, castor, *bhendi* and cotton are the important host plants.

Life history.–The female lays about 10-100 eggs singly on leaves which hatch in 4-7 days. Nymphal stage lasts for 6-10 days. Total life cycle is completed in 3-4 weeks. Generally the adults live for 10-30 days.

Control measures.–(1) Spraying of 0·05 per cent aramite, 0·03 per cent dichlorobenzilic acid (akar) and 0·02 per cent parathion and 0·2 per cent sulphur effectively controls the pest.

Jowar.

Jowar stem borer (*Chilo Zonellus*, Swinh)–

The caterpillars are dirty white with many spots on the body and with a brown head. The full grown caterpillar measures about 12·7 to 19·05 mm. (½″ to ¾″) in length. The moths are straw coloured with forewings pale yellowish grey having minute dots on the apical margin and white hind wings.

Nature of damage.–The caterpillars bore inside the stems causing thereby the drying of the central shoots called "Dead Hearts" due to which reddening of stems and leaves takes place. The extent of damage is about 4 to 5 per cent.

Life history.–Creamy white eggs are laid on the leaves in clusters which hatch in six days. Young caterpillars bore into the stems and remain there for three to four weeks, after which the full grown caterpillars pupate *in situ*. The pupal period is 7 to 10 days and the total period of the life cycle is 5 to 6 weeks. The pest hibernates as a larvae in stubbles. The period of activity is from June to November. There are about four generations in a year. Summer jowar is frequently found heavily infested by this pest.

Being an internal feeder only preventive measures are found practicable and economic.

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Jowar.

(*i*) The affected plants should be pulled out along with the caterpillars inside and destroyed promptly.

(*ii*) After the harvest the crop stubbles should be collected and burnt to destroy the hibernating larvae.

(*iii*) The fodder to be fed to cattle should be cut into small pieces and fed.

Army worms (*cirphis unipuncta*)–

Marks of identification.–Full grown caterpillars are 25·4 to 38·1 mm. (1″ to 1½″) long, smooth, stout-bodied, dull greenish coloured with broad light coloured stripes 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. Moths are of two types. One is brownish red with prominent spots on the anterior margin of the wings. The hind wings are pale in the middle with dark borders. The other is dusky brown with a dark median line and less prominent spots on the apical margin of the wings. A pest called swarming caterpillar which is a little darker and with longitudinal bands is also known to infest jowar. Their habits and the control measures for them are identical.

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".

Life history.–Round, greenish-white eggs are laid on central leaves in two parallel rows in batches which hatch in a week. Caterpillars feed on leaves from the margin inwards and hide in the central whorl of the plant. In bad cases of attack, they completely defoliate the plants as they have the habit of feeding together. Their larval period is from 21 to 28 days. Full grown caterpillars descend on the ground for pupation. Their pupal period lasts from 8 to 10 days. The total period of their life cycle is five to six weeks. The pest is active from June to November. *Kharif* crops suffer more from it than rabi for this reason. There may be a number of generations during a season, after which the insects hibernate in the pupal stage in the soil. The pest does not become abundant every year and it is observed that when a long dry spell follows a good start of monsoon, the pest assumes epidemic form. It shows a tendency to subside if heavy showers occur thereafter.

Control 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 the pupae. Insecticidal measures have been found very effective. 5 per cent BHC. or endrin dust, if properly dusted at the rate of 13·608 kg. (30 lb.) per acre, successfully

controls the pest. Dusting done in the evenings when there is no strong 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 0·453 kg. (1 lb.) in 113·649 litres (25 gallons) of water. About 363·677 to 454·596 litres (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, in case of small-size crops like *nuchani* 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.) are responsible for causing the sugary secretion on jowar locally known as *chikta*. It is quite severe especially on *rabi* jowar.

Delphacids are wedgeshaped, greenish brown in colour with blackish spots on wings.

Aphids–Adult is 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 which checks growth and causes damage to the growing shoot.

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 9·072 kg. (20 lb.)per acre help in reducing the intensity of infestation of these pests.

Blister beetle (*Zonabris Pustulata*)–

Marks of identification.–The beetles are black with yellowish brown stripes across their wings and over an inch long and about half an inch thick. Its other species are smaller, about three-fourth of an inch long and thin, with a light brown or greenish blue colour. All of them have rather a soft body and their wings are also thinner than those of other beetles. The adult insect secretes an acid substance from its body and when crushed on the human body, it causes a blister.

The beetles feed on the pollen and petals of flowers and thus reduce the setting of grains.

Host plants.–Bajri, jowar, cucurbits and beans.

Life history.–Whitish eggs are laid in the soil in masses which hatch in about a fortnight. The larvae feed on eggs of grasshoppers laid in the soil. The beetles emerge from pupae and remain active from August to December. They eat pollen and thus affect the setting of grains in the earhead.

Control measures.–Preventive measures consist of collection of beetles by means of hand-net and their destruction. They are also attracted to light, so that light traps may be used. However, insecticidal measures yield more satisfactory results. 5 per cent. BHC dust is effective against this pest if dusted properly at the rate of 9·072 kg. (20 lbs.) per acre.

Gram pod. borer [*Heliothis* (*Armigera*) *Obsolata*] Gram.

Marks of identification.–The moths are stout, light yellowish brown, with a wing expanse of 38·1 m. (1½″). The forewings are pale brown with some black dots and the hind wings are lighter in colour with smoky dark margins. The caterpillars are greenish with darker broken grey lines along the sides of the body. They are 38·1 to 50·8mm. (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.

Host plants.–Gram, cotton, tomato, peas, tobacco, ganja, safflower, etc., are the principal hosts.

Life history.–Shining greenish yellow eggs, spherical in shape are laid singly on the tender parts of plants and they hatch in about 6 or 7 days. On hatching, the caterpillars start feeding on tender leaves and shoots and as they grow, they bore into the pods and eat the developing grains inside. They become full grown in 14 to 15 days and descend on the ground and pupate in earthen cocoons in the soil near the plants. Their pupal period lasts from one week to a month. The pest is active from November to March.

Control measures.–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 0·453 kg. (1 lb.) of 50 per cent water dispersible DDT powder in 113·649 litres (25 gallons) of water. About 272·758 to 363·677 litres (60 to 80 gallons) on a young crop and 454·596 litres (100 gallons) on a grown up crop are generally required.

Tur plume moth (*Exelustes Atomosa*).–The full grown caterpillars are about 12·7 mm. (½″) long, greenish brown in colour and are fringed with short hair and spines. They bore into green pods and feed on the developing seeds. Tur.

Life history.–Minute eggs are laid singly on the tender shoots, leaves, flowers or pods which hatch in about 5 days. On hatching, the caterpillars first scrape the surface of pods and gradually cut holes and thrust their heads into pods and feed on seeds and become full grown in about four weeks time. They pupate on the pod surface or even in the burrows of infested pods. Their pupal period

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lasts for two weeks. The pupae are also fringed with short hair and spines and are often liable to be mistaken for larvae. The total period of their life cycle is about seven weeks.

Preventive measures are the collection of caterpillars by shaking shoots and pods in small trays containing water mixed with kerosene and non-cultivation of leguminous crops in the same fields in successive years. The insecticidal measures given under the gram pod borer may be tried with advantage.

Paddy.

The swarming caterpillar (*spodoptera mauritia*, boisd).—Full grown caterpillars measure 31·75 to 38·1 mm. (1¼″ to 1½″) long, are dark greenish with slight yellow tinge. They can readily be distinguished from other caterpillars by the presence of white longitudinal dorsal stripes along their length of body.

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.

Life History.—Two hundred to three hundred eggs covered with greyish hair are laid in masses. They hatch in 7 to 8 days. The caterpillars on hatching start feeding on leaves mostly at night and become full grown in about two weeks. Then they pupate in earthen cells generally in soil. The period of their life cycle is 40 to 50 days. They have a habit of migrating and hence they ravish field after field in a short time. More than one generation is found in a season. The pest is known to multiply when there is a long break in rains after an initial good start.

Preventive measures include protection of seed beds by deep trenching with steep sides and hand collection of egg-masses and their destruction. The caterpillars hide during the day time under clods, and hence 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 9·072 to 9·68 kg. (20–30 lbs.) per acre. The dusting if done in the evening will yield better results as the caterpillars come out to feed at night. Where rains are frequent, spraying BHC water–dispersible powder by diluting, 2·268 kg. (5 lbs.) of 50 per cent. BHC in 454·596 liters (100 gallons) of water can be tried. 272·758 to 454·596 litres (60 to 100 gallons) of spray per acre should be used for effective control.

The Rice case worms—(*nymphula depunctalis*, Guen.)—

Marks of identification.—The moths are ½″ in length with a wing expanse of 31·75 mm. (1¼″). They are delicate and white with pale brown and black markings. Full-grown caterpillars are greenish

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white, 12·7 mm. (½″) long and semi-aquatic and generally feed on foliage inside tubular cases formed of pieces of paddy leaves.

Host plants.—Paddy and some varieties of grasses.

Nature of damage.—The caterpillars cut the paddy leaves into short lengths, construct tubular cases and remain inside while feeding.

Life history.—Tiny eggs are laid on the tender leaves. On hatching, the caterpillars cut the paddy leaves into short lengths, construct tubular cases and remain feeding inside the small rolls and there become full-grown. They pupate inside the tubular cases or rolls. Their detailed life history has not yet been investigated.

Control measures.—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 into it a little crude oil.

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 per cent. DDT spray obtained by mixing 3·175 to 3·629 kg. (7 to 8 lb.) of 50 per cent. water dispersible powder in 454·596 litres (100 gallons) of water has shown better results.

Sugarcane.

The sugarcane stem-borer—(*Chilotrea Infuscatellus*, S)—

The adult moth is greyish brown or straw-coloured and measures about 38·1 mm. (1½″) when its wings are spread out. The lower wings are greyish white and the palpi are pointed forward. The newly hatched larva is somewhat greyish in colour, having a dark head and a translucent body with spots and hair. The tiny spots develop into spines. A fully developed larva measures about 31·75 mm. (1¼″) and is greyish white in colour. The body is often covered with dark marks, having tubercles and short seta on them.

Host plants.—In Maharashtra State, it is generally a pest of sugarcane only but in other states it has been observed on maize and *bajri* as well.

The pest is mainly injurious to young cane. The caterpillars enter the plants from the side at ground level, by making holes in the stalk and may bore either downwards or upwards or both ways. Thus, the central shoots dry up, causing "dead hearts" which is a characteristic sign of the presence of the pest within the plants. A dead heart can easily be pulled out.

Life history.—Oval, scale like, whitish eggs are laid overlapping each other on the undersurface of leaves by the side of the midrib. The egg-stage lasts for 3 to 5 days. The newly hatched caterpillar enters the cane near the eye at ground level and later tunnels as far as the roots. Sometimes the borer is found to migrate from the roots

to other tillers. The larval stage lasts for about a month and before pupation, it bites a round hole into the cane above ground level which is covered by a silken membrane from where the moth can escape. The pupal stage lasts for about a week and the entire life cycle is completed in about a month and a half. There are about eight generations in a year.

The controlling measures of the pest include—

(1) Removal of affected plants having "dead hearts" right from the ground level, ensuring that the larva or pupa has come out in the portion removed and feeding the same to the cattle or burying them deep in order to prevent further development. This method has been tried with success.

(2) Early planting in November or December in the case of plant cane and late planting in August or September in the case of *Adsali* cane will help in minimising the infestation, as the pest is less active during these months.

(3) Trichorgamma parasites may be released at the rate of one lakh per acre in three instalments at an interval of a fortnight in the infested field. This has not given satisfactory control, but the cheapness of this method attracted much attention.

(4) Light earthing up of cane will prevent the emergence of the moth by closing the holes with mud.

The sugarcane top shoot-borer—(*Scirpophaga Nivella* F),—

Marks of identification.—The moth is creamy white in colour having a wing span of a little over an inch when spread out and with orange hair-like structures at the tip of the abdomen of the female. The first pair of the wings of certain males has single black spot on each wing. Fully developed caterpillars measure about 25·4 mm. to 38·1 mm. (1 inch to 1½ inches) in length and are yellowish white in colour.

This is a very serious pest of sugarcane that breeds throughout the year and is capable of attacking cane at a later stage. The newly hatched caterpillar enters first the midrib of the leaf and bores downwards into the shoots from the top. As a result of such feeding, the central shoot dries up in a characteristic way, which later results in giving off side shoots which form a bunchy top. The punctures on the leaves and the death of the central shoot and the bunchy top are the characteristic effects of this pest.

Life history.—Eggs are laid on the undersurface of leaves in groups consisting of 35 to 40 eggs which are covered with brownish hair like structures and hence are clearly visible. The newly hatched caterpillar, after remaining for some time on the leaves, enters the shoots through the midrib of the leaf. The caterpillar feeds as it travels downward. A fully developed larva measures 25·4 to 38·1 mm. (1 to 1½ inches) and before pupation, it prepares a silken membrane from which the moth can escape. The pupa is found

in the larval tunnel. The egg stage continues for 7 to 10 days from which the moth on emergence starts laying eggs within 2 to 4 days of its life time.

Control measures—

(1) Mechanical methods such as mass collection and destruction of egg-masses and removal of affected plants, harvesting the crop by digging out the stump, and light earthings during the early stages of the crop are the only effective measures known so far.

(2) Conservation of egg parasites with the help of special boxes can be tried. Chemical measures have not yet proved successful. However, for effective control of the shoot borer in general, the following measures are recommended :

(*i*) The crop should be harvested by digging out the stump and not by cutting at ground level.

(*ii*) A large scale campaign to collect and destroy the egg-masses of the top shoot borer should be carried out.

(*iii*) Two light earthings should be given during the early stages of the crop.

The sugarcane-leaf-hopper or pyrilla (*Pyrilla* SP.)—

The adult pyrilla bug is a straw coloured insect, with two pairs of pointed wings folded roof shaped on the back and with its head extended like a beak which is quite readily visible. The young nymphs that hatch out from the eggs are pale brown in colour, having a pair of long characteristic processes covered by wax. They are active and are found in large numbers on cane.

Host plants.—Its host plant is mainly sugarcane but adults are sometimes found in small numbers on jowar and maize.

The nymphs and adult bugs suck the sap of cane leaves from the lower surface, as a result of which the leaves lose turgidity, begin to wither and ultimately get dried up. The bugs secrete a honeydew like substance that spreads on the leaves on which a black fungus develops. As a result of pyrilla damage, the sucrose content of the juice is reduced.

Life history.—Pale greenish-yellow eggs are laid in clusters of 2 to 4 or 10 to 60, generally on the under surface of leaves and between the detached leaf sheaths and the stem. The eggs are covered with white cottony, waxy filaments. They hatch out within a week into tiny hoppers that start sucking the sap of leaves. The nymphs become adult bugs within 50 to 60 days. Egg laying continues from April to November. The pest is active during July and August.

Control measures.—(1) Collection and destruction of egg-masses and crushing the egg-masses on the leaves is found to be a convenient method of control.

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(2) Stripping off the lower leaves to remove the eggs laid in the leaf sheath was a method recommended for a long time. Now, however, insecticides are used.

(3) Dusting the crop with 5 per cent BHC at the rate of 13·608 to 18·144 kg. (30 to 40 lb.) and 22·630 to 27·216 kg. (50 to 60 lb.) per acre in the pre and post monsoon periods, respectively, destroys both the nymphs and the adults. This method is now widely used.

(4) Spraying 0·12 to 0·25 per cent BHC or 0·25 per cent DDT at the rate of 136·379 to 227·298 litres (30 to 50 gallons) per acre for young cane during the premonsoon period and over 454·596 litres (100 gallons) during the post-monsoon period also gives considerable relief. The quantity to be used depends on growth of cane and enough quantity should be used so as to cover the entire crops.

Wheat.

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.

Host plants.–Maize in the dry weather and sometimes wheat in winter.

The caterpillar bores inside the stem thus causing the drying of the central shoots which are 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. Drying of the plant often leads to reddening of stems and leaves.

Life history.–Creamy white eggs are laid in clusters inside the leaf sheaths of the stems. The young caterpillars after hatching enter the stem and gradually kill the central shoot of the plant, thus creating dead hearts. If the plants are grown up, the earheads are also liable to damage. The caterpillars grow about an inch long and pupate inside the stem. The total period from the egg stage to the adult stage is 6 to 7 weeks and this period may be prolonged in the cold weather.

Being internal feeders, only preventive measures are found practicable and economic :–

(1) In the early stage of infestation, the stems of plants showing dead hearts should be pulled out along with the caterpillars and destroyed promptly.

(2) After the harvest of the crop, the stubbles should be collected and burnt so as to destroy the hibernating larvae.

(3) After harvesting the crop, wheat stalks which are used as fodder should be stored in the form of cut fodder. The pieces of cut fodder should measure about half an inch to three fourths an inch. Chemical measures have not yet proved effective.

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Groundnut.

Aphids.–

They are small, black, soft bodied insects found on the lower side of leaves. They are generally inactive.

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.

Life history.–The life history of this pest is similar to that of safflower aphid, but the species become abundant in the *kharif* season.

The control measures are the same as those for aphids on safflower; 10 per cent BHC dust also gives some relief.

Chillis.

Thrips and mites.–These pests suck the cell sap due to which the leaves get badly curled up. It is locally known as "*churda murda*" disease. The extent of damage is about 25 per cent and the pest is considered to be a major one.

Control measures.–0·2 per cent BHC + sulphur (wettable) is found to be a very effective control. 0·02 per cent endrin + wettable sulphur (1 : 1) or 0·2 per cent diazinon or 0·025 per cent dieldrin + sulphur (1 : 1) is also found to be equally effective.

DISEASES OF CROPS.

Jowar.

Grain smut–*kani roga or dane kani* [*Sphacetotheca Sorghi* (L. K.) Clinton]–

The disease is more prevalent on *kharif* jowar than *rabi* jowar. On *kharif* jowar, it occurs from September to November and on *rabi* jowar from December to February. The disease is noticed at earhead formation only. Individual grains are affected and in place of grains, black masses of spores are formed and in closed sori. Damage due to this disease is 6 to 10 per cent if the control measures are not adopted. Threshing of diseased and healthy earheads together is the main source of infection and spread of the disease. The disease can be controlled by treating the seed with sulphur dust of 200-300 mesh @ 110 gms. for 27·2 kg. of seed. The other diseases such as loose smut (*kajali*) and long smut (*jamb kani*) which are not very serious can be controlled by the measures advocated for grain smut.

Downy mildew-*kevada*–(*Sclerospora Sorghii* (Kulk.) Weston and Uppal)–

The disease is prevalent in the months of August and September. On young leaves downy white growth mostly on lower surface, with yellowing on the corresponding upper surface is seen. Later the leaves become shredded. The main source of infection in the succeeding year is from the oospores shed in the soil from the affected crop. There is loss of vigour in plants resulting in reduced yields. Damage

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DISEASES OF CROPS.

Jowar.

is between 3 and 10 per cent. The control measures consist of systematic rouging and burning of affected plants, rotation and growing of resistant varieties.

Bajri.

Ergot disease—*Chikta* [*Claviceps microcephala* (Wall.) Tal.]

The disease occurs in the middle of August and September. The grains in the earhead are transformed into black bodies called sclerotia, which contain a poison called ergotin, which is fatal to cattle and human beings. The losses range between 3 and 10 per cent. Sources of infection of this disease are sclerotia mixed with *bajri* seeds and sugary secretion carried by insects and rain drops splashed by wind. The sclerotia can be separated from the healthy seed by steeping the seed in 20 per cent salt solution. The sclerotia and pieces of broken sclerotia and light seeds float and these may be removed and burnt. The steeped seeds are to be washed and dried before consumption. Deep ploughing may also be practised.

Downy mildew—*Gosavi* [*Sclerospora Graminicola* (Sacc) Schroet]—

The disease occurs in the months of August and September. On young leaves, downy white growth mostly on lower surface, with yellowing on corresponding upper surface is seen. The shredding of leaves is uncommon. On the earheads instead of grains small greenish scale like growth is observed giving the appearance of green ear which is very commonly seen in the field. The main source of infection is oospores which are shed in the soil from the previously affected crop. The extent of damage is between 3 and 10 per cent. The control measures consist of systematic rouging and burning of affected plants, rotation and growing of resistant varieties.

Wheat.

Black stem rust—*Tambhera* (*Puccinia Graminis Tritici*, Eric and Henn.)—

Tambhera occurs from November to February. The disease manifests in the form of reddish brown elongated spots on the leaves and stem in early as well as the later parts of the season. At the maturity of the crop these spots turn black. The disease is spread by spores carried by wind and rain. There is loss of vigour in the plants resulting in reduced yields. Damage caused by *tambhera* is as high as 60 to 70 per cent under severe disease conditions. The disease is controlled by growing resistant varieties *viz.*, for irrigated—NI-917, NI-315, Hy-65, NI-146, NI-284-S, K-25, NI-28, NI-62 and for dry—N-59, N-125.

Loose smut of wheat—*kajali* [*Ustilago Tritici* (Pers) Rostr].—

The disease occurs from February onwards and is visible on earheads. Only the earheads are affected. The inflorescence, the rachis and awns are transformed into black mass. The disease is carried internally in the seed. Damages range between 3 and

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DISEASES OF CROPS.

Wheat.

10 per cent. The disease can be controlled by washing the seed with water and spreading it on a threshing yard or galvanised iron-sheets and drying for 5—6 hours, during the hottest part of the day, in the months of April or May.

Paddy.

Paddy blast—*Tikkya*—(*Piricularia Oryzae*) Cav—

The disease is found on seedlings from July to August and on grown up crop from September to November. There is loss of vigour in the crop and due to neck infection there may be complete sterility resulting in reduced yields. Under severe disease conditions the losses may range from 45 to 75 per cent. The sources of infection are wind borne, from the debris of the previous crop and seeds from infected areas. The disease is controlled by treating seeds with organo-mercury at the rate of 4 Ozs. per 45·359 kg. (100 lbs), of seeds. Before transplating, the seedings should be dipped in Bordeaux mixture 3 : 3 : 50 or any copper fungicide should be given. Tolerant varieties *viz.*, early *ambemohor*-39, *Kolhapur* scented, *patni*-6, *bhadas*-78, *krishnasal*-10, *antrasal*-90; 67 and 200 could be grown, pending evolution of resistant varieties.

Helminthosporium leaf spot—*Tikkya*.

(*Helminthosporium Oryzae*) Breda-de-Haan—

The infected seeds show dark brown spots with white centre and yellow halo on the leaves and glumes. Losses may vary from 6 to 10 per cent. The measures advocated for paddy blast may be followed to control the disease.

Tur.

Tur wilt-Mar—(*Fusarium Oxysporium* F. *Udum*)—

The disease attacks seedlings as well as mature plants killing the hosts outright. Damage is estimated to be up to 50 per cent. Growing of resistant varieties is the only way of controlling this disease.

Groundnut.

Leaf spot of groundnut—*Tikka* [*Cercospora Personata*] (*B* & *C.*) *Ell* & *Everh Cercospora Arachidicola* Hori—

The disease occurs from July to September on late varieties when the crop is 1½ months old. Roundish purplish brown or irregular spots appear on the leaves. There is loss of vigour in the crop resulting in low yields. The source of infection is mostly plant debris. Tikka is controlled by spraying the crop in the third week of July with 3 : 3 : 50 bordeaux mixture or any copper compound. If necessary, second spraying in the third week of August may be given and third spraying if required, in the third week of September. Besides, it can be successfully controlled by sulphur dusting (200 to 300 mesh) at the rate of 6·804 kg. (15 lbs.) per acre.

Sclerotium wilt-mar—[*Sclerotium Rolfsii* (Sacc)]—

The disease occurs from July to September and is recognised by wilting of plants. Partial wilt is also common. Due to this disease, root, stem and collar are usually affected. When the disease is

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DISEASES OF CROPS.

Groundnut.

fully developed it forms small pale brown mustard seedlike bodies known as sclerotia. The loss due to the disease is between 1 and 5 per cent. The source of infection is plant debris and sclerotia. The controlling measures include rotation with maize or millet crops, deep ploughing or burning of infected plant debris.

Cotton.

Wilt-Mar–[*Fusarium Vas Infectum* (*A* & *K*) Sh. & Haan.]–

The disease occurs on seedlings in October and November. The losses caused by the disease may range from 60 to 75 per cent under severe conditions. The pathogen is found in the soil from where the infection takes place. *Mar* can be controlled by growing resistant varieties like *Virnar* (197-3), G-22 (1422), G-46 (1946) and Y-1.

E. Anthracnose of cotton–[*Kavadi–Colletotrichum Indicum* Dastur]–

The disease occurs in seedling and boll forming stages. Losses caused vary from 15 to 50 per cent under severe disease conditions. The spread of the disease is from infected seeds and affected plant debris. The disease can be effectively controlled by treating the seeds with mercurial fungicides at the rate of 2 Oz. for 6·804 kg. (15 lbs.) of seeds, burning of affected plant debris, 3 to 4 sprayings with 3 : 3 : 50 bordeaux mixture or any other copper fungicides during the life period of the crop.

Bacterial blight–angular leaf spot-black arm of cotton–*karpa* [*Kanthomonas Malvacearum* (smith) Dow.]

The disease spreads from July to September on dry cotton and from July to March on irrigated cotton. Due to blighting there is loss of vigour in the crop resulting in reduced yields. The losses range from 15 to 25 per cent. The organism lives in seeds and if such seeds are sown they produce diseased plants. *Karpa* can be controlled by treating seeds with mercurial fungicides at the rate of 3 gms. to 1 kg. of seeds and burning of affected plant debris.

Grey mildew or Areolate mildew–*Dahiya*–(*Ramularia areola*) Atk–

The disease occurs from September to November. Yellowish angular discoloration is visible on the upper surface of the leaves while on the corresponding lower surface ash or gray coloured growth of the fungus is seen. Severe infection causes defoliation resulting in reduced yields. The losses vary from 15 to 50 per cent. The organism is disseminated through plant debris and through air which infects the crop. The disease can be effectively controlled by dusting sulphur (200–300 mesh) at the rate of 7 to 10 kgs. per acre from the middle of August. The dusting should be completed by first week of September. If necessary, another dusting may be given during the life of the crop.

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DISEASES OF CROPS.

Sugarcane.

E. Smut–*Kajali* (*Ustilago Scitaminla*) (Rabh.) Syd.–

The disease occurs from January to March affecting the canes which produce long whip like shoots covered with black masses of spores. Smutted shoots may also arise from lateral buds. The losses range from 5 to 10 per cent. Bagging the affected shoots helps in checking the further spread of the disease. Irrigating the field 2-3 times before planting, use of smut resistant strains of sugarcane and rouging out and burning the entire diseased clumps and smutted shoot or shoots in the clump can control the disease.

Grassy shoot–*gavtad vadicha rog*–virus disease.–This is a virus disease of sugarcane and is of common occurrence on variety *Co-419*.

Crop affected by this disease results in poor stunted growth and number of shoots develop from the eye buds. For control, the sugarcane sets should be treated by dipping in hot water at 53°C for 40 minutes.

Chillis.

Fruit rot–kavadi–(*Colletotrichum capscici*) (Syd. Butler & Bisby)–

The disease occurs in the months of November and December on dry as well as irrigated chilli crop. There is rotting of fruit which later on drop, resulting in reduced yield. The loss varies from 15 to 20 per cent under severe disease conditions. The source of infection is from seeds and plant debris. Seed treatment with organo-mercurial fungicides and spraying 3 times with bordeaux mixture 3 : 3 : 50 or any other copper fungicide from flowering stage onwards helps in reducing the disease.

HISTORY OF LAND ADMINISTRATION.

Of the revenue system in Dhulia district under the earliest Hindu rulers no authentic information is available. However, at the beginning of the British rule, the common belief was that in early Hindu times the land was held by tenant proprietors, *mirasdars*, and that tenants-at-will, *upris*, were introduced as the old proprietors sank under Muhammedan tyranny. This opinion was supported by the fact that most of the fields cultivated by tenants-at-will were entered in the village books as belonging to absent proprietors. This, in Mr. Elphinstone's opinion, when combined with circumstances observed in other parts of India and with the high land-tax authorised by Manu, afforded a strong presumption that the Hindu revenue system, if they had an uniform system, was founded on private property in the soil. So also no information about the revenue system under the Faruki kings (1370-1600) is available. Under Akbar's regime (1601-1605) the lands were surveyed and to a certain extent classified and assessments, to run for fixed periods, were imposed, based upon the natural qualities of the soil and the kind of produce it was able to yield. Later on the revenue system was modified by Malik Ambar who combined the two great merits of a moderate and permanent tax and the possession by the cultivators of an interest in the soil. One thing is true that whatever revenue changes were introduced either

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HISTORY OF LAND ADMINISTRATION.

by Hindu or Musalman rulers, the internal features of village and district administration seem to have existed in the main unchanged from very early times. The husbandmen suffered much oppression at the hands of their immediate superiors. The land was tilled by force and consequently very ill tilled. These matters grew worse and under the Marathas some more burdens were imposed on the people. The earliest demand under Marathas consisted of the one-fourth, *chauth*, of the land revenue. Later on Maratha exactions increased. Various assignments such as *jagirs, mokasa, sahotra, babti, sardeshmukhi etc.*, were made to individual chiefs and others for whom it was politic to make provisions. Besides these grants of certain portions of the revenue, many proprietors held and collected the revenues of various estates. The whole system was most complicated and confused and people constantly suffered from it. The *mamlatdars* or *kamavisdars* earned salaries and had also various indirect means of making money. The evils were still aggravated when the Peshwas towards the close of their rule took the step in changing the *mamlatdars* from Government servants into yearly revenue farmers. Afterwards the British introduced the revenue survey in 1852 on the basis of the report submitted by Captain Wingate. The farming system introduced by the Peshwas was then abolished and the system of settling land revenue with individual cultivators was introduced which freed the cultivators from the district officers' demands as the powers of the hereditary officials were taken away. The settlement of the revenue was then no longer made with the headmen of the villages. The revenue was fixed on the average payments of ten previous years. The revision survey settlement was afterwards commenced in 1886 and completed in 1904. The new survey enhanced the total revenue from 31 to 40 lakhs. The average assessment per acre of 'dry' land was Rs. 1·37; of rice land Rs. 1·62; and of garden land, Rs. 2·87.

TENURES.

The system of *inamdari* tenure, however, was continued even under the British rule for political and administrative purposes. Under this type of tenure *inam* lands were gifted or granted by the Government for meritorious services in the past or in lieu of or on condition of some continuing service useful to the government or to the village community. Such *inam* lands were held wholly or partially free of land revenue. These *inams* comprised political or *saranjam inams* (1952),[1] personal *inams* (1953), hereditary *watan inams* (1951), village servants useful to (*a*) community (1954); (*b*) Government patels (1963), *mahars* (1959), Bhil Naik (1955) and *Deosthan inams*. All these *inams* except *deosthan inams* have now been abolished under various measures of land reform. So also all the hereditary *watan* lands for village services have been abolished and occupancy rights of abolished *inam* lands have been conferred on their holders or tenants, as the case may be, on conditions of payment of occupancy price to the Government and or compensation to the erstwhile holders.

[1] The figures in brackets indicate the years of abolition of the respective *inams*.

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TENURES.

These intermediaries between the Government and the actual tillers have been abolished as they were found detrimental to agricultural production and which provided little incentive to the peasantry.

The land tenures now prevalent in the district are the survey or *rayatwari* tenures and *deosthan inams*. There are no lands pertaining to *non-rayatwari i.e., talukdari, khoti, udhad jama, mehwasi or kauli*, etc. The *rayatwari* tenure is the most important form of tenure in the district and occupied an area for the revenue year 1957-58 as follows:—

(*i*) Unassessed cultivable lands ..	19,549·976 hectares. (48,309·2 acres).
(*ii*) Lands not available for cultivation.	7,01,995·045 hectares. (17,34,666·4 acres).
(*iii*) Cultivable assessed land ..	37,291·410 hectares. (92,149·12 acres).
(*iv*) Occupied Government land:	
Ordinary	4,46,631·299 hectares. (11,03,649·16 acres).
Restricted	2,32,288·550 hectares. (5,73,997·2 acres).
(*v*) Alienated	24,413·492 hectares. (60,327·18 acres).

The details of assessment of land revenue in 1957-58 were as under:—

	Rs.
(*i*) On Government occupied agricultural lands.	22,82,697·73
(*ii*) On alienated lands	20,523·44
(*iii*) Building and other non-agricultural assessment.	56,258·02

The details of alienated lands were as under:—

	Rs.
(*i*) Deosthan *inam* class III ..	10,797·90 4,105·539 hectares. (10,145·12 acres).
(*ii*) Village servants useful to Government.	19,333·874 hectares. (47,774·33½ acres).
(*iii*) Miscellaneous *inam* class VII ..	45·730 hectares. (112·38 acres).

In *rayatwari* tenure the land revenue is fixed on individual survey numbers or sub-divisions thereof. The assessment is based on advantages arising from soil, water resources, location, kind of crop etc. As such the agricultural lands are divided into dry crop lands,

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TENURES. TENANCY.

rice lands and garden lands. All decisions in respect of such matters are taken in accordance with the provisions laid down in the Land Revenue Code and the rules thereunder.

Till 1937 no steps were taken for giving protection to the tiller of the soil. The tillers were exploited by the landlords. The tenants suffered from unequal status in comparison to superior holders in matters of contract or agreement. As such tenants were left with little incentive to improve the land and obtain better yield from it. The conditions, however, changed with the passing of the Bombay Tenancy Act of 1939. Afterwards the act was amended and was entitled Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948. This Act is in force in the district since 1949. It regulated the tenancy rights and provided security of tenure to and payment of only reasonable rents by the tenants. It also provided for compulsory transfer of ownership rights of tenanted lands to the tenants from 1st April 1957 and removed the absentee landlordism.

The following statement gives the administration of the Tenancy Acts in the Dhulia district.

Taluka		No. of cases filed under the Tenancy Act sections 32, 32-R, 33	No. of cases disposed of	No. of cases pending
Dhulia	..	5,313	5,289	24
Sindkheda	..	6,356	6,155	201
Sakri	..	5,422	5,379	43
Shirpur	..	2,974	2,962	12
Nandurbar	..	2,345	2,320	25
Shahada	..	3,435	3,378	57
Taloda	..	1,154	1,150	4
Navapur	..	1,095	1,002	93

The Tenancy Act is not applicable to Akrani and Akkalkuwa talukas.

RURAL WAGES.

There is a large number of tenant cultivators and landless labourers who are employed for various agricultural operations during the agricultural season. This class of wage-earners includes, as a rule, men, women and children. Generally men get highest wages, women earn two-thirds of men's wages and children one-half. The nature and conditions of these labourers, however, differ in different parts of the district and vary as time changes. The payment of wages also differs from one category to the other. Further, marked variations in the terms, conditions and wages paid, during the past years are also observed as can be seen from the following paragraph[1].

[1] *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XII, Khandesh, 1880* pp. 198-202.

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RURAL WAGES.

Labourers.

'Labourers are employed in the fields between June and January, when in quick succession, come the sowing and reaping of the early and late crops, the picking and cleaning of cotton, and the ploughing of land for the next season. Women as well as men are employed in weeding and harvesting crops and in ginning cotton. In February and March, labourers bring headloads of grass and fuel from waste lands for sale, and from April to June they find work in house-building, road-making, and other village jobs. Except during the few years before and after the close of the American war and the opening of the railway through Khandesh, unskilled workers were probably never better off than they now are. Fifty years ago the wages of unskilled labour were extremely low, and at the same time employment was comparatively uncertain. Fifteen years ago, on account of the great demand for labour in making railways and from the flourishing state of the cotton trade, the value of labour rose even more than the value of produce and other prices. Besides this, as most of the labourers, especially those employed in fields, were paid in kind, they shared with the farmers in the general profit from high produce prices. Since then, except during the special famine years, 1868-69, 1871-72 and 1876-77, prices have fallen almost below their former level, but owing to the continued demand for labour, wages have not fallen in an equal degree. At the same time, their want of thrift, and their fondness for spending their money on ornaments and opium or liquor, combine to keep labourers poor, and in many cases to plunge them hopelessly in debt. Money-lenders seldom, at one time, advance day labourers more than £ 2 10*s*. to £ 3 (Rs. 25–Rs. 30) but their liabilities often exceed £ 10 (Rs. 100). In making him advances the money-lender often requires the labourer to pledge his labour, his house, his bullocks, and some times even his family pots and ornaments. When the labourer has no property, the money-lender usually demands a respectable surety, or forces the whole family to sign the bond.

Labour Mortgage.

About two or three per cent. of the labouring population in the east, and about ten per cent. in the west, raise money by mortgaging their labour. These men are generally small landholders, who, by some folly or mishap, have fallen hopelessly in debt. Men who mortgage their labour are known as yearlies, *saldars*, because their term of service lasts for one or more years. Labour is generally mortgaged, either to clear off old debts or to raise a sum of money to meet marriage or other expenses. Sometimes a man mortgages his own and sometimes his children's labour. The men who take labour in mortgage are generally rich landowners, *deshmukhs*, *patils*, and others, who employ the mortgagers in field work and sometimes as messengers or duns, *mahasulis*. The labour mortgage bond, called a year deed, *salkhat*, is on stamped paper. Sometimes the mortgager is advanced the whole, and sometimes only one-half of the sum agreed on. The common plan is that the labourer, working solely for his benefit, is supplied with food at the mortgagee's cost. Under

this form of agreement, a labourer takes from three to four years to work off a debt of £ 10 (Rs. 100). Occasionally the *saldar* lives by himself and is bound to do only a certain amount of work for his master. Under this agreement, the labourer supports himself, and in two years would work off a debt of Rs. 100. A *saldar's* services cannot be handed from one master to another. They are willing workers, and generally do their share of the agreement freely and without punishment. Sometimes they run away, and formerly, though they now refuse to do so, the magistrates used to enforce the bond. Their services never became hereditary. In the houses of wealthy headmen and landlords is a class of hereditary retainers. Before the passing of the Act (V of 1848), these people were bondsmen and bondswomen, the property of their master and liable to be sold by him. They now hold the position of hired servants. In practice their condition is little changed. They are well treated by their masters, and few of them have made use of their opportunities of raising themselves from the position of servants.'

The rural labour is now free from the clutches of the money-lenders, due to the special legislation of 1946 to that effect. The situation improved further when the government increasingly made the employment facilities available to the labourers. As a result, the old systems of servitude like *saldari*, which meant the pledge of labour are almost withering away. The traditional method of making payment of agricultural wages in kind is almost extinct. The present wage rates as compared with those prevalent in the past also show a marked difference. This may be due to the demand for labour and the high cost of living which together have raised the daily cost of the labour, both skilled and unskilled.

The classification of agricultural labour followed in this connection, however, is the same as stated in the Manual of Revenue Accounts. Accordingly, the three categories of labour are skilled, ordinary and field labour. The skilled labour comprises carpenters, black-smiths and cobblers; ordinary labour consists of load carrying coolies, well diggers, mason's or carpenter's assistants, earth workers etc.; while field labour comprises ploughmen, sowers, reapers, harvesters, weeders and transplanters, etc. To this one more category is added viz., herdsmen, whose main work is to collect live-stock from different owners and to feed them in the jungle during the day and to bring them back in the evening to the owners' places. Of these categories of labourers, the herdsmen get lower payment for their services while the skilled labourers earn higher wages. Most of the ordinary or field labourers are employed either as casual workers or for the performance of specific agricultural and allied operations, and a very few of them are appointed as *saldars* who get wages on an annual basis. Generally men are employed for heavy work while lighter work is entrusted to women. Child labour is also sometimes employed for light work. The payment of wages

to these labourers is usually made in cash on daily wage basis and depends upon the nature of agricultural operations involved. The following table gives the rates of wages of the labourers in the district. Usually the big landlords who can provide continuous employment for the whole of the year appoint *saldars*. The contract with these *saldars* is generally for a year and can be continued further if both the parties desire to do so. Sometimes the *saldars* are provided with, besides cash payment, facilities like food, clothing, accommodation etc.

TABLE No. 39

AVERAGE AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1952-53, 1956-57 AND 1961-62

(In Rupees and paise)

Year	Month	Carpenters	Black-smiths	Cobblers	Field Labour	Other agricul-tural labour	Herdsmen
1952-53	July	2·70	2·50	1·85	1·18	0·88	0·68
	August	2·73	2·53	1·98	1·11	0·84	0·74
	September	2·73	2·53	1·78	1·16	0·84	0·74
	October	2·71	2·55	1·48	1·14	0·86	0·75
	November	2·90	2·60	2·00	1·11	0·84	0·74
	December	2·90	2·60	1·85	1·28	0·91	0·81
	January	2·85	2·55	1·80	1·16	0·91	0·81
	February	2·75	2·45	1·80	1·10	0·85	0·70
	March	2·80	2·50	1·75	1·10	0·90	0·70
	April	2·63	2·43	1·65	1·07	0·76	0·68
	May	2·63	2·43	1·60	1·31	0·79	0·73
	June	2·73	2·48	1·78	1·14	0·86	0·75
1956-57	July	2·62	2·50	2·12	0·94	0·87	0·75
	August	2·62	2·50	2·06	1·00	0·87	0·81
	September	2·62	2·56	2·12	1·00	0·94	0·81
	October	2·62	2·50	2·06	1·00	0·94	0·87
	November	2·69	2·50	2·00	1·06	1·00	0·75
	December	2·56	2·37	1·94	1·06	1·00	0·75
	January	2·50	2·44	2·06	1·00	0·94	0·75
	February	2·50	2·50	2·12	1·00	0·94	0·69
	March	2·56	2·50	2·06	1·00	0·94	0·75
	April	2·56	2·50	2·06	0·94	0·94	0·75
	May	2·56	2·50	2·06	1·00	0·94	0·69
	June	2·69	2·50	2·06	1·00	0·94	0·69
1961-62	July	3·25	3·40	2·15	1·38	1·25	1·04
	August	3·25	3·37	2·62	1·38	1·25	1·07
	September	3·35	3·45	3·60	1·42	1·26	1·04
	October	3·22	3·32	2·69	1·47	1·26	1·04
	November	3·17	3·42	2·75	1·50	1·36	1·09
	December	3·07	3·37	2·75	1·50	1·36	1·00
	January	3·00	3·35	2·87	1·47	1·34	1·06
	February	3·10	3·35	2·81	1·47	1·34	1·04
	March	3·15	3·35	2·75	1·47	1·36	1·04
	April	3·17	3·25	3·69	1·47	1·31	1·04
	May	3·17	3·25	2·69	1·50	1·31	1·04
	June	3·17	3·25	3·69	1·50	1·29	1·01

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RURAL WAGES.

Balutedars.

Wherever the *balutedari* system exists, the method followed in making the payments for the services rendered by the *balutedars* has got altogether a different uniqueness. The *balutedars* generally include carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers and barbers. They get for their services payment in kind at the time of harvesting and threshing of the crops. The necessity of these village artisans is generally felt in the remote places.

FAMINES.

Famine or scarcity is caused by partial or total failure of the crops due to insufficient or untimely rainfall, and also due to other natural calamities such as floods, locusts, etc. The effects of these natural gaps are widely felt as the major section of the population subsists on agriculture for its livelihood. Mostly affected are the agricultural labourers usually employed in the fields. Not only there are prospects of losing their employment but at the same time they are sure to face hardships as a result of rising food prices.

An account of the famines which occurred in the old Khandesh district, of which the present Dhulia district formed a part, will be extremely illustrative. Most of these famines were caused by drought, floods, the depredations of rats and locusts as well as by wars. Besides the Durgadevi famine (1396-1407), which is said to have greatly reduced the population of Khandesh, the only scarcity mentioned before was in 1629 when the ravages of war were followed by a total failure of rain which together caused widespread distress. The description of this famine and the subsequent famines given in the old Khandesh Gazetteer of 1880 is as follows :—

1396-1407.

1629. "In that year, following the ravages of war, came a total failure of rain. Lands famed for their richness were utterly barren; life was offered for a loaf, but none would buy, rank for a cake, but none cared for it. The ever-bounteous hand was stretched out to beg; and the rich wandered in search of food. Dog's flesh was sold, and the pounded bones of the dead were mixed with flour.

"The flesh of a son was preferred to his love. The dying blocked the roads, and those who survived fled. Food houses were opened at Burhanpur. Every day soup and bread were distributed, and each Monday Rs. 5,000 were given to the deserving poor. The Emperor and the nobles made great remissions of revenue.

1802-03. "In the troubles which followed Bajirav's establishment as Peshwa, Khandesh suffered more than any part of the Deccan. The year 1802-03 was not, as regards rainfall, unfavourable, nor had any scarcity in the neighbouring districts caused immigration. The country was prosperous, well watered, and thickly peopled, when two seasons of lawlessness spread desolation and famine from one end to the other. The disorders were too great to allow of grain

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being imported, and the price rose to more than a shilling the pound (1 *sher* the rupee). Vast numbers died from famine or disease, and many left their homes never to return. To lessen the pressure of distress the Peshwa's government abolished import duties and remitted revenue; the export of grain was stopped, prices were regulated and measures taken to repress Bhils, Arabs and other free-booters. By the end of 1804 the country was again quiet, but traces of this time of frightful misrule and misery still remain.

"From 1824 to 1826 was a time of great scarcity. Except a few slight showers no rain fell. There was much distress among the poor, and about Rs. 9,11,760 of the district revenue was remitted in three years. Owing to short rainfall, from 1833 to 1836 was a time of great scarcity and distress, Indian millet prices ranging between sixty-two and seventy-three pounds. In 1838-39 prices rose from 121½ to 80½ pounds, and remissions amounting to £ 66,581 18s. (Rs. 6,65,819) were granted. In 1844-45, and again in 1845-46, the failure of the latter rain caused much distress and made large remissions necessary. In 1855-56, on account of want of rain, a large area of land remained unsown, and where sown, the crops, especially in Chopda and Savda, failed. A great part of the labouring population left the district, and even some of the well-to-do cultivators were hard pressed. In some cases from 60 to 75 per cent of the assessment was remitted. Between 1862 and 1866 the rainfall was scanty, and on account of the very high price of cotton, the grain-growing area was much reduced. Indian millet rose from fifty-two to thirty-five pounds the rupee. But wages were high and work was plentiful, and labouring classes passed through this period of famine prices without much suffering.

1824-26. 1833-36 1838-39. 1844-45 and 1845-46. 1855-56. 1862-66.

"In 1868-69, the latter rains failed entirely in several sub-divisions and were scanty throughout the district. The early crops were in many places below the average, and the late ones were almost everywhere inferior. Cotton, especially in Chalisgaon, was only half an average crop and the scarcity of grass was great. Fears were entertained that the Bhil population, suffering from want of food and of labour, would take to robbing and plundering. These fears were increased by the arrival of large numbers of destitute persons from Marwar and Rajputana, where the failure of the rain was more complete and the scarcity amounted to famine. *Jvari* prices rose from seventy to twenty-four pounds the rupee. Relief works were started, many new roads were made, several irrigation works were begun or repaired; and £ 833 (Rs. 8,330) of the land revenue were remitted.

1868-69.

"In 1871-72, except a few partial showers in September, there was total failure of rain, and most of the crops withered. In the middle of November there was heavy rain, but it came too late to save the early crops and did little good to the late harvest. Owing to large importations from the Central Provinces there was no want

1871-72.

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of grain, prices falling from thirty-seven to fifty pounds the rupee. Relief works were undertaken and remissions to the extent of £ 37,520 16*s*. (Rs. 3,75,208) granted.

"The scanty rainfall of 1876, 14·4 inches compared with an average of 24·24, led to failure of crops and distress over about half of the district.[1] The east and north-east suffered most severely. In addition to the failure of the early crops, only a few showers fell in September and October, and most of the cold-weather crops that were sown perished. With high grain prices, millet at 26¼ instead of fifty-four pounds[2] the rupee, and very little demand for field work, the poorer classes fell into distress, and about the middle of September, the need for Government help began to be felt. As the grain dealers were holding back their stores, about the middle of November several of the municipalities opened grain shops and sold grain to the poor at cost price.[3] This had no appreciable effect on the market. Through all the cold and hot weather, prices remained high, and distress, though not very severe, was widespread. The next rains (June 1877) began well. But again there came a long time of dry weather. In August, prices rose to an average of 16 5/8 pounds and affairs seemed critical. A good rainfall at the end of August revived the failing crops. Prospects rapidly brightened, and at the close of November, the demand for special Government help had ceased. Though prices were high and there was much distress, grain was always available and the scarcity never deepened into famine. Though there were many cases of individual suffering, the distress was by no means general. One village had good crops, another bad, and field differed from field as much as village from village. The distress was most felt by the labouring classes, the Bhils and Mahars, the latter of whom seemed at one time likely to give trouble, and by the petty local manufacturers whose industries suffered greatly from the failure of the ordinary demand. Still the distress was not so keen as to drive people away for any length of time, and from the more seriously affected districts, Ahmednagar, Sholapur, Poona and Satara, many outsiders came and some have permanently settled.

The following details show, month by month, the state of the district and the measures taken to relieve the destitute :—

1876. September. "Early in September (1876), a good fall of rain over most of the district considerably lowered prices, bajri falling from twenty to

[1] The estimate was in area 5,500 square miles of a total of 10,162 and in population 646,944 out of 1,028,642.

[2] Fifty-four pounds for millet, bajri, and fifty-six pounds for Indian millet, jvari, were the ordinary prices.

[3] The following statement shows the details :—.....(*contd.* on the next page.)

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1876.

thirty-seven pounds (10½ *shers*) the rupee, and *Jvari* from twenty-five to forty-five pounds (13 *shers*). In the Tapti villages of Savda the early crops had been completely lost, and employment was provided for about 1150 of the poorer cultivators and labourers on the Savda-Gata and Jalgaon-Nasirabad roads. Encouraged by the rain a second crop of bajri was sown in places where, owing to the previous lack of moisture, the first had failed. Later in the month no rain fell and prices again began to rise. The early crops, except in the west and north-west where they were still fair, were fast withering or had perished. By the close of the month relief works were opened in many parts of the district.

October. "October passed with only one slight shower at Nasirabad. The early crops were fair only in the west and north-west, elsewhere they ranged from middling to very bad, and in some parts the failure was complete. Cotton was suffering, and the young shoots of the cold-weather crops were withering. In Jalgaon and Parola there was great scarcity of drinking water, and grass was everywhere scanty and poor. Grain prices were fast rising, and distress was spreading among the poorer classes. Relief works, mostly repairs to roads and ponds, were opened in the distressed parts and employment given to over 2,600 people.

November "In November there was no rain and no improvement in harvest prospects. The scanty early harvest was reaped, but most of the cold-weather crops perished. In a few towns on the railway there were light grain importations from Berar and the North-West

KHANDESH FAMINE GRAIN SHOPS, 1876-77

Name	Date		Cost
	Opened	Closed	
			Rs.
Dhulia ..	November 1877	November 1877 ..	2,700
Amalner ..	18th December 1876	August 1877 ..	500
Parola ..	1st December 1876	24th January 1877 ..	3,450
Erandol ..	28th November 1876	29th November 1877 ..	975
Dharangaon ..	13th November 1876	2nd August 1877 ..	967
Nandurbar ..	20th November 1876	26th April 1877 ..	475
Taloda ..	for about two years	..	1,200
Sindkheda ..	14th January 1877	18th September 1877 ..	248
Betavad ..	28th May 1877	16th November 1877 ..	84
Shirpur ..	16th November 1876	27th April 1878 ..	1,000
Varangaon ..	31st August 1877	16th September 1877 ..	223
Jalgaon ..	5th November 1876	18th December 1877 ..	4,103
		Total ..	15,925

Besides these, four grain shops, at Nizampur, Shahada, Prakasha and Savda, were opened by private contribution.

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1876.

Provinces. In spite of this, prices rose for bajri to 26¼ and for jvari to 32¾ pounds the rupee. The Bhils began clamouring for work. During the month the average daily number of persons on relief was 3,287.[1] These were all able-bodied workers, expected to do a full day's work and superintended by ordinary public works officers. In the first days of the month a sum of £ 300 (Rs. 3,000), presented by His Highness Holkar for the relief of the famine-stricken in Khandesh, was placed at the Collector's disposal.

December. "December passed without rain and there was no change in crop prospects. During the month there were large grain importations, and bajri fell from twenty-seven pounds, about the beginning of the month, to 28½ pounds at the close. During the greater part of the month jvari remained steady at thirty-one pounds, but about the end it rose to thirty. The average daily number receiving relief rose to 4,714; 3·267 of them on public works and 1,447 aged or feeble people on works superintended by assistant collectors or mamlatdars.

1877. January. "On the 19th of January a very heavy storm of rain and hail passed over the district. The rain destroyed the river bed tillage, and the hail stones, weighing from two ounces to 1½ pounds, besides seriously damaging such of the cold-weather crops as had survived the drought, caused the deaths of many cattle. Small-pox and fever were prevalent in some parts. Bajri prices remained steady at 28½ pounds the rupee, and jvari prices fell from thirty to 34⅓. About the middle of the month (19th) the pay of non-ablebodied workers[2] was reduced, and at the same time the task test was enforced. The result of this was that the numbers on relief fell, on public works from 3,267 to 2,125, and on civil works from 1,447 to 803.

February. In the first half of the month there was a fall of about 68 cents of rain. The grain importations were slight, and prices rose for bajri from 28½ pounds at the beginning of the month to 26¾ pounds at the close, and for jvari from 34⅓ to 31 pounds. Small-pox was prevalent during the whole month. The numbers on public works rose from 2,125 to 3,735, against a fall on civil works from 803 to 288.

March. "In the first days of March hail storms considerably damaged the crops in three sub-divisions. In the beginning of the month jvari prices fell from 31 to 36⅓ pounds the rupee, and then rose to 34⅓ pounds; bajri prices fell from 26¾ to 28½ pounds. The numbers on public works fell from 3,735 to 2,982, and on civil works

[1] The rates of wages originally fixed for the workers were for a man 3*d.* (2 annas) a day, for a woman 2¼*d.* (1½ annas), and for a boy or girl 1½*d.* (1 anna). About the middle of November when prices rose over 16 pounds the rupee, a sliding scale was introduced which provided that the money rate should vary with the price of grain, and that a man should always receive the price of one pound of grain in addition to one anna.

[2] The new rates were: for a man, the price of one pound of grain and ¾ *d.* (½ anna) instead of 1½ *d.* (1 anna); for a woman, the price of one pound of grain and ⅜ *d.* (¼ anna) instead of ¾ *d.* (½ anna); and for a boy or girl the price of half a pound of grain and ⅜ *d.* (¼ anna).

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April.

from 288 to forty-seven. During the month 106 persons received charitable relief.

"April passed without rain. The grain importations were small. Bajri remained steady at 28½ pounds the rupee, but jvari rose from 34⅓ to thirty-one pounds. In some sub-divisions fever and small-pox were prevalent. The numbers on public works rose from 2,982 to 3,378 and on charitable relief from 106 to 163, against a small fall on civil works from forty-seven to twenty-one.

May. "During May there were a few slight showers, especially in the east. Cattle were dying from want of water and fodder. Prices rose for bajri from 28½ to 26¾ pounds the rupee, and for jvari from thirty-one to 29¼ pounds. Fever and small-pox continued. The numbers on public works fell from 3,378 to 2,594, on civil works from twenty-one to fifteen, and on gratuitous relief from 163 to fifty.

June. "In the first days of the month there were slight showers in the western sub-divisions, and about the end good rain fell all over the district, varying from 20 cents to 5·5 inches. In parts where the fall was light more rain was wanted. The sowing of the early crops was begun and made fair progress. Cattle disease and ague were prevalent during the month. Jvari prices fell from 27½ to 28¼ pounds the rupee, while bajri remained pretty steady at 26¾ pounds, with a slight rise in the middle of the month to twenty-five pounds. The numbers on public works fell from 2,594 to 2,295 and on charitable relief from fifty to four, against a rise on civil works from fifteen to ninety-one.

July. "In July an average of 3·17 inches of rain fell, but it was badly distributed. In the first four days of the month there were some good showers in a few sub-divisions, then followed a break for a week and sowing operations were stopped. When rain again fell the people came back to their fields, but much seed was lost, and as the fall was insufficient except in the west, the young crops began to wither. More rain was everywhere wanted. There was no fodder except on the hills, and cattle were being driven back to the Satpudas. Prices rose for bajri from 25¾ pounds at the beginning of the month to 20½ pounds. Cholera was slightly prevalent. The numbers on public works rose from 2,295 to 2,428 against a fall on civil works from ninety-one to seventy-four. During the month no one received charitable relief.

August. "Most of August passed without rain. The withering crops were attacked and much damaged by insects. Prices rose for bajri from 18¾ to 15½ pounds the rupee, and for jvari from 19¾ to 17½ pounds. This in some parts caused much distress, especially among the Bhils. Cholera increased and large numbers left the district for a time. The numbers on public works rose from 2,389 on the 4th of the month to 9,698 on the 25th, and on civil works from 582 to 10,729. During the month 165 persons received charitable relief. About the close of the month a general and plentiful rainfall, lasting for four

days, greatly revived the crops. Prospects were much improved and people began leaving the relief works, so that in the last week of the month there were only 6,670 people on public and 1,354 on civil works.

1877

September.

"In the beginning of September there was good rain over the whole district, and the crops wonderfully revived. Later in the month only slight showers fell and more rain was generally wanted. There was considerable mortality among cattle and cholera was prevalent. The grain importations were very small and rupee prices rose for bajri from seventeen to sixteen, and for jvari from nineteen to seventeen pounds. The numbers on public works fell from 8,010 in the first week of the month to 7,191 in the last week, and on civil works from 1,013 to 600, against a rise on charitable relief from 165 to 519.

October.

"In October with an average of 1·52 inches of rain, the early crops were generally fair except in Taloda, Edlabad, and Pachora where they were poor, and in Erandol where they were bad. The sowing of the cold-weather crops was over, but in some places more rain was wanted. Rupee prices fell for bajri from 17¾ to twenty-five pounds and for jvari from 20½ to 32½ pounds. The numbers on public works fell from 7,468 to 3,663, on civil works from 830 to 298, and on charitable relief from 519 to 384.

November.

"In November no rain fell. The early *kharif* harvest was almost finished. The late, *rabi*, crops, stunted by the heat and want of moisture, gave but a poor promise. Jvari prices rose from 32½ to thiry pounds, and bajri prices fell from twenty-five to twenty-six pounds the rupee. The numbers on public works fell from 1,309 in the beginning of the month to twenty-four at the end, on civil works from 122 to eighty-three on the 10th of the month when the civil works were closed, and on charitable relief from 384 to ten. At the end of the month all relief works were closed.

December.

"In December there were light showers in a few places but more rain was required, for the rabi crops. Bajri prices rose from twenty-six to twenty-five pounds, and jvari prices fell from thirty to thirty-five pounds the rupee. Though Government continued to offer it no one required charitable relief.

Summary.

"The following statement of millet prices and of the numbers receiving relief shows that during the first five months of 1877, grain kept pretty steady at twenty-eight pounds the rupee or about twice the ordinary rates, that its price rose rapidly in June and July till it reached 16 5/8 in August and September, and that it then quickly fell to twenty-five pounds. As early as December 1876, the numbers on relief works reached 4,714. By lowering wages and enforcing the task test, the total was in January reduced to 2,928. From this it rose to 4,023 in February, and then fell till in June it was as low as 2,386. Then it steadily advanced till in August it reached 8,622. From this it rapidly fell to 857 in November when the relief works

were closed. The numbers on charitable relief rose from 106 in March to 163 in April, and then fell to four in June. In July there was no one on charitable relief. From 165 in August, the number rose to 519 in September, and then quickly fell to ten in November.

KHANDESH FAMINE, 1876-77

Month	Average daily number				Average price		*Rainfall
	On relief works			On charity	Bajri	Jvari	
	Civil	Public	Total				
November 1876	....	3,287	3,267	....	26½	32¾	....
December 1876	1,447	3,267	4,714	....	28½	30¾	....
January 1877	803	2,125	2,928	....	28¾	32½	Storm of rain and hail on the 19th January.
February 1877	288	3,735	4,023	....	26¾	31⅝	0·68
March 1877 ..	47	2,982	3,029	106	28½	34⅞	Hailstorm and rain.
April 1877 ..	21	3,378	3,399	163	28¾	31⅞	....
May 1877 ..	15	2,594	2,609	50	27½	29¾	Rain.
June 1877 ..	91	2,295	2,386	4	25⅝	27½	4·89
July 1877 ..	74	2,428	2,502	....	23	24	3·17
August 1877	3,044	5,578	8,622	165	16⅝	18½	8·33
September 1877	830	7,468	8,298	519	16⅝	17½	2·32
October 1877	298	3,663	3,961	384	20⅘	24	1·52
November 1877	72	785	857	10	25¾	29½	....
December 1877	....	....	....	....	25	32	....
Total ..	7,030	43,585	50,595	1,401	....	....	21·19
Average ..	586	3,353	3,893	175	....	....	....
Total cost		Rs.	3,02,801	3,359	....	....	....
			3,06,160				

*These figures are only approximate. The average total fall for the whole district up to 1st December 1877 was 21·19 inches.

"The scarcity caused no change in the rates of cart-hire.[1] And as the distress never deepened into famine, it was not necessary to open relief-houses or camps, or to organise a special relief staff.

"At the beginning of the famine, dealers held back their stocks of grain in hopes of a rise in prices. Afterwards, as they found that grain could be brought in large quantities by rail, they opened their stores, and though prices ruled high, there was no lack of grain. Grain was imported to a small extent from Holkar's and the Nizam's territories, Nemad, and Berar. It was also exported by rail to Bombay, Poona and Sholapur, the exports on the whole exceeding the imports.

Famine Census.

"A special census, taken on the 19th May 1877, when famine pressure was general and severe, showed that of 2745 workers, 1683 belonged to the sub-divisions where the work was carried on; 388

[1] These are 2¼ *d.* a mile (3 annas a *kos*) for cart and pair of bullocks in the dry season and 3*d.* (4 annas a *kos*) in the wet. A pair of bullocks can be hired for 1½ *d.* a mile (2 annas a *kos*) in the fair, and for 2¼ *d.* a mile (3 annas a *kos*) in the wet season. Toll bars are paid by the hirer. These are the official rates, but private individuals and traders manage, as a rule to hire carts and bullocks at lower rates.

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belonged to different sub-divisions of the same district; 648 were from other districts, and twenty six from neighbouring states. As regards their occupations, 155 were manufacturers or craftsmen, 598 were holders or sub-holders of land, and 1992 were labourers.

Cost.

"The total cost of the famine was estimated at £ 30,616 (Rs. 3,06,160), of which £ 30,280 2s. (Rs. 3,02,801) were spent on public and civil works and £ 335 18s. (Rs. 3,359) on charitable relief.

Famine Effects.

"Compared with the former year the criminal returns showed a total increase of 871 offences[1] mainly due, in the Commissioner's opinion, to the scarcity and high prices which ruled throughout the year. The estimated special mortality was about 474 souls. There are no trustworthy statistics of the numbers of cattle who left and returned to the district. Though the loss of stock was great, it did not interfere with the carrying of grain or with field work; nor in other respects was the rent-paying and working power of the district affected. The tilled areas in 1877-78 and in 1878-79 exceeded that in 1876-77 by 64,445 and 118,880 acres respectively. Of £ 301,780 4s. (Rs. 30,17,802) the land revenue for collection for 1876-77, and £ 2114 4s. (Rs. 21,142) outstanding balances for former years, £ 301,563 18s. (Rs. 30,15,639) and £ 355 (Rs. 3,550), respectively were recovered by the close of the year, and £ 658 (Rs. 6,580) were written off as irrecoverable. In 1877-78 the land revenue for collection was £ 303,800 10s. (Rs. 30,38,005) and the outstanding balances amounted to £ 1,290 10s. (Rs. 12,905), of which £ 303,777 6s. (Rs. 30,37,773) and £ 329 4s. (Rs. 3,292) were recovered, respectively and £ 38 10s. (Rs. 385) written off, thus raising the outstanding balances for next year to £ 946 (Rs. 9,460). Of £ 310,069 (Rs. 31,00,690), the land revenue for collection for 1878-79, £ 309,399 2s. (Rs. 30,93,991), and of the balances £ 377 8s. (Rs. 3,774) were recovered before the close of the year and £ 5 12s. (Rs. 56) written off, leaving for future recovery a balance of £ 1,232 18s. (Rs. 12,329). On the 1st of January 1880 the sum outstanding was £ 595 6s. 11½d. (Rs. 5,953-7-8); of this in June, 1880, £ 229 2s. 10¾d. (Rs. 2,291-7-2) were written off as irrecoverable.[2]

"No special works were started for the relief of the famine stricken. Only the ordinary budgeted works were taken in hand, and they helped to give relief to those who chose to avail themselves of it".

1896. In 1896 the population suffered from a general rise in the prices of food, rather than from deficient rainfall which was copious till the end of August. The rabi harvest, however was a failure. Distress

[1] The details are : an increase, under offences against public justice, 9 ; under rioting or unlawful assembly, 3 ; under murder, 1 ; under dacoity, 9 ; under robbery, 9 ; under lurking house-trespass or house-breaking, 25 ; under hurt, 17 ; under mischief, 18, under theft of cattle, 61 ; under ordinary theft, 629 ; under receiving stolen property, 46 and under criminal or house-trespass, 8. Police Reports, 1877.

[2] Government Res. 2002 (Financial), 9th June 1880.

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was most severe in the tract bounded by the Tapi and Burai rivers, and a line running north and south through the town of Nandurbar. The hill tribes, who could obtain plenty of coarse grains, jungle fruits and edible roots, did not suffer at all.

1899-1900.

In 1899-1900 the conditions were the same as in East Khandesh.

1900.

In 1900 the poor rainfall caused considerable distress in the talukas of Nandurbar, Taloda, Shahada and Pimpalner. Relief works which had been closed in December 1900 were reopened on a small scale in March 1901.

1901.

In 1901 the rains were unseasonable and unevenly distributed. Crops were again poor in the four western talukas, while locusts and rats damaged what was produced. Relief works which had been closed in September 1901, were opened again in January 1902 for about eight months.

1911.

In 1911 failure of crops occurred in nearly two-fifths of the district and suspensions and remissions of land revenue and tagai advances were granted. The gratuitous relief was granted to persons who were acutely distressed. Over forty seven lakhs of pounds of grass had to be imported to meet the shortage.

1918.

In 1918 scarcity prevailed in the major portion of the district but it nowhere amounted to a regular famine. Dole to village servants and decrepit persons, opening of poor houses, tagai advances and grant of remissions and suspensions were found to meet the situation adequately.

1920.

In 1920 again the rains failed in some parts of the district and scarcity prevailed. The same measures as were adopted in 1918 were undertaken.[1]

1936-37.

In 1936-37 scarcity conditions were declared in the Sakri and Nizampur circles in Sakri taluka and 34 and 3 villages were affected, respectively.

1951-52 and 1952-53.

The following statement shows the areas affected by the scarcity conditions that prevailed in the district in 1951-52 and 1952-53 :—

Taluka	Circle	Year in which affected	No. of villages affected	No. of times
Dhulia	Whole taluka	1952-53	150	Once
Shirpur	Arthe	1951-52	16	Once
	Shirpur		11	Once
Sindkheda	Sindkheda	1952-53	34	Once
	Nardhana		25	Once
	Chimthana		25	Once
	Dondaicha		35	Once
Nandurbar	Dhanora	1951-52	Whole	Twice
	Nandurbar	1952-53	Whole	Twice
	Nizar	1952-53	Whole	Once
	Ranala	1952-53	Whole	Once
Shahada	Vadali	1951-52 1952-53	14 20	Twice

[1] Based on the information supplied by the Collector of Dhulia District.

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1951-52 and 1952-53.

The total population affected by the scarcity conditions in 1952-53 was 6,57,237 of which more than 90 per cent were agriculturists and 38 per cent were people belonging to the backward classes. The scarcity was due to inadequate and untimely rainfall. It, however, neither caused any loss of human beings nor it was so severe as to drive the people away from the district. The Government took timely action to relieve the people from the distress by starting relief works almost at the very commencement of the agricultural season. The construction of roads, such as, Shirpur–Shahada, Nandurbar–Korit, Nawara-Nawari-Mohadi and Nawapur–Songad was started. Contour bunding which provided work for 4600 labourers was also started during the scarcity period. The total number of relief works started by government was as follows :—

(1) Irrigation works	.. ..	8
(2) Afforestation scheme	.. ..	1
(3) Bunding works	.. ..	23
(4) Road works	.. ..	74

These works provided work for 73,031 labourers and the expenditure incurred on them amounted to Rs. 72,32,094. A gratuitous relief of Rs. 85,754 was distributed among 11,756 persons. The district famine relief committee which was then formed in the district collected Rs. 10,000. It also collected a considerable quantity of grains and clothes. The committee also received an amount of Rs. 40,000 from the Government and Rs. 2,000 from the revenue minister. Some of this amount was spent on arranging transport of labourers, supplying them free rations etc. About 120 barrels of 90·718 kg. (200 lb.) each of skim milk powder received from the UNICEF was also distributed to the affected persons. 16,148.27·220 kg. (3,564,740 lb.) of grass costing Rs. 71,024-5-1 and 1,240·536 metric tons (1,221 tons) of groundnut oil-cakes costing Rs. 83,684-9-0 were also distributed. Tagai loans amounting to Rs. 16,33,547 were disbursed during the period of scarcity to the needy and deserving agriculturists. This included Rs. 1,70,884 being the cost of 62 oil-engines which were given to the agriculturists on tagai for irrigating their lands.

1961-62. Due to insufficient rainfall in the beginning of the rainy season in 1961, about 56 villages out of 157 villages of Dhulia taluka were facing conditions akin to scarcity. A group of about eight villages around the village Avadhan were the most affected part and next to it, were the villages Nawara, Nawri, Satarne and Vadagaon. The circle officer was directed to tour vigorously and to submit report. On enquiry it was revealed that 128 villages were found affected due to inadequate and untimely rainfall. In those villages the *kharif* crops *viz.*, jowar, bajri, *udid*, *mug*, groundnut and cotton were affected. A slight rainfall of an inch or more in the second week of September 1961 could not undo the damage to crops already caused by shortage of rainfall. On the other hand, this rainfall

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FAMINES.

1961-62.

was again followed by complete drought for four weeks and it was during this period that the area facing scarcity condition widened considerably so as to cover almost the entire taluka. After the drought the rains abruptly came in and continued for three days from 7th October 1961 onwards and the rainfall recorded during those three days all over the taluka amounted to 241·3 mm (9·5 inches). These rains were welcome as they lessened the severity of the scarcity conditions. However, the standing crops had little to gain thereby. As the groundnut crop had completely grown up, there was no change of its bearing new pods, but existing pods gained vitality due to rainfall on the 8th and 9th September 1961. Only the cotton crop benefited by these late rains. However, these rains were beneficial for sowing of *rabi* crops and to some extent for easing the situation of fodder as some green grass could be available.

To ensure that at least fodder, if not grain, should be available, the agriculturists were advised to sow *rabi* jowar in as much area as possible and seed tagai was advanced liberally to the needy agriculturists in these villages. An amount of Rs. 98,480 was granted as tagai loans to the agriculturists for *rabi* seed. The demand for fodder in the affected villages was however, met by allowing the agriculturists to purchase baled grass from sale purchase unions and also by allowing their cattle for free grazing in nearby forest *kurans*. To avoid migration of labourers timely steps were taken in this direction from the beginning of the season. A few test scarcity works which were sanctioned by the government also provided labour to the maximum number of villages from the affected area.

The eastern portion of Sakri taluka was affected by inadequate rains. The taluka however, was not facing either the scarcity or semi-scarcity conditions. Fodder as well as drinking water supply were not insufficient.

In Sindkheda taluka about 15 villages on the adjoining border of Dhulia taluka suffered due to lack of rains. The annewari of these villages was above six annas. No scarcity conditions were declared in those villages. However, to meet the situation an amount of Rs. 5,000 from the seasonal employment funds was sanctioned for the test work of Chimthane–Tamthare road. An additional amount of Rs. 5,000 was also placed at the disposal of the Collector of the district for test works.

Floods.

"The Tapti and lesser streams are liable to sudden and disastrous rising of their waters. Six great floods caused more or less injury in the district during the nineteenth century. In 1822 sixty-five villages were entirely destroyed by the Tapti, and fifty were partly washed away, causing a loss in money value of 2½ lakhs. In 1872 the Girna and Panjhra rose 45 feet above the level of the river bed, the latter sweeping away five hundred houses in the town of Dhulia. A whole village on the opposite side of the river suddenly disappeared. One hundred and fifty-two villages were damaged, and property to the value of 16 lakhs was destroyed. Over one thousand

1822.

1872.

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1872.

persons were on this occasion relieved by public and private charity".[1]

1829. "In 1829, in Nandurbar, for three miles on both the banks of the Tapi, the country was flooded. The Land was under water for three days, and much of it was injured by a thick deposit of sand

1837. and gravel[2]. In 1837, in the same flood (29th August) that did such damage in Surat, several villages built on the lower or yellow soil bank of the Tapi were swept away. The destruction of life and property was great, and those of the inhabitants that had the good fortune to escape were left destitute. As almost all the villages on the lower bank suffered and many were entirely swept away, the new villages were in several cases built on the black soil of

1872. the higher bank which had been flooded. In 1872, on Sunday the 15th September, the districts bordering on the Girna and the Panjhra suffered from a severe flood. At Dhulia, on the Panjhra, the rain began to fall steadily about noon on Friday the 13th, and continued heavily the whole of Saturday and the greater part of Sunday. Before Sunday morning the river was in very high flood, sweeping over the Agra Road bridge, carrying away the solid stone parapet and the whole of the roadway, and in Dhulia destroying 500 houses chiefly in the division of the town known as Briggs Peth. A rest house close to the bridge, built at a cost of Rs. 2,000 was entirely destroyed, and another was much damaged. The village of Deopur on the other side of the river entirely disappeared, and one man, a *Gosavi*, was drowned. A telegraph post near the bank of the river on the Dhulia side, was washed away and communication stopped. At seven in the morning the flood was at its highest, standing about forty-five feet above the level of the river bed. About three hours later it began to fall and by noon most of the water in the town had subsided. On the Girna, rain began about midnight of the 13th (Friday) and continued till eleven on the night of the 14th, when a violent hurricane set in. About eleven on the morning of the 15th, the Girna began to overflow, and the flood increased till about half past nine that night, the water was ten feet higher than it had ever been known to rise. Of 152 villages damaged by the flood, fifty-six were altogether destroyed. Of the whole number fifty were on the Panjhra, thirty two of them in Dhulia, six in Virdel, and twelve in Amalner. The remaining 102 were on the Girna, forty of them in Pachora, thirty-six in Erandol, and twenty six in Chalisgaon. A vast amount of property both movable and immovable was lost. Number of dams, bandharas, and water channels, pats and several large ponds watering thousands of fields, were either completely destroyed or badly damaged. Exclusive of damage to soil,

[1] *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Provincial Series, Bombay Presidency Vol. I, pp. 426-27.

[2] Bom. Govt. Sel. XCIII 468.

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1872.

trees, crops, and public works, the flood was calculated to have caused a loss of more than Rs. 16,00,000. Besides Bhils and other forest tribes 5,493 families were left destitute. For the first five or six days, they were supported by private charity, those in and around Dhulia receiving some help in the shape of grain from the balance of the Khandesh rice fund.[1] As reports of distress began to come in from different parts of the district, a public meeting was held at Dhulia, and a relief fund committee formed. Government placed at the Collector's disposal Rs. 20,000, Rs. 5,000 to be distributed free, and Rs. 15,000, to which a further sum of Rs. 1,00,000 was afterwards added, to be given in advances, takavi. Private subscriptions amounted to as much as Rs. 35,435. Of this sum Rs. 34,895 were distributed among 1492 families, and Rs. 600 were spent in charity by the collector and Rs. 69,739 were advanced to 1164 persons.

1875-76. On the 6th July 1875 a sudden local rainfall so swelled the Arunavati, a tributary of the Tapi, that it flooded the town of Shirpur, the water in places standing six feet deep, injuring fifty-two houses and destroying property of the estimated value of Rs. 32,000. On the 5th September 1876, the back water from a heavy flood in the Tapi overflowed its tributaries, the Girna, the Anjani, and the Arunavati, causing much damage to crops".

1930. In 1930, the river Arunavati was in flood. It affected the town of Shirpur. The damage to property was 5 to 6 lakhs of rupees. No loss of human life or cattle was reported but crops were washed away. The amount of Rs. 153 as land revenue was remitted to agriculturists.

1941. The Arunavati again rose in high floods on 12th July 1941 when its water entered the town of Shirpur and completely submerged some of its areas. The water-level rose to a height of 6 feet. The corn stores, one oil mill and bazar shops were considerably damaged. The total loss caused was estimated at Rs. 42,300. Prompt measures were taken to remove the corn.

1944. In 1944, the Panjhara and other rivers were heavily flooded and affected the Dhulia town and other 94 villages from Dhulia, Shirpur, Sindkheda, Shahada, Nandurbar and Sakri talukas. The total damage to property was estimated at Rs. 5,87,031. Thirteen human lives and 189 cattle were lost. The damage caused to crops in an area of 2873 acres was estimated at Rs. 87,577·962 acres of land of the value of Rs. 74,207 and 1212 houses were washed away. Other moveable property worth Rs. 1·75,722 was also lost. Prompt and generous relief was given to the victims both by government and the public. The government placed Rs. 50,000 at the disposal of the Collector for gratuitous relief and rupees one lakh as tagai loan for the affected agriculturists and non-agriculturists for purchasing agricultural implements and rebuilding of houses and huts, respectively. Clothing

[1] This was what remained of a former grant by the late Mr. Rustmaji Jamsetji Jijibhai of Bombay, for relief of famine.

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FLOODS.

1944

consisting of 500 saris, 640 dhotis, 945 yards of shirtings and 950 blankets were distributed to the flood affected persons. In Dhulia town, *mochis* residing on the bank of the Panjhara river who lost all their belongings, were given Rs. 1,390 for purchase of implements and Rs. 3,000 as loan for the joint purchase of leather, while a sum of Rs. 1,741 was disbursed among other needy and affected persons. Clothing worth Rs. 4,105 was given to the poor and needy. An amount of Rs. 611 was spent on food and other sundry things. The Dhulia Municipality also spent Rs. 1,339 on relief measures.

1948. On 20th July 1948, Arunavati and other rivers and *nallas* were heavily flooded. Water rushed into the Shirpur town and part of the town in low lying area was submerged in water from 7 to 9 feet. The floods affected Shirpur town, Navadne village in Sakri taluka and three villages in Sindkheda taluka. In Shirpur town the huts of the poor were completely washed away. No loss of human life was reported, 60 cattle died of suffocation. In Navadne village four persons lost their lives while other damage was estimated at Rs. 812. In Bhavade village huts valued at Rs. 874 were washed away. In Jogshelu village, the damage was estimated at Rs. 560. In Dondaicha two human lives were lost and three cattle were missing. Gratuitous relief amounting to Rs. 5,005 was given to the sufferers. Interest free tagai loans were also granted.*

LOCUSTS. "Locusts[1] have sometimes visited the district, but never in sufficient numbers to do much harm. In 1869, a large cloud crossed the district from north to south, but in 1873 and 1878 they did much injury to the late crops. The Khandesh cultivator thinks locusts a visitation from God not to be opposed. Except prayers and the gift of a rupee placed on the ground in the direction of their flight, nothing is done to stop them or drive them off. Parrots and birds do much harm to the grain crops, and maize and sugarcane fields suffer at night from the attacks of jackals and pigs. Rats, as in 1847-48 and 1878-79, also sometimes cause much havoc. Birds are scared away by watchmen, and a good close fence is the usual protection against jackals and pigs, but no practical remedy for rats has yet been discovered."

The ravages of locusts[2] caused damage to *kharif* season of 1901-02. They again appeared during the year 1902-03 but did little harm. They were reported in September and October 1903 and did some damage to standing crops. In November they left Khandesh. Organised efforts for their destruction were begun in March 1904. Three Assistant Collectors were placed on special duty under the Director, Land Records and Agriculture and were guided by Special Assistant, Agricultural Department. The Entomologist to the Government of India, identified these locusts as acridium succintium. Investigations into their life history were conducted and much

* The account of floods between 1930 and 1948 is based on the information supplied by the Collector of Dhulia.

[1] *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol XII, Khandesh P. 182.

[2] Based on the information supplied by the Collector of Dhulia.

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LOCUSTS.

valuable information was recorded for the first time. In the beginning of April 1904, locusts were reported from Sholapur and the inland talukas of Poona and Belgaum and later the swarms increased considerably and extended over all the district, except those in Gujarat. In the middle of the same month government directed energetic action to be taken in all districts, where locusts were present, to destroy them before eggs were laid. Various meetings of officials and villagers were held by the Assistant Collectors at their camps and the life history of the locusts and methods of their destruction were explained. Locusts had entered Surat and rapidly passed on into Khandesh where they entered about the third week of April through Nandurbar. By April 30th Khandesh was generally infested. After the rains broke, the locusts laid eggs in enormous numbers in the Konkan along the whole line of the Sahyadri and in Khandesh. Hoppers appeared towards the end of July. They were chiefly confined to the forest regions where cultivation was scanty. They lived in grass lands and attacked the coarse millets and rice of the forest tribes. The aborigines readily took part in measures for the destruction of locusts and, from the rewards granted by government for this work received compensation for the loss of their crops. These rewards amounted to a total of some two lakhs of rupees and were paid in some cases by daily wages, in others by the weight of locusts or eggs destroyed. In March and April the number of locusts had largely diminished. They were reported to have visited Khandesh and to have damaged sugarcane and garden crops. Hoppers in the season of 1904-05 were very rare and were confined to parts of Khandesh and Ratnagiri. In 1905-06 locusts appeared in several districts but in each case caused little damage. In September 1905 hoppers did slight damage in Ratnagiri and Khandesh.

In October locusts appeared in four talukas of West Khandesh. In June 1906 small swarms were seen in Bijapur, Sholapur and Khandesh but caused no damage except in Bijapur where it was considerable. The year 1907-08 was fortunate in an almost entire freedom from the scourge of locusts. They did make their appearance in isolated parts of Dhulia, Sindkheda, and Shirpur in the West Khandesh district but caused no noticeable damage. In the succeeding year only the Nandurbar taluka in West Khandesh district was visited by the locusts and no appreciable damage was sustained. It was not until 1912-13 that locusts reappeared in the district.

In 1942-43, a slight damage was caused to *rabi* crops of wheat in Sindkheda taluka. The grass hopper trouble covered an area of about 2,000 acres in ten villages of Sakri taluka and Rs. 500 were granted to carry out control measures in the affected area of the taluka.

Rats in 1847-48, 1878-79, and in 1901-02 caused much havoc. The rat plague of 1878-79 caused considerable damage to crops like wheat, cotton, and other garden crops. Rats appeared again in 1901-02 and attacked crops. Rewards at the rate of Re. one per 100 rats

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killed were granted. Difficulty in killing the rats was also experienced as they appeared just after the rains and consequently were able to escape in the grass. Large numbers, however were killed. Many were killed in on moonlight nights in the open with sticks or nets placed on the ground. Where water was plentiful rats were turned out by water being poured down the holes.

Two remedies, *viz.*, arsenic and squill poisonous mixtures were also tried by the Collector. The arsenic mixture at first killed a certain number of rats, but they soon learnt to avoid it. The squill mixture was totally useless. No further records are available to suggest the incidence of rat plagues after these years in the district.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

The agricultural activities in the district can broadly be divided into those which are covered under the aboriginal way of cultivation in the hilly areas and others which are stuck to plain areas. Formerly a crude form of husbandry known as *dalhi* or *kumri*, was practised on a large scale in the hilly areas of the district. A patch of brushwood was cleared by lopping and burning, and immediately after the first monsoon showers, ragi and other coarse grains, and sometimes bajri were sown either in regular lines or broadcast. The patch of forest land was then abandoned after two or three crops had been raised. The system, however is now dying out. The strict forest rules introduced during the last few years have greatly reduced the area under this form of tillage even though it still continues to some extent in the dense forest areas of the district. Various schemes aimed at putting a stop to this form of tillage have been introduced in the programme for tribal development and agricultural activities have got pivotal importance. The improved methods of agriculture which are best suited to the hilly areas, are being propagated by the specially trained agricultural extension workers in the tribal development blocks. This enables the tribals to take to settled agricultural life.

Radical changes could also be witnessed in regard to agriculturists on the plains. Most of them have adopted modern agricultural implements and also the improved methods of cultivation.

The following is a brief description of the activities undertaken by Government and semi-Government institutions in this direction :—

The agricultural research station at Dhulia which has been established under the scheme for scientific improvement of cereals, pulses and oil-seed crops in Maharashtra is mainly carrying out botanical and agronomical research on the principal cereals, pulses and oilseeds. It also evolves high yielding strains of the crops. One agricultural officer assisted by an agricultural assistant is in charge of the station.

The work of cotton breeding is done at the cotton breeding substation at Dhulia under the technical guidance of the Cotton Breeder

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at Jalgaon. The research station is mainly carrying out research on the *virnar* variety of cotton and on other hybrid varieties. Recently they have introduced Y-1 variety of cotton in the district. One agricultural supervisor assisted by an agricultural assistant is in charge of the breeding station.

The agricultural school established in 1923 at Dhulia also provides facility for training in agriculture and its allied activities. There is a diploma course of a duration of two years. The school has got an agricultural farm of about 158 acres. Besides, the school has got a library, a dairy section, piggery section and a *mendhawada*.

A government agricultural college was established at Dhulia in 1961-62 aimed at providing advanced agricultural training. The total land acquired for the college is about 500 acres out of which an area of 20·243 hectares (50 acres) is under buildings and proposed farm roads. The remaining area of about 182·109 hectares (450 acres) is under cultivation. The college provides for a four year degree course in agricultural science. Besides peripatetic training classes of three days duration are also organised by the Zilla Parishad under the mass training scheme which has been started in the district from 1965 for imparting training in agriculture to farmers. The *shibirs* or agricultural training classes of the duration of 15 days are also conducted at the College.

The research activities of these institutions in the district are complemented by the agricultural extension workers who disseminate the technical information through the audio-visual-aids, and also by organising the village leaders training camps, demonstrations and training classes of various durations and by arranging farmers' tours.

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES

THE CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES IN THIS DISTRICT are very old. The old Gazetteer of Khandesh District (1880) has to say the following about them.—

"Khandesh crafts and industries are of local consequence only. The chief are in mineral substances, working in gold, silver, brass, iron, stone, earth, clay and lime; in vegetable products, woodcutting and carpentry, sugar and catechu making, distilling, oil-pressing, and spinning, weaving, dyeing, and printing cotton cloth; in animal products, the making of lac and clarified butter, the weaving of silk and wool, butcher's work, and the making and working of leather."

An idea of the industries existing in the early decades of this century could be had from the following statement.

By 1916 there were 52 factories working in West Khandesh district. The location and nature of these factories in the district as well as the number of operatives employed therein are given in the following statement* :—

Town	Factory		Operatives
	No.	Kind	
Dhulia ..	17	Ginning and Pressing ..	2,427
Shirud ..	1	Ginning ..	60
Sindkheda ..	3	Ginning and Pressing ..	4,340
Nardana ..	3	Do. ..	2,114
Dondaicha ..	5	Do. ..	18,720
Shirpur ..	2	Do. ..	193
Warwade ..	4	Do. ..	290
Ajande Budruk ..	1	Ginning ..	37
Shahada ..	4	Ginning and Pressing ..	234
Prakashe ..	1	Ginning ..	52
Nandurbar ..	8	Ginning and Pressing ..	727
Nawapur ..	3	Do. ..	176

*Adopted from the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Part-XII-B Khandesh (East and West)* and *Mewas Estates*. p. 58.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

The development of industries is a *sine qua non* for economic growth of a region. However, it depends on the presence of a number of factors, such as, labour, capital, availability of raw materials, electricity and water supply at cheap rates, and a network of transport and communications.

Dhulia district is predominantly an agricultural tract and cannot be regarded as an industrialised district of the State. The industrial complex of the district is purely of a local nature.

In recent years, however, there have been efforts to boost up the industrial development of the district. The State Government is extending numerous facilities and granting concessions to start new industries. In 1962-63 the government had distributed loans through Zilla Parishad, Directorate of Industries and Maharashtra State Finance Corporation to the tune of Rs. 1,20,900. The number of factories in the year was 224 and they employed about 9,244 persons. As per the Annual Survey of Industries (1966), there were 231 registered factories which provided employment to 4,752 workers. Productive capital of the factories was Rs. 1,75,17,000; gross output Rs. 9,10,09,000 and value added on manufacture Rs. 62,98,000.

The establishment of industrial estate at Dhulia and the industrial co-operatives in the district will go a long way in developing the industrial economy of the district.

The District Statistical Abstracts of Dhulia for 1962-63 and 1963-64 give the names of the following small-scale industries which have great scope for development in the district. They are: making of agricultural implements, making of straw-boards, hard-boards, and cardboards, extraction of cotton seed oil, preparation of manure from groundnut cake, conducting of saw-mill and making of furniture, wood seasoning, flaying of leather, making of foot wears, etc.

The following two tables give the number of persons employed in different industries according to 1951 and 1961 Census returns.

TABLE No. 1

NUMBER OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE (i.e. SELF SUPPORTING) PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT, 1951

Classification of industries	Employers		Employees		Independent workers	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All Industries and services.	5,776	975	22,961	1,785	33,050	4,670
Primary industries not elsewhere specified ..	201	18	736	57	1,599	271
Stock raising ..	120	10	425	37	912	102
Rearing of small animals and insects	..	..	2	..	1	1
Plantation industries ..	18	..	5	..	85	5
Forestry and collection of products not elsewhere specified	48	1	297	10	326	122

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Classification of Industries	Employers		Employees		Independent workers	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Hunting (including trapping and game propagation)	7	..	1	6	62	7
Fishing	8	7	6	4	213	34
Mining and Quarrying	1	..	9	1	223	9
Coal mining	..	..	..	..	..	..
Crude petroleum and natural gas ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Stone quarrying, clay and sandpits	1	..	9	1	223	9
Processing and Manufacture—Foodstuffs, Textile, Leather and Products thereof ..	1,132	691	3,496	284	5,555	596
Food industries otherwise unclassified	63	8	36	7	377	37
Grains and pulses ..	118	3	213	15	102	26
Sugar industries ..	..	..	6	..	25	1
Beverages	12	1	45	1	14	..
Tobacco	182	110	224	21	389	60
Cotton Textiles ..	89	299	2,253	173	1,323	233
Wearing apparel (except footwear) and made up textile goods	257	148	142	12	1,459	67
Textile industries otherwise unclassified	1	..	6	..	62	..
Leather products and footwear	85	11	102	3	1,144	85
Processing and Manufacture—Chemicals and Products thereof.	119	14	242	3	1,274	15
Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified— ..	91	13	136	3	1,074	14
Non-ferrous metals (basic manufacture) ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Transport equipment ..	20	..	70	..	112	1
Electrical machinery apparatus, appliances and supplies	..	..	..	..	..	..
Machinery (other than electrical machinery) including engineering workshop ..	3	1	11	..	16	..

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TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Classification of Industries	Employers		Employees		Independent workers	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Basic industrial chemicals ..	2	..	1	..	2	..
Manufacture of chemical products otherwise unclassified	3	..	24	..	70	..
Processing and Manufacturing not elsewhere specified.	697	59	783	31	4,468	262
Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified	144	3	66	2	859	6
Products of petroleum and coal.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bricks, tiles and other products, structural clay ..	39	3	46	4	49	6
Non-metallic mineral products	83	36	83	8	496	58
Rubber products ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures.	383	16	502	13	3,027	191
Furniture and fixtures ..	2	..	4	..	33	..
Paper and paper products ..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Printing and allied industries..	46	1	82	4	3	..
Construction and utilities ..	144	4	695	227	1,717	236
Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Construction and maintenance, buildings.	140	4	402	85	1,632	231
Construction and maintenance, roads, bridges and other transport works.	..	..	34	2	1	..
Works and services, electric power and gas.	..	..	55	..	5	..
Works and services, domestic and industrial water supply.	1	..	33	2	16	..
Sanitary works and services including scavengers.	1	..	113	138	1	5
Metal mining except iron ore mining.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vegetable oil and dairy products	325	111	469	52	660	87
Cement, cement pipes, other cement products.	..	..	..	..	..	1

TABLE No. 2

INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION BY SEX AND DIVISIONS

MAJOR GROUPS OF PERSONS AT WORK OTHER THAN CULTIVATION IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961

Industry	Workers at Household Industry		Workers in Non-Household Industry etc.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Division O				
Agriculture, live-stock, forestry, etc.				
Field produce and plantation crops	..	..	238	43
Plantation crops	..	..	15	..
Forestry and logging	..	1	1,081	565
Fishing	..	..	352	59
Livestock and hunting	2,697	880	4,894	670
Division 1				
Mining and quarrying	..	..	347	214
Division 2 and 3				
Manufacturing—				
Foodstuffs	713	524	2,239	254
Beverages	16	1	113	1
Tobacco products	149	35	722	270
Textile-cotton	1,671	2,193	4,679	697
Textile-jute	85	123	7	7
Textile-wool	98	138	..	1
Textile-silk	..	..	2	..
Textile-miscellaneous	2,310	471	1,619	81
Manufacture of wood and wooden products.	3,837	1,231	1,252	104
Paper and paper products	9	12	30	8
Printing and publishing	5	..	189	3
Leather and leather products	1,122	148	545	24
Rubber, petroleum and coal products	1	..	10	..
Chemicals, and chemical products	30	6	69	4
Non-Metallic products other than petroleum and coal.	845	757	367	152
Basic metals and their products except machinery and transport.	1,189	170	623	23
Machinery (all kinds other than transport) and electrical equipments.	2	..	49	..
Transport equipment	238	1	691	1
Miscellaneous manufacturing Industries.	840	20	695	7

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TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Industry	Workers at Household Industry		Workers in Non-Household Industry etc.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Division 4				
Construction	..	..	3,643	629
Division 5				
Electricity and gas	..	..	204	3
Water supply and sanitary services	..	..	62	..
Division 6				
Trade and Commerce				
Wholesale trade	..	..	1,740	116
Retail trade	..	..	14,570	3,038
Trade and commerce miscellaneous	..	..	458	14
Division 7				
Transport, Storage and Communications—				
Transport	..	..	5,396	167
Storage and Warehousing	..	..	18	2
Communications	..	..	425	4
Division 8				
Services—				
Public Services	..	..	8,033	476
Educational and scientific services	..	..	4,805	820
Medical and health services	..	..	820	240
Religious and welfare services	..	..	1,107	175
Legal services	..	..	177	..
Business services	..	..	656	2
Community services and trade and labour associations.	..	..	713	12
Recreation services	..	..	516	24
Personal services	..	..	5,417	1,683
Services (not elsewhere classified).	..	..	5,937	3,013
Division 9				
Activities unspecified and not adequately described.	..	..	9	..

An attempt is made in the following pages to give the nature of the industrial development in the district. The description covers large and small industries and cottage industries in the district and contains a general description of their location, number of factories, capital investment, employment of labour, production and marketing, etc. The progress of the trade union movement in the district is also detailed.

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Electricity Generation.

SECTION I—LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES

As late as 1950 no place in the district was supplied with electricity except Dhulia town which was electrified in 1929. In 1950, two more towns were supplied with electricity. In the early fifties many electric supply companies were started which increased the scope of electrification. By 1963, six places viz. Dhulia, Nandurbar, Khandbara, Shirpur, Shahada, Dondaicha had been electrified.* The total population of the electrified places was 13·23 per cent of the total population of the district.

The following statement from the *District Statistical Abstract* shows the amount of electrical energy generated, purchased and consumed in the district in 1962-63 and 1963-64.

Taluka	Year	Total Electricity generated	Domestic consumption	Commercial light and small power	Industrial Power	Public lighting	Other purposes
Dhulia ..	1962-63 ..	4,882	1,477	485	1,625	330	291
	1963-64 ..	5,893	1,599	481	1,807	639	277
Nandurbar ..	1962-63 ..	807	258	269	19	95	41
	1963-64 ..	835	265	265	14	90	68
Shirpur ..	1962-63 ..	347	154	8	57	37	40
	1963-64	355	157	7	54	34	37
Dondaicha ..	1962-63 ..	298	76	10	20	43	54
	1963-64	244	96	5	24	38	34
Khandbara ..	1962-63 ..	30	4	4	13	52	2
	1963-64 ..	34	3	2	19	21	2
Shahada ..	1962-63 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	1963-64 ..	48	6	15	..	18	1
District—Total ..	1962-63 ..	6,364	1,969	779	1,734	557	428
	1963-64 ..	7,409	2,126	775	1,918	840	419

The Statement shows that only the town of Dhulia uses electricity for industrial purposes. The complete absence of rural electrification is a point worthy of note as it shows the urban bias of electricity development.

Mining and Quarrying.

Most of the district is covered by Deccan trap and only small deposits of pleistocene are found in the district. No mineral deposits of any importance are found in the district. Hence, mining activities are restricted to only quarrying of stones, clay, etc.

The Census of 1961 reports 561 workers in this industry. Of these, males and females were 347 and 214 respectively. The chief stone workers are *Patharvats*, *Beldars* and *Khandars*. Of these *Beldars* and *Khandars* are quarrymen. The *Patharvats* usually dress the stone. They usually work for eight to ten hours a day.

Cotton Textile.

The cotton textile industry is an old industry of Dhulia district as could be seen from the following extract.

*By March 1972, all towns (7) and 468 villages covering a population of 9,51,923 in the district were electrified. The total consumption of electricity was 35,414,000 KWH of which 12,150,000 KWH was for agricultural and 12,216,000 KWH for industrial use in 1971-72.

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Industries.

LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Cotton Textile.

"Steam spinning, weaving, ginning and cotton-pressing, have been introduced into Khandesh within the last twenty years. .....

The cotton most used is the long stapled Khandeshi, Hinganghat and Dharwar. There is also a demand for the short stapled *Varhadi*. But as in Khandesh, the growth of the *Varhadi* is as much as possible discouraged, the local supply has to be supplemented by imports from Indore, Jabalpur and Gardevada. About 5,000 pounds of yarn are made a day, the wholesale price varying from £ 12 to £ 14 (Rs. 120–Rs. 140) a bale. Most of the outturn is used locally, bought by local dealers, and distributed over the chief market towns and used by the handloom weavers. A good deal is worked into cloth, the chief varieties of cloth being sheets, towels, sail cloth and coarse cloth of every sort, which sells wholesale at 1s. (8 annas) a pound. Almost the whole of it is bought by local dealers and sold in Khandesh, Berar and the Nizam's dominions. It is chiefly used by the poorer classes for shirts and waistcloths. They also make cotton rope and twine for use in the mill."[1]

At present there is one textile mill in the district. It is fairly large with a capital investment of Rs. 22,16,594, working capital to the tune of Rs. 1,38,55,230 and stock-in-trade worth Rs. 56,50,522. Machines and appliances used by the factory are looms, spindles, warping and spinning and sizing machines and oil engines. The whole machinery was valued at Rs. 12,71,629. There were as many as 47,000 spindles and 1034 looms working double shift in 1963. The main raw-materials for textile industry are cotton yarn of different counts, colours and chemicals. Cotton yarn is purchased in local market and also imported from the Gujarat state. The purchase of cotton alone accounted for Rs. 1,07,74,496 in 1963. The chemicals purchased were, valued at Rs. 17,59,937. Besides, coal required for the generation of power accounted for Rs. 13,20,797.

The factory undertakes manufacture of dhotis, saris, long cloth, shirting, coating, chaddars, mattress cloth and yarn. The total production of cloth in 1963 was 2,80,55,281 yards valued at Rs. 2,14,47,524. The total yarn produced in the same year was 1,25,000 kilograms. The finished products i.e. cloth and yarn had a very wide market and was in demand from various places in Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Punjab and the West Bengal. Of the total produce, about 8 per cent, was sent to foreign countries.

The total number of persons employed was 3,003 in 1963 of which 2,527 were skilled and 476 were unskilled. Female workers were found employed in departments like warping, winding etc. The wage bill for the year 1962-63 amounted to Rs. 51,89,462. In addition, salaries of office and managerial staff accounted for Rs. 5,39,433.

[1]. (*Khandesh Gazetteer*, 1880) The industry used to operate on a very small scale and it was only during this century that a large scale unit came to be established in 1923. That was the New Pratap Spinning and Weaving Mills, Dhulia.

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Ginning and Pressing Factories.

In 1880 besides the spinning and weaving mill, there were eleven steam factories in Khandesh, three of them ginning factories and eight presses. (*Khandesh Gazetteer*, 1880)

The position of presses and ginning factories was as under in 1880 :–

"Of the eight steam cotton presses, seven are in Jalgaon and one in Dhulia. In the Jalgaon presses, the pressing charge is 5 s. (Rs. 2 as. 12) a bale, with an additional 3 d. (2 annas) for carriage. In 1879-80, 91,614 bales against 16,624 in 1871-72 are reported to have been pressed. The size of the bale is four feet one inch long, one foot six inches high, and one foot five inches wide. During January, February, March, and April, when cotton comes forward in large quantities, the presses are at work night and day, the men being paid from 3*d*. to 5½*d*. (2–3½ annas) on each bale pressed, and dividing the amount among themselves. Sometimes the presses work for a few hours a day only. They have no fixed hours and their working time depends upon the stock of cotton. ..... During the busy season the pressmen, who are chiefly Marathas and Musalmans, earn from £ 1 10 s. to £ 2 10 s. (Rs. 15 – Rs. 25) a month. The carriers are Deccan Marathas. They are paid from 10 s. to £ 1 10 s. (Rs. 5 – Rs. 15) every hundred bales according to the distance from the factory to the station." (*Khandesh Gazetteer*, 1880)

With a large-scale production of cotton providing ample raw material, the ginning and pressing industry has acquired a significant place in the industrial set-up of the district. In 1961, there were 26 ginning and pressing factories registered under the Factories Act.

The industry was mainly located at Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nandurbar, Shahada and Shirpur. The aggregate fixed capital of five units came to Rs. 7,95,000 giving a per unit average of Rs. 1,59,000. The total working capital of these five units amounted to Rs. 1,33,500.

This industry is largely seasonal in nature. The maximum and minimum number of working days were 200 and 65 respectively. On an average each unit worked for 124 days in a year.

Of the seven factories surveyed, four had employed 249 persons with a total wage bill of Rs. 1,30,000. The labour force comprised engineers, engine drivers, boiler attendants, firemen, roll-cutters and ginmen.

The Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Dhulia district for the year 1961-62 (published by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra) places the figure of average daily employment in the industry at 3,055 for 1960 and 2,873 for 1961.

The products of the industry were marketed especially at Bombay and to some extent in other cloth-producing centres in Maharashtra.

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Oil Industry.

The machinery required for ginning and pressing consisted of oil engines, boilers, single or double roller gins, high or low pressure presses, drilling machines and cotton operators. Electricity was used mainly as fuel besides diesel oil, ground-nut oil, coal and wood.

Dhulia district is a leading groundnut producing area. The cultivation of ground-nut is highly concentrated over a wide range of area. The total area under ground-nut cultivation in 1962-63 was 322,100 acres and the total out-turn was 85,200 tons. Dhulia district is therefore said to be the granary of ground-nut. Consequently, oil industry has become important in the district economy. The industry is widely diffused over the whole of the district. Even a century ago, Dhulia had its leading position in the production of oil which could be seen from the following paragraph from the old *Khandesh Gazetteer* published in 1880 :—

"Oil pressing is an important industry giving employment to about 2,000 Hindu and Musalman families. The chief oil seeds are sesamum, grown mostly in rains, and linseed, a cold weather crop. Oil is also pressed from castor seeds, earth nuts, and cocoanuts. The oil-presser generally buys the seed from the cultivator. He sells part of the oil to the people of the village, and sends the rest in large leather jars to the chief district trade centres. The mill is kept in one of the rooms of oil-presser's house and is worked by a blind-fold bullock driven round and round in very small circles. The mill is rough and clumsy, allowing so much vegetable matter and dirt to mix with the oil that it quickly becomes rancid. Of the different kinds of oil, sesamum and cocoanut are used chiefly for cooking and linseed and castor oil for burning. Of late, the profits of local oil-pressers have been much reduced by competition from Malwa and the Nizam's territories, and from growing use of Kerosene which is brought by rail in considerable quantities and is now used in many Kunbi households in the district. On market days the oil-man's wife generally takes some oil to sell in the neighbouring towns. The craft is said to be at present so depressed that its members are taking to other employments. The average price of oil is from 2¼ d. to 4½ d. (1½ – 3 annas) a pound."

For years, therefore, the production of oil was carried on with the help of antiquated "*ghanis*" and on a smaller scale, so as to cater to the local needs. In recent years, however, there has been a growing tendency to use the most modern methods of production for oil extraction. This has helped in saving time, energy and money and to carry on production on a large scale. Recently, "*Nutan Ghanis*" have been introduced by the oilmen who are encouraged by the Government by means of loans and subsidies. There were as many as 29 oil mills in the district in 1961 located at Dhulia, Dondaicha, Shirpur and Shahada. The rest were at Nandurbar, Nardhana and

*Area under this crop was 1,09,975 hectares and out-turn 80,600 metric tonnes in 1970-71.

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Oil Industry.

Sakri. Most of the units were seasonal. Some of them also undertook the work of ginning and pressing side by side with the extraction of oil. Out of 23 units surveyed, 21 units had employed 455 persons as workers. A worker was paid from Rs. 2·50 to Rs. 3 per day.

The total investment of the units surveyed amounted to Rs. 30,25,174. The average working capital was of the order of Rs. 37,920. The machinery of an oil mill comprises a decorticator for dehusking, an expeller for crushing the seeds, filter or filter pump for oil purification and electric motor for the generation of electric power. The investment in machinery varies from unit to unit depending on the size as well as the capacity of the unit.

Raw materials.—Ground-nut is the major raw material required for an oil-mill. In Dhulia, being a leading groundnut producing area, it is available in abundance. However, sesamum and castor are, to some extent, imported from neighbouring districts. The value of the total purchase of raw materials exceeded more than Rs. 2 crores in the year 1963-64.

Markets.—The oil extracted in the district, besides being sold in the local markets, has wide demand from Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar. Continuous demand from a wide range of area, availability of cheap and locally-produced raw materials and handsome returns, have led to an extensive growth of this industry which augurs well for the future.

Saw Mills.

There has been a considerable development of saw milling in recent years. This could be attributed to the availability of abundant supply of wood from the forests of Akrani Mahal, Navapur, Akkalkuwa, Shirpur, Sakri, Nandurbar and Shahada talukas. Important varieties of wood such as teak, sadada, khair and shisam are also obtained.

Almost all the factories (four in number) surveyed were established after 1954. The aggregate amount of fixed capital of the reporting units was about Rs. 75,000 as against the working capital of Rs. 2,10,000. The value of machinery varied from unit to unit but in no case exceeded beyond Rs. 12,000. Almost all the reporting units were located at Dhulia and were situated in rented premises, the rent varying from Rs. 50 to Rs. 110. Electric power was used by all the units, the electric charges varying from unit to unit from Rs. 200 to Rs. 225 per month.

The main raw material was wood. The total purchase of wood by the units surveyed amounted to Rs. 200,000. There were 32 persons employed in the industry of whom 20 were skilled.

The finished products of the industry were sawn timber and timber waste for which there was sufficient demand in the local markets. However, a part of it was sent to Bombay, Poona and to adjoining markets.

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Rice and Dal Mills.

There were four factories in 1961 which undertook parching of grains and preparation of dal. Of these, three were located at Nandurbar and one at Dondaicha. They provided employment to 100 persons and were seasonal.

The aggregate fixed capital of the reporting factories was of the order of Rs. 2,17,400 as against the working capital of Rs. 5,15,000. Crude oil and lubricating oil were used as fuel. They cost approximately Rs. 20,000 per year.

The machinery used comprised grinding stones, rollers, elevators and fillers. Crushers and hullers were used for polishing and husking rice or for crushing pulses. Where flouring was undertaken, investment in the factory was found to be more.

The raw materials required were rice, tur dal and gram dal. The total raw material requirements of the reporting factories were valued at Rs. 5,15,000 in 1963-64.

The units hardly faced any difficulties for marketing their products since there was a good demand for the products in the local markets.

Bidi-making.

There were eleven bidi-making factories mainly located at Dhulia in the district in 1964 providing employment to 900 persons.

All the reporting factories worked throughout the year, though not always in full swing. They employed 306 persons and paid approximately Rs. 2,46,200 as wages in 1963-64. Of these units, one had invested Rs. 2,98,889 in fixed capital as against Rs. 1,95,269 in working capital. The total purchase of raw materials amounted to Rs. 5,72,261.

The entire work was carried on by hand without any aid of machinery. The tools required were simple such as brick furnace, metal trays for heating tobacco, a pair of scissors and a knife. The process of baking bidis required 12 hours after which they were packed and sent to different destinations. Tobacco, *tembhurni* leaves were the only raw materials required for this industry. Tobacco of different qualities was brought from Kolhapur, Nipani and *tembhurni* leaves were available in plenty from the forests of the district. Packing paper and labels were brought from Bombay. The quantity of tobacco required for 1,000 bidis varied between 349·91 and 524·87 gm. (30 and 45 tolas).

The wage position of the workers was, however, not very satisfactory. The minimum wage-rates paid per 1,000 bidis were Rs. 1·62 and Rs. 1·36 in case of male and female workers, respectively.

The bidis were marketed in the adjoining districts and were in good demand.

SECTION II—COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Handloom Weaving.

Cottage industries are very important as a source of employment to the thousands of unemployed or underemployed artisans. This is particularly so in the rural area. Among the cottage industries in the district, handloom weaving is more important as it provides employment to a considerable number of persons in the urban as well as rural areas.

India had a rich tradition in textiles and her handicrafts were known far beyond the borders in the past.

The following was the position of the handloom weaving in 1880 :—

Cotton Weaving.

"Cotton handloom weaving has gained by the fall in the cost of yarn, and though the competition of European and country steam-woven goods has greatly reduced prices, the industry is still of considerable importance. The weavers are partly Hindus and partly Musalmans of the Momin class. The Hindus belong chiefly to the Khatri, Sali and Koshti castes. They are found in small numbers in most sub-divisional towns, and in greatest strength in Dhulia, Kasoda, Dharangaon, Parola, Erandol, Savda, Faizpur, Varangaon, Pimprala, Nasirabad and Jalgaon. Though many of them are small capitalists, handloom weavers are generally employed by men of capital, most of them Vanis and some Bohoras and Khatris, who supply them with yarn chiefly spun in local and Bombay steam mills. They are paid on an average from 3d to 9d. (2-6 annas) a day. Both men and women weave ..... The cloth is taken by the master weaver who advanced the yarn, distributed by him through the chief trade centres, fairs, and weekly markets. It is estimated that about nine-tenths is consumed in the district, and rest, sold and resold at markets and fairs, finds its way over the Ajanta pass in bullock carts to Berar and the Nizam's dominions, or by rail to Bombay and the Central Provinces. The chief handwoven cloth goods are women's robes (*lugdas*), from Erandol, Dharangaon, Parola, Chopda, Pimprala, Nasirabad, Faizpur, Savda, Varangaon and Jalgaon; floor cloths (*jajams*), cotton sheets (*pasodi*), stamped dirty-red coverlets (*phadkis*) smaller sheets and cushions (*toshaks*) from Nandurbar, Shahada, Barsi, Betavad, Sindkheda, Chopda, Jalgaon, Jamner, Faizpur and Chinaval; long white floor cloths *jores*, cot tape (*navar*), bullock cloths (*jhuls*), from Nandurbar, Shahada, Barsi, Kansi and Kasoda; and coarse cloth (*khadi*) from Jamner, Savda, Faizpur, Jamti, and Chopda."

Indian handicrafts were at their zenith during and after the Moghal period. Especially hand-woven cloth was famous for its superfine quality and texture.

With the advent of the British regime the Indian handicrafts, touched their lowest ebb. The Britishers exploited the Indian

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Handloom Weaving.

Cotton Weaving.

markets by pushing industrialised cloth at competitive rates. Consequently Indian handloom industry was hard pressed and declined to a considerable extent.

To-day handloom industry is the major cottage industry in the district. A majority of the weavers were momins from Muslim community. Machine-spun yarn was used for weaving cloth. Country blankets were woven by *dhangars* in the district. However, many difficulties were faced by the industry in respect of raw-materials, finance, marketing of the product etc. during the subsequent years.

By the end of 1964, there were 4120 handlooms in the district most of which were located at Dhulia and Shahada. The Census Handbook, Dhulia district 1961, records, 4094 persons as employed in the handloom industry. In the interest of proper growth of cottage industries the Government encouraged the formation of co-operative societies of the artisans. Accordingly a number of co-operative societies of handloom weavers were formed. Steps were taken by the Government to organise such societies by giving them every possible aid in money and in kind.

Before the implementation of the Handloom Development Scheme, there were only four primary co-operative Handloom Societies. But they were stagnant. The economic position of the handloom weavers had very much deteriorated. They had to face the competition from mill and powerloom products. They also suffered for want of capital and marketing facilities. However, after the introduction of the Handloom Development Scheme, the working of the old societies was revived. The Government itself promised many facilities to the handloom industry right from the contribution to the share capital to the sale of the products. Number of handloom weavers came forward to take the benefit of the scheme.

There were 18 weavers co-operative societies with a total membership of 1403 in the district in 1964. They possessed 1482 hand looms of which 731 were actually put to use. Out of 18 societies, four were not working. Only three societies were in rural areas. There were 3,500 and 250 handlooms at Dhulia and Shahada respectively.

Finance.

The main sources of finance of a co-operative society are, (1) capital raised by the society itself (2) Government loans out of the cess funds and (3) Reserve Bank of India's scheme of financial assistance through District Central Co-operative Bank. By 1962-63, the aggregate capital raised by all the handloom societies in the district amounted to Rs. 1,35,030. The credit sanctioned by the Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank was to the tune of Rs. 1,45,000. The loans sanctioned by the bank are guaranteed by the Government.

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Handloom Weaving.

Marketing.

The products of handloom weavers are placed in the market through Industrial Co-operative Association, prominent weavers or through their association and Gujars. Co-operative societies get loans from the Apex institution for marketing the products of their members. They also employ hawkers and salesmen. The total sale of the handloom products effected in 1962-63 amounted to Rs. 19,62,420. Some of the weavers give their products to Adtyas in return for the yarn received from them.

To increase the sale of handloom fabrics and to secure a larger market for them, Government grants rebate to societies on the sale of handloom cloth. A handloom sales depot at a taluka place gets a rebate of Rs. 2,500 every year for the first four years and of Rs. 3,600 if the depot is situated at other towns.

Raw Material.

Besides dyes, chemicals and thread, the most essential raw-material required by the handloom industry is yarn. The Sholapur Federal Association which has its branches in almost all the districts of Maharashtra supplies yarn at a rate lower than the market rate. However, the supply of yarn by the aforesaid institution was found to be inadequate. As a result, societies still experience hardships in getting the yarn in required quantities and of a specific quality. In the year 1962-63, while the aggregate demand for yarn for a period of one month stood at 113 bales, the total supply by the said institution during eight months amounted only to 115 bales. The value of yarn supplied was Rs. 9,59,036 in 1962-63.

Production.

The handloom societies in the district are engaged mainly in the production of saries of 26, 32 and 40 counts. Recently, with the government encouragement, they have started producing saries of high counts i.e. 60 and 80. The value of total production was of the order of Rs. 15,79,987 in 1962-63.

Wages.

The system of payment of wages in handloom industry depends upon the preliminary processes, the number of counts and texture of the cloth the weaver is supposed to deal with. A weaver gets, on an average from Rs. 2 to Rs. 7 daily. The following are the wage rates quoted for different counts of saries.

Count		With design (Rs.)	Plain (Rs.)
26 × 26	..	—	0·75 to Re. 1
40 × 40	..	3 to 3·50	2·50 to Rs. 3
60 × 60	..	5 to 5·50	4·00
80 × 80	..	6·50 to 7·00	5·00

The total amount of wages paid to the handloom weavers in the district was Rs. 1,34,823 in 1962-63.

Powerlooms.

Dhulia and Shahada were the two centres where most of the powerlooms were to be found. Most of the powerlooms were in the possession of Momins from Muslim community.

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Powerlooms.

Powerlooms require the same raw-materials as used by handloom weavers. The essential raw-materials like yarn and dyes are brought from Bombay. Many a time they are supplied by the middlemen in exchange for the finished products. Each powerloom turns out on an average 5 to 6 pieces per day. Though the labour charges for handloom and powerloom are invariably the same, a weaver on powerloom earns much more than a handloom weaver.

In 1962-63 there were 3000 powerlooms working in Dhulia town alone of which 155 were under the co-operative fold. There were 6 powerloom weavers' co-operative societies with a total membership of 155 and with a share capital and reserve fund of Rs. 96800 and Rs. 381 respectively.

The Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank has granted loans to these societies to the tune of Rs. 1,15,094. The value of total production amounted to Rs. 3,57,951 and the sales to Rs. 4,18,556.

Blanket Weaving.

The Khandesh Gazetteer (1880) gives the following account on blanket weaving in the district :—

"Blanket-weaving is almost the only woollen manufacture. It is carried on all over the district, but chiefly in Dhulia, Nasirabad, Jamner, Amalner, and Virdel. The weavers are almost all of the Dhangar caste. Sheep are generally sheared twice a year, in March and in November. The wool, chiefly black with some threads of dirty white, washed several times and cleaned with the bow, is collected by the Dhangars, some of it set apart for their own use, and the rest taken to the chief district trade centres and sold to wool dealers, also Dhangars by caste. From these dealers it is bought by the weaving Dhangars, who, though of the same tribe as the shepherd Dhangars, do not rear sheep but spend their time in blanket-weaving. Most of them buy the wool and work it into blankets. Others, employed by dealers as labourers, are paid from 2¼d. to 3d. (1½-2 annas) a yard, rates representing to a fairly good workman about 4½d. (3 annas) a day. The weaver who works his own wool earns on an average about 6d. (4 annas) a day. They weave generally in the open air, and rain forces them to stop. They work from six to eight hours a day and keep about thirty yearly holidays. Their women and children help in spinning the wool, and the men generally spin when it is too wet to weave. The blankets are offered for sale, either by the weavers themselves or by the trader who has employed them, at all fairs and markets, and in the shops of most large villages. They are in demand among all the lower classes, and almost the whole local produce is used in the district. A little goes to Berar and the Nizam's provinces. But the quantity imported from Marvad, Sholapur, and Pandharpur, is generally more than what leaves the district. There is a considerable sale of English blankets in Jalgaon, Bhusaval, Dhulia and nearly all the larger towns. Blanket weavers have no guild or trade association. There is a good, and on the whole a growing demand for their wares. A blanket generally measures from three to six cubits and costs from 1s. to 3s. (annas 8 to Rs. 1¼). Almost all plain."

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Handloom Weaving.

Blanket Weaving.

Besides the societies of powerlooms, there were two wool weavers' societies in the district with a total membership of 28 persons and a share capital and other funds equal to Rs. 2,350 and Rs. 1,211 respectively. There were also five Khadi weavers' societies. They had not gone into production but had confined their activities only to the purchase and sale of Khadi cloth.

Oil pressing.

Oil pressing is one of the important cottage industries in the district.* This industry has attracted Government attention as a major channel for giving employment to the unemployed in rural areas. Almost in every village, there are *tel-ghanis* found to be working. These *tel-ghanis* are hereditarily owned and operated by Telis, a sub-caste among Hindus. Besides extraction and sale of oil, they also get the oil extracted for farmers who bring groundnut, castor or sesamum seeds, as the case may be, to them. They charge from Re. 1 to Rs. 2 per *ghana*.

Most of the oil-men still use antiquated *ghanis*. A stone mortar lined inside with wood or a wooden mortar and a wooden *lat* (pestle), yoke, bullock, peg, an iron bar and tins are the equipment required in the extraction of oil. These cost from Rs. 800 to Rs. 900 to an oil-man.

Leather working and leather tanning.

An account of the leather industry as it existed in the last century in the district is given below.

"Shoemaking goes on in most large villages. The workers are *Mochis* and *Chambhars* and the industry supports about 100 *Mochi* and 1200 *Chambhar* families. The leather is bought chiefly from local tanners, and as a rule the shoemaker works with leather he has himself bought. Most of the *Mochis* and *Chambhars* are both tanners and shoemakers. They are paid from 1s. to 4s. (as. 8-Rs. 2.) for a pair of slippers, representing, to a fair workman, from 3d. to 6d. (2-4 annas) a day. The demand for his work is steady throughout the year. He works about eight hours a day and takes no holidays. The women of his family help in the lighter parts of his work. He makes shoes, sandals, buckets and water bags. The shoemakers of Dhulia, Tarsod, Erandol, Chopda and Nandurbar have a good name for their native shoes, and in Dhulia, Bhusaval, and Jalgaon are some men who can make neat and useful English shoes and rough pony harness. Most shoemakers keep a small stock of slippers and sandals for sale, or send them by an agent to local markets and fairs. The whole supply is generally used in the district, and small quantities of English shoes and boots are brought from Bombay, and native shoes from Poona and Ahmednagar. The demand is on the whole steady, and the business prosperous."

* For details refer to section on Oil Industry in this Chapter.

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Leather working and leather tanning.

The artisan in the industry is mainly concerned with tanning and shoemaking. The industry cannot be regarded as an organised industry and tanners and shoemakers could be found almost in all villages. Tanners, however, have established themselves in big villages. Recently there has been some effort to organise the industry. Accordingly a factory has been started which employs 70 artisans. Moreover, three co-operative societies working at three different places viz., Dhulia, Borkund and Pimpalner, have also been formed.

The process of tanning is as follows :—

The hide is first put in lime water so as to separate the hair and fleshy part of it. When it is well soaked, the hair is scrapped off with knives. After it is washed, the hide is soaked for three days in a solution comprising three parts of *babul* bark and one part of *hirda* water. To tan the hide thoroughly, soaking is repeated thrice. Then it is tied into a bag with a stronger solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water and hung up. It is then exposed to the sun for seven days. The process is completed when on eighth day the hide is washed again, dried and oiled.

The products include tanned leather and various soles, like buff soles, wax soles and press soles. These products have a good local market. Shoemakers are the main customers. Shoemakers make different types of chappals, sandals, shoes, and the like. In 1961, the proportion of shoemakers to the population of 1 lakh people was 130 in the district.

The leather workers in this district could not make much headway in their traditional occupation owing to their depressed economic conditions.

Soap-making.

The industry is of very recent origin. The first factory was started in the early fifties and was the only factory in 1964 when the survey was conducted. This factory was situated in Dhulia town and was located in rented premises. Its fixed capital was about Rs. 1,00,000 and the working capital was Rs. 2,01,000. It employed only 12 labourers. The overall production capacity was reported to be 250 tons.

The raw-materials required for the production were oil (coconut, cotton seed, *mahua* and groundnut), sodium silicate, rosin, colour and perfumes. The total purchases in 1963-64 were valued at Rs. 2,00,000. In the absence of competition, the products of this unit had a good demand in the district.

Hand-made paper industry.

There is only one hand-made paper manufacturing unit in the district which is located at Khandbara. It was started in 1961. It received financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 39,000 from the Khadi and Village Industries Commission, and was established with the initiative of the Nawapur Taluka Vidhayak Samiti.

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Hand-made paper industry.

The machinery and building formed the major share of the total investment which amounted to Rs. 80,000. The working capital requirements were of the order of Rs. 12,000.

Waste paper and rags, chemicals such as caustic soda and rosin water are the raw material necessary for the manufacture of hand-made paper. Waste paper is obtained from various sources. Rags are secured from Ahmedabad and Bombay at the rate of Rs. 80 per quintal. The total purchases of raw-material in the year 1963-64 were valued at Rs. 12,000.

The machinery used comprises a beater, oil engine, calendering machines, cutting machine, pressing machine and an electric motor. Other equipment used includes drill, grinders, pressing boards, paper moulds, paper lifting vats, cloth for paper separation etc. The whole equipment costs approximately Rs. 35,000.

The industry manufactures a very high grade of blotting paper and utility paper in three different sizes, viz. 26½″ × 24″, 23″ × 22″ and 20″ × 18″. The total production of paper in 1963-64 was 12178·50 kg. valued at Rs. 42,328·35 at the then prevailing rates.

Process.—The mixture of waste paper, rags etc., is sorted out into each individual unit and non-fibrous materials, sand, stones, brash etc., are altogether rejected. The sorted material is reduced to small bits so as to facilitate the subsequent chemical treatment. These bits are cleaned afterwards. Chemical treatment consists of treating the material either in cold water or in boiling water or by pressure, digesting with a solution of alkalis, soda, caustic soda or lime according to the nature of the materials. Afterwards, the treated material is washed in plenty of water to remove the last traces of alkalis. The cellulose fibre is then reduced to small length or pulp. Paper sheets are then formed by mixing the pulp with plentiful of water vats. Then a layer of diluted pulp is taken on screen and the excess of water is drained-off. Each sheet is couched on a table and when sufficient number of sheets are piled one over the other they are pressed to squeeze out the water. Then the wet sheets are separated and dried on ropes or on walls. The sheets obtained thus are called water leaves. They are like blotting paper. In order to make them impervious to ink the sheets are sized with starch paste or glue mixed with alum. The paper even after sizing is not fit for writing as its surface is not smooth for the free flow of the pen. It is then rubbed with an agate stone, conch shell or smooth flint on a burnisher or by pressing sheets interleaved with zinc or copper plates in two roll calenders.

The workers employed were both skilled and unskilled workers including women. The beaterman, vatsman, coucher, calendering workers and cutting men belonged to the category of skilled workers and were paid a monthly wage of Rs. 75. Unskilled male and female workers were paid Rs. 1·50 and Re. 1 per day respectively. The industry provided employment to 22 persons inclusive

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Hand-made paper industry.

of managerial staff. The total wage bill in the year 1963-64 came to Rs. 8,775. The products of this industry are demanded all over the country. Inspite of keen competition from the modern pulp and paper industry, this industry has survived mainly due to the superior quality of its products and the patronage of the government.

Pottery.

Pottery-making is one of the important cottage industries of the district. It is undertaken by persons from *Kumbhar* caste for whom it is an hereditary occupation.

The Khandesh Gazetteer (1880) makes the following observation about this industry :—

"Pottery and brick-making go on in most towns. The workers are Kumbhars, Beldars, and Kunbis. The clay is generally dug from some suitable field, pond bed, or old village site. Besides bricks and tiles, the chief articles made are earthen water pots, flower pots, jars, and water jugs. Potters are paid chiefly in grain. They do not work in the rains and generally cultivate small plots of land. In the fair season they are busy preparing their wares, taking them to market in carts, and with their asses, gathering rubbish to burn in their kilns. The Savda potters have a name for their skill in colouring their wares. To colour the clay small particles or grains of lac, dune lakh, are mixed with the dye in the proportion of two to three and pounded with stones, till, from the heat caused by the pounding the lac melts and mixes with the dye. The coloured lac is then moulded on the end of an iron rod, and the pot heated and smeared with the lac. The potters earn enough for their daily wants."

There were, in 1961, 1953 potters in the district of whom 753 were females. At important centres like Dhulia, Nandurbar, Shahada, Taloda, Kumbhars are found to have prosperous business.

The tools required for this industry were simple. They included wooden or earthen wheel, brick kiln for baking earthen pots and wooden moulds of various shapes and sizes for making clay toys. The process of making pots was as follows—Red earth was at first mixed with horse dung and soaked in water for some time before earthen pots were finally produced. The mixture was kneaded properly and trodden twice. The clay was then given the required form by pressing it on the rotating wheel. The pot was enlarged and strengthened by continued handling, turning and application of fresh mud till it acquired the requisite shape. The pots were then dried and a solution of red chalk and black earth was applied externally. The pots were finally baked in the kiln. Rice husk and cow-dung were spread at the bottom of the kiln and the pots were buried in rows below the husk. The kiln was set fire to and the pots were taken out after the husk and cow-dung were completely burned out.

For the preparation of pots, the earth required was brought from adjoining village at the rate of Rs. 1·50 and Rs. 2·00 for a cart-load of black and red earth respectively.

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Pottery.

The products prepared included *ghagars, deras,* and *khujas* and small sized *madkis*. They had local markets and hardly were exported to other districts. Most of the demand came from the poor. Generally the earthen ware was low priced.

With a view to improve the condition of potters, co-operative societies of potters have been formed. In 1964 there were seven societies with a total membership of 140 persons and a share capital and reserve fund of Rs. 5835 and Rs. 142 respectively.

Brick-making

Like the pottery industry brick-making is also carried on at many places in the district. It is a seasonal industry. It meets the day-to-day demands for bricks arising out of constructional activities. The raw-materials required are earth and ash whereas coal and wood are used as fuel. Bricks are baked in furnaces which are either rectangular or square in size with a capacity of 50,000 to 75,000 bricks. The length, breadth and height of the rectangular furnaces is usually 15 feet, 12 feet and 7 feet respectively. The bricks with a length, breadth and height of 9″, 4½″, 3″ respectively are produced. The cost of producing 1,000 bricks varies between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100 and their selling price between Rs. 125 and Rs. 150. Dhulia, Nandurbar, Shahada, Dondaicha, Sakri are the important market places where large turnover is recorded.

Bricks are made with the help of moulds. Labourers who are well-experienced are usually hired. The 1961 Census recorded 2,340 persons in this occupation in the district. Of these, 2,230 were men and the rest women. In few cases, besides bricks, tiles are also produced.

Carpentry.

Another major cottage industry, found commonly and dependent to a great extent on the availability of cheap supply of wood, is carpentry. In almost every village there are carpenters, who make and repair agricultural implements and carts. In towns and cities, carpenters have specialised themselves in furniture making and construction of houses. With the increasing expansion of construction activities following the implementation of developmental plans, this profession received a stimulus.

The old Khandesh Gazetteer (1880) has the following to say about this industry :—

"Of industries connected with vegetable products, carpentry is carried on in most of the larger villages. The workmen are chiefly Sutars and others who learn the craft, of whom there are altogether about 2,500 families. Most of the timber comes from the forests in the west of Khandesh, and as a rule belongs to those who engage the carpenters to work for them. The work is fairly steady, brisker in the dry season than in the rains. For about ten months in the year they earn from 1s. to 2s. (as 8—Re. 1) a day. Their wives add nothing to the family earnings. Of the local carpenters, those of Dhulia, Chopda, Taloda and

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Carpentry.

Pimpalner, and of Burhanpur are said to be the most skilful. Taloda carpenters build excellent carts and those of Dhulia, Taloda, and Chopda make good boxes."

Carpenter had long been a part and parcel of the society since times immemorial. Under the *baluta* system, he was paid in kind. Every year after the harvest he was given a fixed quantity of grains in exchange for which he had to make and repair agricultural implements. In 1961, there were 2,255 carpenters scattered all over the district. The proportion of carpenters to 1 lakh of population is 195.

The material required by the carpenter like teak wood is available in ample quantity. Its cost varies according to the quality from Rs. 12 to Rs. 20 per cubic foot. Other accessories include nails and polish of which nails cost Rs. 3 per kg. and polish Rs. 5 to 6·50 per bottle. These prices are of course subject to variations.

The tools and equipment consist of *wasala, patasi, ari, girmit,* whet-stone, *karneat, hatoda, gunya, chhani, randha, screw-drivers, pakkad* etc. The value of all these tools for a carpenter comes to about Rs. 200 to Rs. 225. The investment of a carpenter is mainly confined to the purchase of equipment and in few cases to the purchase of wood. Much of the work is undertaken on contract basis in which the raw-material, i.e. wood is supplied by the owner.

The carpentry in the district seems to be a flourishing industry as could be seen from the fact that the products had rising and continuous demand not only in the local markets but from Bombay, Ahmedabad and other markets in Gujarat.

The daily earnings of a carpenter in cities and towns ranged between Rs. 3 and Rs. 8. However, in most of the villages the *baluta* system is still prevalent. Now a days in villages the system of paying the carpenters their wages in terms of money is coming into vogue as grains are becoming costlier.

Cart-making.

Cart-making is also a prosperous industry in the district. The Khandesh Gazetteer (1880) gives the following account on cart-making. "Cart-making is an important industry. Wood is cheap and good, and the Dondaicha, Taloda, Chopda and Navapur carts are so marked an improvement on the old cart that they have become most popular. The manufacture flourishes, the price having been raised, without lowering the demand, from £2 to £4 (Rs. 20–Rs. 40). They are made by Deshi and Pardeshi Sutars. The iron parts are the work of local blacksmiths, the material being supplied from Bombay through local shopkeepers, Bohoras, Vanis, and others."

Dondaicha, Taloda, Nawapur, Dhulia are the main centres of cart-making. Taloda carpenters have acquired such a dexterity and skill in the making of cart that they are widely known and are

famous in the adjoining districts. There were in 1964 as many as 417 persons who had specialised themselves in cart-making.

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Cart-making.

There were three co-operative societies of carpenters with a total membership of 83 persons and the share capital and reserve funds of Rs. 12,007 and Rs. 3,838 respectively. They undertook on contract the work of making furniture for government offices, Zilla Parishad, Municipalities, etc.

Cane and Bamboo Working.

This is also a major cottage industry in the district. A good quality bamboo is available in Akrani and Nawapur ranges on which the industry thrives. The important places where this industry is located are Akrani, Nandurbar, Nawapur, Shehi, Kathi and Akkalkuwa. The work is done mostly by persons belonging to *Burud* community among Hindus. Besides, a number of tribal persons have taken up bamboo working as their means of subsistence. There were 2,261 persons engaged in this industry in 1961.

Recently, there had been some efforts to bring the scattered artisans under the co-operative fold. Accordingly, three co-operative societies were formed with a total membership of 75 persons. However, co-operation has not entirely succeeded in solving their problem. Especially, in the field of marketing, it did not create ready market for their products. As a result the artisans had to go from village to village for the sale of their products.

Bamboo is the main raw-material required. Men take out strips and strings with a sickle and women make the various articles such as *karandis, baskets, duradi, rovli, hara, sup* and *tattya.* The tools and equipment are of old type and comprise sickle, knife, chisel, cutter and wooden blocks.

The artisans, however, receive a very poor reward for the work they put in. The prices of the articles are too low and consequently have adversely affected the economic condition of the artisans. The following statement of prices will help to sum up the position of the industry :—

Article	Cost	Price
	Rs.	Rs.
Sieve	.. 0·36	0·50
Winnowing fan	.. 0·30	0·45
Hara	.. 0·75	1·25
Karandi	.. 0·40	0·60

Fisheries.

Being an inland district, fishing activities in the district are naturally confined to inland sources of water such as rivers, tanks, ponds etc. The total length of the perennial rivers is about 770 km and there are 13 tanks which to-gether provide on area of 2,000 acres approximately.

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Fisheries.

The commercially important varieties found in the district are: Kirkit, Marrel, Shivda, Chamar or Chalat, Pal or Dandaonya, Khavya, Khaval, Kolshi, Zinga, Boi, Kalunder, Kharbi and Muri. Under the Five Year Plan schemes, quick-growing 'Bengal Carps' are stocked annually in the perennial water tanks. The varieties stocked are catla-catla, Roha and Mrigal. In the first two years of the Third Plan 0·59 lakh of carp fry was stocked.

The total number of persons engaged in the industry as per the 1961 Census was 411 of which 352 were males and 59 females. Fishermen generally belong to Bhoi caste among Hindus. Some of the persons from Bhil and Adiwasi communities also take to fishing. However, with the limited scope for fishing, the fishermen either fall back upon agriculture or do some odd jobs such as cultivation of water-melons.

Fishing is undertaken with the help of gill nets known as *Tangad*, cast nets called *Sikadi*, drag nets or *Pandhi*, bag nets (*Tol*) and *chela* nets or *Tangadi*. The nets are mostly made of cotton twine. However nylon is increasingly used for making nets. Under the fishery requisite scheme financial assistance in the form of subsidy is given for the purchase of nylon and cotton twines.

Gur and Khandsari.

The Khandesh Gazetteer (1880) has the following observation on this industry :—

"The industry is carried on by all the better class of cultivators. Great stone sugar mills, found in many of the Satpuda valleys, show that sugarcane used to be more widely grown than it now is. The molasses is sold by the maker to the village shopkeeper at the rate of from 1½d. to 2½d. (1-1¼ annas) a pound. The dealer generally gathers a considerable quantity and forwards it to one of the district trade centres. Pimpalner and Ner in Dhulia are the chief producers of sugar, and the supply is gradually distributed among the district shopkeepers and travelling pedlars. The yearly outturn is estimated at about 1109 tons. Almost all classes used it, and little leaves the district".

There were 71 gur factories in Dhulia district in 1961. Most of the factories are located in Shahada and Sakri. They provided employment to about 1,400 persons. The industry was of a seasonal nature, working for about 85 to 90 days in a year. Only one factory reported working throughout the year.

Of the factories surveyed, the aggregate fixed capital of 14 units was Rs. 1,97,760. It gave an average fixed capital of Rs. 14,125 per unit. The working capital requirements amounted to Rs. 129100 per year with an average of Rs. 9,221 per unit. These units employed 392 workers paying them as wages about Rs. 46,662 in aggregate.

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Gur and Khandsari.

The fourteen units surveyed spent Rs. 22,800 in aggregate on power consumption giving an average of Rs. 1,643 per unit. The consumption of raw material amounted approximately to Rs. 1,00,000. The product of these units was marketed in Jalgaon, Dhulia and Nasik districts.

Sugarcane is crushed by a mechanical cane-crusher. The juice collected is mixed with lime so as to remove dirt from it and boiled in an open large pan. On cooling, it is poured in a pit where it is solidified. Finally it is filled in bucket-type moulds to give them the required shape and is made ready for market. Sugarcane juice is extracted by sugarcane-crushers worked on diesel engines. A few sugarcane-crushers are still run by bullocks.

The co-operatives have undertaken gur and khandsari production. There were as many as 23 gur and khandsari co-operative societies, concentrated mostly in Sakri taluka in this district during 1964.

The following statement gives the position of co-operative societies in 1963-64 :—

1. Number of societies	..	23
2. Number of members—	..	
(*a*) Agriculturists	..	439
(*b*) Artisans	..	*Nil.*
3. Share capital	..	Rs. 68,745
4. Reserve and other funds	..	Rs. 450
5. Borrowings—	..	
(*a*) Bank	..	Rs. 5,000
(*b*) Khadi Board	..	Rs. 85,075
6. Income received from proceedings	..	Rs. 39,345

From this it will be seen that these societies are organised mostly by agriculturists who grow sugarcane to take advantage of the scheme of financial assistance from Khadi and Village Industries Board. These societies produce gur from sugarcane brought for crushing by members and non-members and earn by way of charges.

Forestry.

The forests in the district occupy an area of 1564·72 square miles, which is about 32·26 per cent of the total geographical area of the district. Commercially important *tendu* and *apta* leaves which are useful in bidi industry, *mohwa* flowers and fruits, *kadai* for gum, *palas* for propagation of lac and *khair* for manufacture of *kath* are found in ample quantity in the district. Bamboo is also found in a sufficiently large quantity.

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Forestry.

In afforestation and exploitation of the above-mentioned valuable articles, as per 1961 Census, 1,647 persons were engaged.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the produce exploited in 1964-65 :—

Name of produce	Quantity	Value
		Rs.
Timber	2,60,669 C. feet	16,49,414
Firewood	9,610 tonnes	5,54,450
Bamboo	1,556 tonnes	40,060
Grass (fodder)	26,071 quintals	90,482
Apta and *tembhurni* leaves	12,393 quintals	34,606
Kadai-gum	502 quintals	52,070
Rosha grass	5 quintals	49,593

For the work of exploitation of the forests, forest workers' co-operative societies are given preference. In 1963, there were 45 such co-operative societies in the district. They are given the work of exploitation at concessional rates. The Government also contributes to the share capital of these societies by granting Rs. 3,000 as long-term loan, Rs. 1,200 towards management expenses in the first two years and also contributes Rs. 1,500 in the initial period of 3 years to be spent specifically on welfare activities. Till 1963-64 work of 93 forest coupes was completed by the forest labourers' societies.

INDUSTRIAL ESTATE.

The main objectives for the creation of Industrial Estates are two-fold, viz., to promote rapid development of small-scale industries and to facilitate industrialization in economically backward areas.

During the Third Five-Year Plan, Government of Maharashtra decided to establish 56 industrial estates in addition to the 10 already in existence. The proposed expenditure provided in the plan for the Industrial Estate at Dhulia was Rs. 1,50,000. As many as 31 sheds were to be constructed of which 21 were to be completed before the end of the plan.

Besides, a co-operative society under the name "Udhyognagar Sahakari Society Limited", has been registered at Dhulia. Its scheme comprised construction of six sheds of 30′ × 30′ (B type). The total estimated cost was Rs. 10,14,000. The society had collected a share capital of Rs. 88,000 to which the Government contributed Rs. 66,000. The Life Insurance Corporation also sanctioned a loan of Rs. 1,98,000 for this scheme. The society had an area of about 20 acres under its jurisdiction.

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LABOUR ORGANISATION.

SECTION III—LABOUR ORGANISATION

The organised labour movements are of very recent origin in the district. This could be attributed to late start of industrialisation, absence of organised industries, lack of organised efforts on the part of labourers etc. The trade union movement took its roots first in the textile industry and then spread rapidly to the rest of the industries in recent years. In 1964, there were 21 trade unions registered under the Trade Union Act of 1926.

The following statement gives an idea about the number, membership, income, expenditure and assets of the different unions in the district,

Unions	Number	Membership	Income	Expenditure	Assets
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Textile	2	3,247	23,830	18,037	29,129
Tobacco	2	17	1,730	1,339	1,671
			(information of one not available)		
Electric Supply Company Employees.	2	85	624	537	252
			(information of one not available)		
Municipal Kamgar Unions	6	753	3,137	1,895	4,400
S. T. Kamgar Sabha	1	544	1,562	1,561	17
Grampanchayat Kamgar Unions	2	40	117	122	11
Printing Workers Union	1	43	78	28	175
Gumasta Mandal	1	60	192	99	574
Drivers and Cleaners Union	1		N.	A.	
Cinema Theatre Kamgar Union	1	40	120	125	10
Hamal Mapadi Kamgar Union	1	423	1,326	966	2,712
Khadhya Peye Vikreta Sangh	1	81	1,451	1,030	5,490

Textile and municipal workers had the largest membership of 3247 and 753 respectively. Next come the unions of State Transport workers with a total membership of 544 and Hamal and Mapadi workers numbering about 423. The rest of the unions are either too small with very few members and with little or no organised activities.

The employees employed in the scheduled employments under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, were paid wages at the rate fixed under the Minimum Wages Act; for example, the workers of the cotton textile mill at Dhulia were paid a minimum wage of Rs. 34 per month inclusive of the wage increase granted as per the recommendations of the Central Wage Board for Textile Industry. In addition, they were paid dearness allowance based on the consumer price index number plus 10 per cent point above 100.

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The Minimum Wages Act has been extended to many industries. The following statement shows some of the important industries and the minimum wages fixed for them :—

Name of the Employment	Minimum Wages fixed		
	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled
(1) Rice Mill ..	Rs. 80 p.m. ..	Rs. 65 p.m. ..	Rs. 55 p.m.
(2) Bidi-making ..	Rs. 2.50 for rolling 1,000 bidis per day.		
(3) Oil Mill ..	Rs. 85 ..	Rs. 65 .. (area under municipal limits).	Rs. 55 p.m.
	Rs. 80 ..	Rs. 60 .. (For other places).	Rs. 50 p.m.
(4) Tanning and leather manufacturing.	Rs. 80 ..	Rs. 65 p.m. ..	Rs. 55 p.m. Municipal area.
	Rs. 70 ..	Rs. 60 ..	Rs. 60 other places.
(5) Ginning and Pressing ..	Engineer ..	Rs. 120 p.m. ..	Rs. 100 p.m.
	Boiler Attendant.	Rs. 120 p.m. ..	Rs. 100.
	Pressman ..	Rs. 75 p.m. ..	Rs. 70 p.m.
	Gin feeder ..	Rs. 1·65 daily	Rs. 1·50 daily.
	Cotton carrier	Rs. 2·10 per day.	Rs. 1·95 per day.
	Cotton seed carrier.	Rs. 2·10 per day.	Rs. 1·95 per day.
	Bale sewer ..	Rs. 2·25 per day.	Rs. 2·00 per day.
	Turner (qualified).	Rs. 120 p.m. ..	Rs. 100 p.m.
	Non-qualified..	Rs 80	Rs. 70 p.m.
	Workers doing sundry work.	Rs. 1·65 daily	Rs. 1·50 daily
(6) Potteries ..	Rs. 85 (A) p.m. Rs. 78 (B) p.m.	Rs. 58 p.m. ..	Rs. 50 p.m.

Industrial Disputes.

Industrial progress depends a good deal upon the mutual relations between the employers and the employees. Without a contented labour force, industrial development hardly makes its headway. In the absence of industrial peace, the labourers resort to such weapons as strikes, slow-working, and work to rule which hampers the continuous and efficient production. The industrial relations assume overwhelming importance now a days in the context of planned industrial development which has synchronised with the general awakening among the labourers and the growth of trade unionism. The workers are seen resorting to strikes over the issues of wage rates, payment of bonus, working conditions and rationalization of machinery, etc.

The following statement gives the number of strikes that occurred in the district since 1950 to 1963 and the mandays lost.

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LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Industrial Disputes.

STATEMENT SHOWING INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES AT SHIRPUR DURING THE PERIOD FROM 1954 TO 1963

Year	No. of Disputes	Workers involved	Man-days lost	Wages	Service conditions	Others	Successful	Compromised	Un-successful	Indefinite
1954	1	97	97	....	1	....	....	1	....	....
1955	1	125	500	1	....	....	1	....	....	....
1956	2	63	2,743	1	1	....	....	....	2	....
1957	2	525	525	2	....	....	....	1	....	1
1958	1	77	616	1	....	....	....	1	....	....
1959	3	465	518	2	....	1	1	1	1	....
1960	2	145	445	2	....	....	....	1	....	1
1961	4	308	175	2	....	2	1	....	....	3
1962	2	399	2,477	1	....	1	1	1	....	....
1963	1	339	678	1	....	....	....	....	1	....

CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PRESENT CHAPTER CONSISTS OF TWO PARTS (1) Banking, and (2) Trade and Commerce. In the first part is described the various financial institutions that cater to the credit requirements of the district economy. They include such units as the money-lender, the joint-stock banks, the co-operative societies, the Life Insurance Corporation, the Small Savings Organisation and last but not the least, the joint stock companies. Of these the money-lender is the earliest known institution which played an important part in the credit supply to the people who were mostly cultivators. Although he served an important economic function of capital formation and credit purveyance, the money-lender with the sole monopoly he commanded in the financial field, would have turned out to be the most objectionable anti-social element with his traditional mal-practices, had not the Government put a legal restriction on him in the form of the Money-lenders' Act of 1946. Another important event that virtually undermined the money-lender's influence was the gradual rise of the modern joint-stock banks since the thirties. After World War II and especially after Independence the latter have considerably expanded their scope of activities which include a liberal supply of credit not only to the furtherance of trade and industry but also to the development of agriculture which is a priority of the Planning Programme. The development of agriculture is, however, mainly limited to the co-operative movement that has covered almost all the district and spread over its every nook and corner. Primarily a credit movement, the co-operative movement has become a watch-word for every economic activity especially of the rural world, thanks to the necessary incentive supplied by the State Government from time to time for furthering its growth. Besides purveying credit to the economy, these institutions also collect savings of the people in the form of premia and invest them in interest-yielding securities. The insurance and the joint-stock companies need a specific mention in this context.

Behind the growth of all these institutions one cannot fail to observe the part played by the State. The Government helps the growth of the financial institutions by engaging itself in various economic activities such as the collection of small savings, the distribution of

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INTRODUCTION.

tagai loans to the needy agriculturists, propagation of insurance business and floating of loans and raising funds from various sources. An account of these manifold State activities in the district has also been elaborately discussed in the first part of this chapter.

The financial set-up in the district has got significant bearings on the trade and commerce activities in the district. With increased circulation of money, there has been a greater movement of goods and commodities. Development of transport and communications have helped the process. The latter has expanded the trade from the narrow confinements of the village bazars to the big markets of the taluka towns. Regulation of markets of the essential commodities by the State always protected the agriculturists at whose cost the trade otherwise would have grown. The state trading, too, has worked in the same direction, viz., safeguarding the consumers' interests through fair-price shops and controlled prices. The second part gives a detailed account of all these activities.

SECTION I—BANKING AND FINANCE

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-Lenders.

In 1880, when Dhulia district formed part of Khandesh district, the financial conditions were more or less universal over the whole district. Except at Jalgaon, the district place, there were no banking organisations in the district. Money-lenders were the sole financiers catering to the credit needs of the people. Money-lending was practised by almost all those who could lay by some amount. The professional money-lenders, however, belonged to the commercial classes in the community. Of these the bankers or *sarafs* dealt with urban people and well-to-do husbandmen and the rest with the comparatively poorer classes of villagers. Besides professional money-lenders, there were also low assurers, who, for short periods, lent small sums at heavy rates of interest.

The money-lenders dealing with urban people and well-to-do cultivators used to keep a journal or *rojkird* and a ledger, *khatavani*, whereas those advancing loans to poorer classes kept only the *baitha khata*, where entries were made without being posted in the journal or day-book and all transactions were based on written bonds. The former sometimes kept two journals, a rough book for entering daily transactions and a correct book or *mel* for weekly and monthly transactions. Final settlement of accounts was made every year in the *Divali* days.

Interest was generally charged every month, its rate varying according to the personal credit of the borrower. The yearly rate varied from 9 to 24 per cent in smaller and from 6 to 12 per cent in bigger towns. Often grain for seed was advanced by money-lenders.

Generally grain or money was raised by cultivators against the security of their land. It was raised also by *Jalap*, that is, by

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-Lenders.

pledging or selling the sown or grown crop at a rate far below its probable outturn. Land mortgages were also very common in those days, and at some places the practice of raising money by mortgaging one's labour was also prevalent. Labour was generally mortgaged either to clear off old debts or to raise money to meet marriage and other expenses. The men who mortgaged their labour were known as yearlies, *saldars*, because their term of service used to last for one or more years. In mortgages of immovable property, such as houses and land, the rate of interest varied from twelve to eighteen per cent. Both town and village money-lenders often advanced grain and money for seed or for support to the cultivator's family during the rainy season.

In one way, the old money-lenders have contributed to the capital accumulation in the district through their dealings. The old Gazetteer pointedly says, "Though the bulk of the Khandesh money-lenders were grasping and unscrupulous in their dealings, and being foreigners, took much wealth out of the district, their capital and their thrift and skill in money matters were of the highest value. Without their genius for hoarding and the pitiless pressure they put on their debtors, the bulk of the money that was yearly saved would never had been earned, or if earned, would have been spent in feasting and show".

The advances made by the money-lenders were repaid at harvest time, either in money or in kind, with the addition of fifty per cent to the sum advanced. The recovery of interest and principal was not very strict in a few cases and the money-lender always acted kindly in recovering his dues. In a number of cases, however, the greed and unfairness of the money-lender caused too much hardships to their debtors. Many of the husbandmen, hard-pressed for money were utterly in the money lender's power. Less was given to them than the sum entered in the bond; no receipts were passed for the instalments paid; and fresh deeds were drawn up and fresh charges made, of which the debtor had no knowledge.

In order to check these objectionable mal-practices the then Bombay State passed on the 17th September, 1947, an act known as the Money-lenders' Act. It declared money-lending without licence illegal; compelled the money lender to maintain cashbook and ledger in a prescribed form and manner; prescribed the maximum rates of interest to be charged by him and made molestation of debtor by creditor an offence. The Act also sought by special measures to protect the Backward Class People[1].

[1] For a detailed description refer to *Jalgaon Gazetteer*, p. 306.

TABLE No. 1

TALUKA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF LICENSED MONEYLENDERS IN DHULIA DISTRICT
(FROM 1949-50 TO 1963-64 AND 1971-72)

Year		Dhulia	Navapur	Sindkheda	Shahada	Nandurbar	Shirpur	Sakri	Taloda	Akkalkuwa	Akrani	Total
1949-50	..	....	....	....	....	31	....	17	....	....	....	48
1950-51	..	....	....	....	....	29	....	17	....	....	....	46
1951-52	..	60	....	....	....	25	....	11	....	....	....	96
1952-53	..	54	....	....	14	18	....	11	....	....	....	97
1953-54	..	47	....	....	12	16	....	11	....	....	....	86
1954-55	..	38	....	....	12	26	....	9	....	....	....	85
1955-56	..	44	....	31	12	26	....	15	....	....	....	128
1956-57	..	45	67	31	21	26	6	15	2	....	....	205
1957-58	..	53	65	30	13	24	7	15	2	19	....	228
1958-59	..	52	65	29	14	26	6	14	2	21	....	229
1959-60	..	55	53	30	6	25	6	12	1	22	....	219
1960-61	..	49	64	30	7	26	7	13	3	17	....	201
1961-62	..	46	57	20	5	19	5	11	1	16	....	183
1962-63	..	46	57	20	5	19	5	11	1	17	....	184
1963-64	..	46	50	16	6	23	6	11	1	17	....	179
1971-72	..	43	40	18	6	28	12	16	5	16	....	184

TABLE No. 2

TABLE

ADVANCES BY MONEY-LENDERS

Serial No.	Year		DHULIA		NAVAPUR	
			Traders	Non-traders	Traders	Non-traders
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	1949-50	..	....	....	....	....
2	1950-51	..	0,98,807	7,57,967	....	....
3	1951-52	..	7,02,546	6,85,506	....	....
4	1952-53	..	7,20,549	17,03,931	....	....
5	1953-54	..	6,(6,192	14,61,488	....	....
6	1954-55	..	6,33,529	6,11,563	....	....
7	1955-56	..	6,30,450	6,10,912	....	....
8	1956-57	..	57,698	8,59,507	22,051	5,29,933
9	1957-58	..	11,78,240	10,15,800	3,58,933	8,06,883
10	1958-59	..	6,72,496	16,24,340	53,131	3,73,346
11	1959-60	..	....	....	....	....
12	1960-61	..	....	....	....	....
13	1961-62	..	....	....	....	....
14	1962-63	..	....	....	....	....
15	1971-72	..	3.72,395	21,12 271	....	3,26,437

TABLE

Serial No.	Year		SHIRPUR		SAKRI		TALODA	
			Traders	Non-Traders	Traders	Non-Traders	Traders	Non-Traders
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	1949-50	..	....	....	9,715	7,858	....	....
2	1950-51	..	....	....	26,465	17,004	....	....
3	1951-52	..	....	....	21,407	10,590	....	....
4	1952-53	..	....	....	92,103	74,984	....	....
5	1953-54	..	....	....	21,770	12,750	....	....
6	1954-55	..	....	....	15,815	19,410	....	....
7	1955-56	..	....	....	47,850	66,335	....	....
8	1956-57	..	14,110	31,603	87,405	2,50,280	60,845	35,030
9	1957-58	..	6,675	24,601	56,064	1,77,036	62,250	51,896
10	1958-59	..	400	37,073	91,080	4,03,796	70,805	1,51,893
11	1959-60	..	....	....	....	....	....	....
12	1960-61	..	....	....	....	....	....	....
13	1961-62	..	....	....	....	....	....	....
14	1962-63	..	....	....	....	....	....	....
15	1971-72	..	2,890	88,530	7,860	2,49,830	1,12,675	2,23,325

No. 2

TO TRADERS AND NON-TRADERS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

SINDKHEDA		SHAHADA		NANDURBAR	
Traders	Non-traders	Traders	Non-traders	Traders	Non-Traders
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
....	....	....	....	97,103	82,223
....	....	....	....	1,24,265	68,084
....	....	....	....	27,814	2,67,538
....	....	42,834	1,54,403	31,848	2,91,532
....	....	47,368	1,12,291	37,137	1,76,649
....	....	19,847	95,135	13,826	1,44,523
17,685	5,62,030	36,104	1,45,877	27,000	2,66,007
26,250	5,63,830	54,992	1,98,428	33,575	2,13,106
17,411	7,83,580	89,758	2,28,840	10,58,577	2,30,123
84,629	5,32,869	70,495	3,27,163	10,15,959	2,87,535
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
3,500	22,21,889	33,926	2,89,094	2,48,477	14,70,358

No. 2–*contd.*

AKKALKUWA		AKRANI		Total	
Traders	Non-traders	Traders	Non-traders	Traders	Non-traders
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
....	....	....	....	1,06,818	90,081
....	....	....	....	2,49,537	8,43,055
....	....	....	....	7,51,767	9,63,634
....	....	....	....	8,87,334	22,24,850
....	....	....	....	7,72,467	17,63,178
....	....	....	....	6,83,017	8,70,631
....	....	....	....	7,59,089	16,51,161
....	....	....	....	3,56,926	26,81,717
....	27,528	....	....	28,28,008	33,45,987
....	1,08,003	....	....	20,58,995	38,46,023
....	....	....	....	26,16,639	42,73,395
....	....	....	....	10,95,812	46,25,116
....	....	....	....	9,68,030	4,33,372
....	....	....	....	9,54,584	34,59,370
1,14,575	3,33,035	....	....	8,96,298	73,14,769

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The Act at the same time benefited the money-lenders by revising the structure of interest rates as from 5th July, 1952. Accordingly the maximum rates of interest were raised from six to nine per cent per annum on secured and nine to twelve per cent per annum on unsecured loans. The provisions of the Money-lenders' Act, thus organised the business of money-lending and put it on a legal and systematic basis.

The Act was applied to this district in 1947. The above tables No. 1 and 2 give the taluka-wise distribution of money-lenders in Dhulia district as well as the loans advanced by them to traders and non-traders in the district.

The table No. 1 indicates that Navapur taluka has the largest number of money-lenders in the district, whereas in Akrani Taluka there are no money-lenders at all. The total number of money-lenders in the district shows a decrease. The debtors, a large number of whom are cultivators, can now secure loans from the Government in the form of *tagai*, which has reduced the demand for money from the money-lenders. A number of money-lenders, therefore, do not renew their licences, and stop their business as soon as the old dues are recovered. The money-lenders are also required to maintain complicated accounts in prescribed forms and to send statements in regard to every single transaction to the department concerned. There is also a substantial increase in loans by co-operative societies. All these factors have contributed to the diminution of the influence exercised by the money-lenders and in their number.

For example, where as in 1962-63 loans to non-traders and cultivators from licensed money-lenders amounted to Rs. 34,59,370, loans from the primary co-operative societies and *tagai* loans together amounted to Rs. 3,10,95,742.

Since the implementation of the Gold Control Order, gold as security for raising loans from the money-lenders, has virtually ceased to come forth. This also has largely affected the supply of funds from the money-lenders.

Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.

The proverbial agricultural indebtedness in India always adversely affected her prosperity in the past. Whatever might have been the causes of this indebtedness, it is true that it continued to grow year after year in the absence of any mechanism or legal enactment that could control it. The Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act of 1878 was passed in order to reduce the volume of agricultural indebtedness by compulsorily scaling down the debts incurred by the agriculturists, but it failed in its purpose owing to certain of its inherent drawbacks. An Act known as the Bombay Agricultural Debtors Relief Act, 1939, was, therefore, passed. The aim of this Act was to reduce the aggregate indebtedness of genuine agriculturists so as to bring it reasonably within the compass of their capacity to repay.

The Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act of 1939 changed the definition of the term "Agriculturist" of the former Act which had

brought into its fold not only the genuine agriculturists of the cultivator class, but also pseudo-agriculturists. Further, under this Act the term debtor was applied to an indebted person who was holding land and also personally cultivating it. His income from sources other than agriculture was not to exceed a certain maximum limit. Income from land got cultivated by tenants was regarded as non-agricultural income under the Act.

Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1939.

The application of the Bombay Agricultural Debtor's Relief Act of 1939 was restricted to debts not exceeding Rs. 15,000. The rate of interest in case of awards was not to exceed six per cent per annum or such less rate as might have been notified in that behalf by the Government or the rate agreed upon by the parties between whom the debt was originally incurred or the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debts, whichever was lowest.

Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1947.

The above Act was repealed and replaced by the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1947. This Act was extended to the Bombay area of the State of Maharashtra except the city of Bombay. Under the Act the debtor is an indebted person or an undivided Hindu family, which holds land used for agricultural purposes or has held such land at any time not more than 30 years before 30th January, 1940, which has been transferred in the nature of a mortgage without purporting it to be so. The debtor, moreover, should also be cultivating land personally for the cultivating season in the two years immediately preceding the date of the coming into operation of this Act or of the establishment of the Board concerned under the repealed Act. The restriction on his non-agricultural income as per the Act was placed at 33 per cent of his total annual income or Rs. 500, whichever is greater (40 per cent of the total income or Rs. 1,500 as the aggregate income of all the members, in case of an undivided Hindu family).

Under the provisions of the Act, if the debts payable are unsecured, they are to be scaled down *pro rata* to the paying capacity of the debtor. In case of unsecured debts, this is to be done only if the total amount of such debts, is more than sixty per cent of the value of the property belonging to the debtor. For the purposes of the Act the paying capacity of the debtor was deemed to be sixty per cent of the value of the property of the debtor. The court has to make an award after determining the amount of debts scaled down in the manner mentioned above. It has also to fix the amount of instalments in which the debts are to be paid. In no case, however, the annual instalments payable by the debtor should exceed his net annual income. The rate of interest as laid down by the Act shall not exceed 6 per cent per annum or such less rate as may be notified by the State Government or the rate agreed upon between the parties when the debt was originally incurred or the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debt, whichever is the lowest.

Since the application of the above Act, there has been a considerable reduction in the amount of debt contracted in Dhulia district. The following table shows the administration of this Act and the amounts by which these debts have been reduced.

TABLE

ADMINISTRATION OF THE BOMBAY DISTRICT

Year	Number of applications received from debtors and creditors under			Number of applications withdrawn by	
	Section 4	Section 9	Section 19	Debtors	Creditors
1950-51 ..	1196	288	192	39	65
1951-52 ..	75	516	29	92	44
1952-53 ..	111[1]	207	152	101	66
1953-54 ..	434	97	100	30	15
1954-55 ..	97	....	17	....	....
1955-56 ..	136	....	12	6	3
1956-57 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1957-58 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59 ..	1	....	66	....	....
1959-60 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1960-61 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63 ..	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64 ..	....	....	....	....	....

TABLE

Year	Amount involved in applications as shown in column 6 (Rs.)			
	A	B	C	D
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	2,77,312	8,458	20,18,904	25,72,815
1951-52 ..	13,29,924	39,007	16,47,134	25,87,181
1952-53 ..	16,42,358	28,320	28,14,780	12,67,848
1953-54 ..	9,08,190	23,208	14,37,145	3,14,509
1954-55 ..	2,69,830	3,575	5,10,773	48,030
1955-56 ..	11,158	....	1,36,676	31,560
1956-57 ..	....	....	....	....
1957-58 ..	....	....	....	....
1958-59 ..	2,500	....	44,102·48	18,982·19
1959-60 ..	....	....	....	....
1960-61 ..	....	....	....	....
1961-62 ..	....	....	....	....
1962-63 ..	....	....	....	....
1963-64 ..	....	....	....	....

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Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1947.

No. 3

AGRICULTURAL DEBTORS RELIEF ACT 1947

DHULIA

Amount involved in applications involving		Number of applications disposed of—			
Money claims	Sale mortgage transactions	On preliminary issues	By adjudicating debtors as insolvents	By passing awards	For other reasons
Rs.	Rs.				
5,15,159	4,30,736	677	33	4,644	6,829
63,620	12,392	1,971	97	3,887	6,693
26,66,766	26,53,343	2,739	50	5,118	3,195
10,17,455	2,56,993	1,521	52	3,027	679
28,107	33,487	300	11	1,192	98
42,529	28,030	7	....	110	35
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
88 991·65	95,603·75	1	....	31	9
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....	....

No. 3—*contd.*

Amount by which debts are reduced	Number of awards taken by land mortgage banks		No. of appeals preferred against
Rs.			
26,16,238	3	501	109
38,40,909	....	....	91
38,55,459	1	600	88
11,63,724	....	....	148
4,61,416	....	....	56
1,06,270	....	....	25
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
12,544·39	....	....	2
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

The beginning of the co-operative movement in India as also in Khandesh of which Dhulia district formed part started with the passing of the Co-operative Credit Societies Act in 1904 with a view to reducing rural indebtedness and bringing credit facilities within the reach of the agriculturists. In 1912 and again in 1928 similar Co-operative Acts were passed which helped the organisation of different types of societies in India. The Act of 1912 was amended further abolishing the distinction between the rural and the urban societies. It classified the societies, on the basis of its liability, into 'limited liability' and 'unlimited liability' societies. Under the provisions of the new Act it made possible the registration of central societies, such as the Provincial and District Central Banks and Supervising Unions consisting of individuals and societies. Under the new enactment the word 'credit' was dropped so that a number of non-credit type of organisations could be registered. The Act of 1928 was made applicable to all the persons having common economic needs, whether their means were limited or otherwise. This Act widened the scope of the old legislation. Subsequent amendments passed thereafter gave further impetus to the growth of new societies in India.

The earliest co-operative society to be registered in the then district of Khandesh was at Bodwad (Bhusawal taluka now in Jalgaon district) as early as 1906.

The early co-operative societies, popularly known as primaries were agricultural in character. They were organised mostly in rural areas and provided short-term and medium term credit to the agriculturists for productive and domestic purposes. The operational area of each society was generally a village (and its hamlet) whose residents were eligible for its membership. By 1963-64 there were in Dhulia district 770 agricultural credit societies with a total membership of 97,763 persons. The paid up share capital of these societies amounted to Rs. 1,27,83,967 during the same year, and the working capital Rs. 48,52,608. The following table gives the progress of the Agricultural Credit Societies in Dhulia district for the years 1957-58, 1958-59, 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1971-72.

TABLE No. 4

STATISTICS OF THE AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Particulars	1957-58	1958-59	1962-63	1963-64	1971-72*
No. of Societies ..	672	692	762	770	765
No. of members ..	48,604	55,437	95,933	97,763	1,10,752
Share capital (Rs.).	39,36,097	47,09 798	1,11,87,305	1,27,83,967	2,09,07,000
State contribution towards share capital (Rs.) ..	1,94,800	4,10,800	10,95,340	11,10,725	N. A.
Reserve and other funds (Rs.) ..	27,79,519	27,22,151	37,41 774	41,64,298	70,84,000
Deposits (Rs.) ..	1,10,994	1,09,100	2,13,073	2,38,988	N. A.
Bank loan (Rs.) ..	58,72,350	83,37,489	2,81,92,470	3,01,69,708	N. A.
Other borrowing (Rs.) (including borrowings from government).	1,05,443	2,10,025	2,95,42,384	12,02,855	N. A.
Working capital (Rs.).	1,29,99,203	1,64,99,363	4,47,03,514	4,85 42,608	6,64,93,000

*In 1971-72 the societies advanced Rs. 4,25,08,000 and recovered Rs. 3,77,87,000 from borrowers.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

The agricultural credit societies provided credit facilities to the cultivators for agricultural production. In addition most of them undertook other ancillary service activities such as supply of improved seeds, fertilisers, and other agricultural requisites including consumers' goods.

Among agricultural primaries the service co-operatives (Seva societies) numbering 647 form the largest and the most important group. The membership of these societies is universal but it prominently includes cultivators, artisans and labourers. The object of these societies is to provide credit for agricultural operations, to purchase raw materials, etc. Among other activities, these societies also pool the agricultural produce of members sometimes and arrange to sell it through marketing societies to which they are affiliated. In short, the service co-operatives cover all economic activities of the rural population so as to create a cohesive, self-reliant and prosperous village community.

Besides the service societies the agricultural primaries in Dhulia district comprise three agricultural credit and thrift and credit societies, 94 large sized multi-purpose societies, 16 small-sized multi-purpose societies and 10 grain banks.

District Central Co-operative Bank.

The Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Dhulia, is the Central Financing Agency for the co-operative societies in Dhulia district. It was registered on 13th September, 1957. The main function of the bank is to finance agricultural co-operative societies within its area of operation (*i.e.* the Dhulia district). It also serves as a balancing centre in that it accepts surplus funds of one society at a reasonable rate of interest and transfers those to another which is in need of more capital than the amount it possesses. The bank has so far opened 34 branches in the district and has made available maximum credit facilities to its members. The following table shows the progress of the Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank, during 1957-58, 1958-59, 1962-63 and 1963-64.

TABLE No. 5

STATISTICS OF THE DISTRICT CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BANK, DHULIA*.

Particulars	1957-58	1958-59	1962-63	1963-64
No. of banks	1	1	1	1
No. of members ..	777	864	1,056	1,126
Paid-up share capital ..	10,64,750	13,70,750	31,16,300	34,02,250
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)..	765	24,495	5,60,558	7,98,532
Deposits (Rs.)	1,04,22,935	1,14,74,821	1,98,89,841	2,08,94,104
Borrowings (Rs.)—				
(a) Government ..	1,34,572	5,70,372	1,02,500	1,03,000
(b) Reserve Bank and State Bank.	1,94,800	22,08,750	1,56,04,275	1,21,14,913
(c) Others	3,89,722	27,74,122	25,000	9,69,500
Working Capital (Rs.) ..	1,18,78,172	1,57,44,188	4,36,28,782	4,44,78,198
Overdues (Rs.)	7,97,879	3,12,241	N.A.	N.A.
Loans outstanding (Rs.) ..	61,94,596	87,52,662	N.A.	N.A.
Net Profit or loss (Rs.) ..	10,108	30,035	4,37,164	3,57,627

*In 1971-72 the bank had 34 branches with 1,598 societies as members. The share capital of the bank was 98,02,000; reserve and other funds Rs. 33,68,000 and working capital Rs. 8,84,67,000. It advanced Rs. 6,80,98,000 as short term loans and Rs. 54,63,000 as medium term loans.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Primary Land Mortgage Bank.

The establishment of West Khandesh District Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., Dhulia, was made with a view to providing the long-term credit needs of the cultivators. It grants loans on the security of landed property offered by the borrowers, for (i) redemption of old debts, (ii) improvement of agricultural land and the adoption of improved methods of cultivation, (iii) installation of costly agricultural plant and machinery, etc. The bank has seven branches at important places in the district. Following table shows the progress made by it during 1957-58, 1958-59, 1962-63 and 1963-64.

TABLE No. 6

WORKING OF THE PRIMARY LAND MORTGAGE BANK, DHULIA*

Particulars		1957-58	1958-59	1962-63	1963-64
No. of members—					
(*i*) borrowing	..	1436	1832	8669	11949
(*ii*) non-borrowing	..	127	127	141	144
(*iii*) 'B' class	..	629	11879	....	....
Paid-up capital (Rs.)	..	1,67,586	2,08,493	16,51,700	26,85,695
Reserves (Rs.)	..	2,78,664	56,733	1,23,337	2,68,460
Borrowings from apex bank (Rs.)		23,71,329	30,80,676	2,04,74,748	2,59,01,030
Deposits (Rs.)	..	12,885	13,831	27,227	33,905
Loans outstanding (Rs.)	..	24,48,419	31,93,560	2,10,93,125	2,88,21,431
Overdues (Rs.)	..	....	....	14,20,402	19,26,437
Profit or loss (Rs.)	..	26,475	29,955	1,94,034	86,147

Non-agricultural Credit Societies.

The non-agricultural credit societies in Dhulia district are mostly urban societies supplying credit to members who are generally traders, artisans, factory workers, salary-earners, etc. residing in towns. By 1963-64 there were 34 urban societies in the district. They included 7 full-fledged banks, 20 salary-earners' societies, one factory workers' society and 6 urban credit societies.

The main function of the urban societies is to advance loans to their members on personal valuables pledged or produce hypothecated. During 1963-64 these societies provided cheap and timely credit of the order of Rs. 1,22,36,510 to middle class and low income group people including artisans, traders and employees under Government and other public and private bodies and thus helped them to meet their professional needs. The table below gives the comparative position of the working of these societies for 1957-58, 1958-59, 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1971-72.

*In 1971-72 this bank had 11 branches with 25.257 individu members. Its share capital was 65,24,000 ; reserve and other funds Rs. 8,24,000 ; and working capital Rs. 5,07,66,000. It advanced Rs. 52,500 by way of long term loans.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Non-agricultural Credit Societies.

TABLE No. 7

WORKING OF THE NON-AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT SOCIETIES, DHULIA DISTRICT

Particulars		1957-58	1958-59	1962-63	1963-64	1971-72
Number of Societies	..	24	24	32	34	46
Number of members	..	9,562	9,752	13,166	14,385	7,608
Paid-up capital (Rs.)	..	8,33,952	8,74,057	12,79,580	14,79,287	15,15,000
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)		6,01,852	6,02,425	8,59,641	8,41,754	5,00,000
Deposits–						
(*i*) from members (Rs.)	..	19,44,436	20,01,589	29,44,645	13,39,431	N. A
(*ii*) from non-members (Rs.)		14,01,764	14,47,525	28,28,724	25,97,439	N. A.
Loans advanced (Rs.)	..	N. A.	N. A.	1,06,97,612	1,22,36,510	N. A.
Loans Outstanding (Rs.)	..	26,68,895	29,35;578	52,31,830	61,95,526	N. A
Overdues (Rs.)	..	4,53,124	4,79,253	3,18,212	2,88,345	N. A
Working capital (Rs.)	..	49,67,357	51,96,064	1,90,83,604	67,89,636	31,05,500
Profit (Rs.)	..	75,688	77,517	1,48,584	1,47,514	N. A.

These societies also allow cash credits and sanction overdrafts against the securities. Besides, they undertake modern banking operations like issue of *hundis* and drafts and collection of cheques, *hundis*, drafts, etc.

Co-operaive Farming Societies.

The co-operative Farming Societies were organised with the following objects in view.—(1) increasing agricultural production ; (2) increasing opportunities for gainful employment in agriculture as well as activities allied to agriculture, and (3) rehabilitating landless labourers. The co-operative farming movement was started in Dhulia district in 1947 with the organisation of Navari Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., at Navari in Dhulia district. Efforts were made later on to organise collective farming societies on the Government waste land. During 1949 two co-operative collective farming societies, viz., (1) Waghapur Co-operative Collective Farming Society, and (2) Bhadne Shetki Majur Co-operative Collective Farming Society, Ltd., both in Sakri Taluka, were registered. The organisation of co-operative farming societies got impetus only after the initiation of the First Five-Year Plan. In 1961, Dhulia taluka was selected to serve as a pilot project and ten co-operative farming societies were organised in it under the instructions of the Government of India within a period of two years. Another pilot project was undertaken in Sindkheda taluka where a target of organising ten co-operative farming societies was achieved during 1962-63. By 1964 there were 90 farming co-operatives of which 58 were Joint Farming Societies, 31 Collective Farming Societies and 1 Better Farming Society. The following table shows the working and progress of these societies in the district during 1962-63 and 1963-64.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Co-operative Farming Societies.

TABLE No. 8

WORKING OF FARMING SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT* FOR 1962-63 AND 1963-64

Particulars	Joint Farming		Collective Farming		Farming Societies
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64	
Number of societies ..	54	58	22	31	129
Number of members ..	695	752	470	998	2,753
Total land under command (acres)	6,212	6,333	5,653	9,131	N. A.
Land under cultivation (acres)	6,148	6,294	3,290	8,881	N. A.
Financial assistance received from Government—					
Loan (Rs.) ..	1,36,760	75,500	....	33,250	N. A.
Subsidy (Rs.) ..	33,168	88,960	....	7,895	N. A.
Share capital (Rs.) ..	27,010	38,000	....	11,830	6,93,752
Paid-up capital (Rs.) ..	3,65,265	4,44,480	66,420	1,19,764	N. A.
Reserve and other funds(Rs) ..	12,330	13,831	23,205	35,403	79,381
Working capital (Rs.)	16,25,604	17,17,723	6,17,574	3,94,562	40,38,396
Profit earned (Rs.) ..	58,486	1,36,911	23,443	36,765	N. A.
Loss sustained (Rs.) ..	87,251	3,13,242	35,058	36,061	N. A.

*Statistics of the Better Farming Society are not available.

Lift Irrigation Societies. Like co-operative farming societies, these societies also help to step up agricultural production. By 1964 there were ten purely Lift Irrigation Societies* working in the district while one service co-operative and two farming societies had also undertaken the lift irrigation scheme. These societies had undertaken different types of lift irrigation schemes. Of them eight were irrigation schemes, five were river irrigation schemes and one was a scheme for irrigation on a brook or *nala*. They had 352 members and an area of 2,636 acres under their command.

Gram Swarajya Societies. The Gram Swarajya Societies were formed mostly by the Adiwasis residing in Akrani and Akkalkuwa talukas. They are under the control of Satpuda Sarvodaya Mandal and are managed by Sarvodaya workers. By 1964 there were 28 Gram Swarajya Societies in Dhulia district, with 755 members.

Co-operative Dairy Societies. The dairy societies have been found to be very useful in providing supplementary occupation to the agriculturists. They assure the farmers a steady market for milk and the consumers a good quality

*In 1971-72 there were 11 irrigation societies with 712 members ; Rs. 3,51,418 as share capital and Rs. 11,75,098 as working capital.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Co-operative Dairy Societies.

milk. The primary dairy co-operative societies in this district were mainly organised in Dhulia, Shirpur and Shahada talukas. By 1963-64 there were 61 societies, the feeder societies, with 2125 members in the district.* Their paid-up and working capital was Rs. 5,58,778 and Rs. 3,98,999 respectively. During the same year, these societies supplied 23,19,180 litres of milk to the union as against 19,04,672 litres supplied to Government milk scheme.

Besides the dairy societies, talukawise milk producers' unions at Shirpur and Shahada and the District Milk Supply Union at Dhulia were also organised in this district. The main objects of a milk union are to make arrangements for disposal of milk and milk products of its members and member societies, to purchase and distribute cattle-feed to the members and to improve the quality of milk supplied to the consumers in the urban area. The following table gives the details of the co-operative unions and the feeder societies in Dhulia district during 1962-63 and 1963-64.

TABLE No. 9

Particulars	Unions		Feeder Societies	
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64
Number	3	3	39	61
Members—				
Societies	83	83	....	....
Individuals	50	63	1,304	2,125
Paid-up capital (Rs.) ..	15,150	35,730	42,435	83,500
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	4,481	4,844	1,459	2,453
Working capital (Rs.) ..	1,11,473	5,58,778	1,35,346	3,98,999
Milk collected (lbs.) ..	....	23,19,130	9,37,786	23,19,180
Quantity of milk produced (lbs.)	N.A.	N.A.	8,00,711	2,31,918
Quantity of milk supplied to unions (lbs.).	2,120	8,52,682	7,93,772	2,31,918
Profits (Rs.)	7,989	68,609	3,432	22,520
Losses (Rs.)	241	275	1,360	1,505

Crop Protection Societies. These societies which numbered 78 in 1964 in Dhulia district helped the members in protecting their crops from the ravage of stray cattle, wild pigs, thieves etc. During 1963-64, 2,65,018 acres of area under crop was saved from loss or destruction by these societies.

*In 1971-72 there were 446 animal husbandry societies with a membership of 21,887. Their share capital was Rs. 31,01,057 and working capital Rs. 1,87,18,996.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Cattle Breeding Societies.

By the end of 1963 there were six cattle breeding co-operative societies in Dhulia district. They had 212 members, 100 heads of cattle and Rs. 14,375 as their share capital.

Fisheries Co-operative Societies.

As Dhulia is not a coastal district only inland fisheries have some scope for development. By 1963-64 there were three fisheries societies with 207 members and Rs. 15,959 as working capital. During the same year they sold fish valued at Rs. 7,489.

Industrial Co-operatives.

Industrial co-operatives form an important part of the co-operative movement in the district. On account of the various activities carried on by them, they provide employment to a number of artisans and labourers. Organisation of industrial co-operative societies also helps the artisans in securing better wages especially in some industries such as handloom, tanning and leather working, exploitation of forest coupes and so on. Under the First and the Second Five Year Plans, therefore, the workers in these industries were encouraged to form their societies and substantial financial assistance was given to them for the development of the industry.

By 1964 there were 173 industrial co-operatives in Dhulia district as detailed below :—

Type		No.
(A) *Weavers' co-operatives*—		
1. Cotton Weavers' Co-operatives	...	18
2. Wool Weavers' Co-operatives	...	2
3. Powerloom Weavers' Co-operatives	...	7
4. Khadi Weavers' Co-operatives	...	5
(B) *Other Industrial Co-operatives*—		
1. Leather Workers' Societies	...	2
2. Tanners' Societies	...	1
3. Cane and Bamboo Workers' Societies	...	3
4. Carpentry and Smithy Societies	...	5
5. Oilmen's Societies	...	7
6. Metal Workers' Societies	...	9
7. Gur and Khandsari Manufacturers' Societies	...	22
8. Pottery and Brickmakers' Societies	...	7
9. Miscellaneous Societies	...	10
(C)—		
1. Forest Labourers' Societies	...	57
2. Labour Contract Societies	...	17
(D)—		
1. District Industrial Co-operative Association	...	1
Total	...	173

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Co-operative Movement.

Industrial Co-operatives.

The progress made by these societies can be seen from the following tables—

TABLE No. 10

PROGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Particulars	District Industrial Association		Weavers Co-operatives		Other Industrial Co-operatives	
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64
1 No. of Societies ..	1	1	31	32	68	72
2 No. of members ..	1,588	1,595	2,974	2,770	3,205	3,936
3 Paid-up Share Capital (Rs.)	33,894	34,105	1,83,581	2,12,895	2,04,070	10,60,247
4 Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	91,779	91,793	2,09,994	1,22,816	1,01,446	1,12,061
5 Borrowing from						
Government (Rs.) ..	....	....	1,12,916	1,60,579	42,521	3,26,656
Bank (,,) ..	1,64,238	1,24,232	65,771	1,60,579	1,23,073	4,71,590
Others (,,) ..	1,78,561	....	2,27,071	1,60,579	2,47,646	2,55,646
6 Working Capital (Rs.) ..	4,31,305	2,90,134	6,99,333	7,45,275	8,18,694	3,86,209
7 Value of goods produced (Rs.)	....	....	19,13,045	26,69,681	2,18,996	1,98,844
8 Value of goods sold (Rs.)	2,56,118	4,75,167	6,71,283	32,89,865	1,91,408	9,01,185
9 Profit earned (Rs.) ..	....	....	29,827	18,816	14,434	53,342
10 Loss sustained (Rs.) ..	....	4,100	1,83,399	....	22,499	74,804

TABLE No. 11

BREAK-UP OF THE INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES ALONG WITH THEIR WORKING IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1963-64

Serial No.	Type of society	No. of societies	No. of members	Share capital	Reserve and other funds	Loans		Working capital	Production	Sales	Wages paid
						Government	Bank				
1	Weavers' Co-operative Societies..	19	1,450	1,23,745	51,128	6,78,790	82,255	10,85,683	8,22,620	7,99,527	1,71,830
2	Wool-weavers' co-operative Societies.	9	335	7,430	2,575	....	....	27,618	46,988	46,638	7,247
3	Leather workers' Societies ..	4	..	..	..	....	....	....	21,438	26,466	4,197
4	Tanners' co-operative Societies ..	4	..	..	..	....	....	....	15,193	18,519	2,517
5	Rope making Societies ..	11	..	..	..	....	....	....	....	....	....
6	Oil mill Societies ..	8	169	24,891	5,222	....	....	1,05,261	....	4,21,548	60,223
7	Labour contract Societies ..	34	1,310	40,305	24,658	89,481	....	1,74,997	....	....	1,97,142
8	Forest Labourer's Societiy ..	1	206	1,415	254	....	....	....	....	....	....
9	Carpentry and Smithy Societies..	7	147	6,122	6,183	....	....	29,219	12,164	14,839	3,051
10	Cane and Bamboo workers' Societies	2	70	1,375	145	....	2,200	3,751	....	1,88,62	....
11	Pottery and brick making societies	11	383	15,011	562	....	21,334	48,899	58,983	48,644	21,903
12	Indutrial co-operative Association	1	264	17,080	2,805	32,753	5,000	73,440	....	1,56,686	....

Of these societies the Handloom Weavers' Co-operatives and the Forest Labourers' and Contract Societies form an important group. In Dhulia district, Dhulia and Shahada are the two main centres of the handloom industry having 1,496 and 138 handlooms respectively.

The Handloom Development Scheme sponsored by the Government of India aims at—

(1) Organisation of Handloom weavers' co-operative societies,

(2) Intensive development of the weavers co-operatives through grant of financial assistance in the form of loans, subsidies and rebates on the sale of handloom cloth.

(3) To raise the quality and quantity of the production and to make arrangement for marketing of the cloth.

(4) Ameliorating the social and economic conditions of the weavers.

There is also a scheme of converting handlooms into power-looms. Under this scheme the Shahada Taluka Weavers' Co-operative Society was given financial assistance in 1963-64 for installation of 15 powerlooms.

The other major types of societies include the Forest Labourers' societies and the Labour Contract Societies. The former play an important part for the allround advancement of the Adiwasis and the jungle folk while the latter help the skilled and unskilled labourers in securing technical help and executing work in a better way. The progress made by these two types of societies is given below :—

Particulars	Forest Labourers' Societies		Labour Contract Societies	
	1962-63	1963-64	1962-63	1963-64
Number of Societies ..	57	57	15	17
Number of members ..	6,329	6,585	626	657
Paid-up Capital (Rs.) ..	2,11,981	2,14,300	28,866	33,440
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	3,22,008	2,85,022	20,120	60,844
Number of societies to which coupes have been allotted.	57	54	....	....
No. of coupes exploited ..	106	108	....	....
Number of contracts ..	..	....	26	23
Wages paid to workers (Rs.) ..	67,060	3,56,952	5,340	10,05,050

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Co-operative Purchase and Sale Societies or Marketing Societies.

The marketing of agricultural produce forms the crux of our rural economy. It is the co-operative marketing which strengthens the position of cultivators as sellers by providing them with all marketing facilities and securing to them better prices and better returns. Naturally, the District and Taluka purchase and sale organisations play an important part in this respect.

By 1964 there were 15 marketing societies in Dhulia district, of which ten were Taluka co-operative purchase and sale societies, four were fruit selling societies and one was district marketing society. In addition to marketing of agricultural produce some of these societies undertake supply of fertilizers, cement, iron, steel, improved implements etc. Some of them even supply oil engines and pumping sets. During 1963-64 these societies supplied 1752 oil engines valued at Rs. 53,69,200 to the cultivators.

Processing Societies.

The scheme of organisation of processing societies contemplates to bring commodities like cotton, ground-nut, chilli, gur, etc. under the purview of co-operative processing and give financial assistance by way of share capital by establishing processing units through the co-operatives. If agricultural producers have their own co-operative processing unit, they can derive more profit. As marketing is clearly linked with processing, the development of processing through co-operative is of the utmost importance in the co-operative development plan. By 1964, there were three co-operative processing societies in the district. They included the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Society at Shirpur, the Gur and Khandsari Society at Shahada and the Oil Mill and Cotton Ginning and Pressing Society at Dondaicha. In addition, two Purchase and Sale societies have undertaken cotton ginning and pressing and oil milling work, nine agricultural multipurpose societies have undertaken oil-milling work and one agricultural multi-purpose society has undertaken rice milling. The State has liberally contributed towards the costs of the processing schemes.

Development of co-operative marketing and processing presupposes provision of adequate storage facilities. By 1964 there were 26 medium-sized and 142 small-sized and three large-sized godowns owned by the marketing and agricultural credit co-operatives with the financial assistance of the government.

Consumers' Societies.

If the co-operative marketing and co-operative processing are to develop and succeed, it is necessary that strong consumers movement is built up in every district. In the context of the present conditions, the consumers stores can play a vital role in holding the price line and in keeping a sustained flow of supplies at fair price to the consumer. By 1964 there were 24 primary consumers stores managed by 24 different types of consumers societies, with 3,680 members. They had a share capital of Rs. 1,28,170 and Reserve and other Funds to the tune of Rs. 1,43,553. Besides

primary societies, there is a wholesale consumers store in the district.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Consumers' Societies.

Under the direction of Government of India a centrally sponsored scheme offering liberal financial assistance has been formulated for the organisation and promotion of consumers stores in cities and in towns having a population of 50,000 or above. Immediate steps were accordingly taken to enrol the members and collect initial share capital to organise a central co-operative consumers stores for Dhulia ditsrict. It was registered on 15th August, 1963, and started its activities through its 9 branches in Dhulia city. It deals in all the essential commodities except cloth. By 1963 the store had a membership of 1,263 individuals and 19 member societies and its share capital from them amounted to Rs. 52,380 and Rs. 75,000 respectively. Besides the above stores, one consumers store in one industrial establishment, viz. the New Pratap Spinning, Weaving and Manufacturing Company Ltd., has been organised for industrial workers under the scheme mentioned above. In 1963, it had 1,057 members and its share capital was Rs. 10,570.

Co-operative Housing Societies.

Several co-operative housing schemes are under implementation in Dhulia district both in rural and urban areas. By 1964, there were 88 housing societies in the district, out of which 57 were meant exclusively for backward class people. The following table gives the working and statistics of these societies.

TABLE No. 12

STATISTICS OF CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING SOCIETIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Type of Society	No.	Membership	Share Capital	Reserve and other funds	Total No. of Tenements		
					Completed	Under Construction	To be completed
			Rs.	Rs.			
Scheduled Castes ..	14	446	25,010	670	171	56	292
Scheduled Tribes ..	36	1,258	17,495	1,255	210	..	229
Nomadic and Semi-nomadic tribes.	2	150	3,680	178	16	16	67
Vimukta Jatis ..	2	95	2,710	94	18	..	25
Other Backward Classes.	3	139	3,235	156	..	..	22
Mixed Co-operatives	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other than Backward Classes.	31	2,727	5,88,950	8,055	152	59	307

The Government has granted financial assistance to four societies in this district to the tune of Rs. 1,87,225. Out of this amount Rs. 1,77,755 were given as loan and Rs. 16,470 as subsidy.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Taluka Development Boards.

Taluka Development Boards were formed in the district to help the agriculturists get improved types of implements, seeds and manures and to advise them on matters relating to agricultural production. These Boards are also expected to carry out programmes relating to demonstration, public instruction and general welfare of the people in the district.

By 1964 there were only two Taluka Development Boards working in the district. They had 145 individuals as their members. During the same year they collected a subscription of Rs. 145 from the individuals and Rs. 52 from the societies.

Taluka Co-operative Supervising Unions.

The intention behind starting the Taluka Co-operative Supervising Unions is to give direction, advice and assistance to the agricultural and multi-purpose societies in the villages after a regular and careful inspection of their work. They supervise the societies affiliated to them and make their working effective. They also help the societies to raise loans from the Central Financing Agencies and also to recover the amounts due.

During 1963-64 there were ten Taluka Co-operative Supervising Unions working in the district. They had a membership of 880. The total strength of their supervisors was ten.

The Dhulia District Supervision Committee guides and exercises control over the supervisory staff in the district.

The District Co-operative Board, Dhulia, undertakes training and education in co-operatives by conducting classes at different places in the district.

Joint Stock Banks.

Till the close of the 19th century Dhulia district had no banking company and the money-lending class, therefore, dominated the economy of the district. The first in the field of finance to appear was the Imperial Bank of India, which established its branch at Dhulia in 1922. It was converted into the State Bank of India in July, 1955. Following its establishment, other banks, too, opened their branches at various places in the district. By 1965, there were 10 joint-stock banks in the district.* The names of these banks, their location and the date of their establishment are given below :—

Name	Location	Date of establishment
The State Bank of India.	Dhulia	1st July 1955
The State Bank of India	Dondaicha	30th April 1959
The State Bank of India	Nandurbar	26th September 1955
The State Bank of India	Shahada	29th February 1960
The State Bank of India	Shirpur	30th October 1957
The Bank of Maharashtra	Dhulia	20th August 1946
The Bank of Baroda	Dhulia	29th April 1961
The Bank of Baroda	Nandurbar	29th April 1961
The Punjab National Bank	Dhulia	12th March 1951
The Deokaran Nanjee Banking Company.	Nandurbar	30th September 1960

*There were 66 branches of various banks in March 1971, of which 27 were of scheduled banks and 39 of co-operative banks. They served a population of 4,12,909 from 30 villages and towns in the district.

CHAPTER 6.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Joint Stock Banks.

The State Bank of India has the largest number of branches. These branches are directly controlled by the Head Office at Bombay.

The State Bank acts as an agent to the Reserve Bank of India and conducts Government transactions. In addition, it provides remittance facilities to scheduled banks, co-operative banks and co-operative societies. Its main function, however, is to extend credit facilities to the people in rural and urban areas. The role of the Bank in respect of providing agricultural and rural credit facilities in the district at present consists of (*a*) financing agriculturists by way of advances to them against pledge of ornaments, (*b*) making advances against warehouse receipts and (*c*) making advances to co-operative and marketing societies by way of repledge of their stocks with the Bank.

Among the categories of loans and advances provided by the Bank the important are following :—

(1) *Loans against gold ornaments.*—This is the safest type of advance which provides financial assistance to all classes of people to overcome temporary difficulties. The rate of interest charged on such advances varies from 7 to 8¼ per cent. By 1964, the total advances against gold ornaments made by the Dhulia branch alone stood at about Rs. 1,50,000.

(2) *Overdraft or loans against Government securities.*—This, too, is regarded as a safe advance, which is granted against government securities at a rate of interest varying from 5½ to 6½ per cent.

(3) *Advances against pledge of produce and warehouse receipts.*—These are seasonal advances granted to merchants against acceptance of mercantile produce. They are renewed after six months or a year. Rate of interest charged is generally 6½ to 7½ per cent. Advances are also granted against warehouse receipts.

(4) *Hypothecation advance.*—This advance is granted to only well-known limited companies against hypothecation of goods and machinery at an interest of 6½ per cent per annum.

(5) In order to implement government policy of encouraging small-scale industries, the State Bank is taking active part in financing these industries on very moderate terms and conditions and at an interest rate varying from 6¼ per cent to 7¼ per cent.

The other joint stock banks in the district also provide the usual banking facilities to the public including the financing of trade and agriculture and storage and movement of agricultural produce. Their main object is to encourage the habit of banking especially in rural areas and to cater to the financial needs of rural population through their office. They receive deposits from the people and advance loans to them on securities. Rates of interest on advances differ according to the purpose for which the advances are made. Generally, loans without security are not favoured, and if made are for small sums and for short periods only. Interest rates in such cases range from 8 to 9 per cent per annum. Loans to industries are also given, the

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Joint Stock Banks.

rate of interest varying between 7 and 8 per cent. Advances to industries are given priority over advances to other types of customers. Besides the regular banking operations, the State Bank of India, Dhulia and the Punjab National Bank, Dhulia, provide facilities of safe deposit vaults.

The following table gives the security-wise analysis of advances granted by the banks as at the end of December 1963.

TABLE No. 13

SECURITY-WISE ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES GRANTED BY THE BANKS AS AT THE END OF DECEMBER 1963

DHULIA DISTRICT

Nature of Security	Number of Accounts	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances
I. *Secured Advances.*—			
(1) Government and Trustee securities.	504	5,57,000	4·0
(2) Shares and debentures of Joint Stock Companies.	3	23,000	0·2
(3) Gold and Silver bullion and ornaments.	120	1,21,000	0·9
(4) Merchandise.—			
(*a*) Agricultural commodities ..	128	70,71,000	51·4
(*b*) Non-agricultural commodities ..	23	34,89,000	25·4
(5) Real Estate	1	9,000	....
(6) Fixed Deposits	32	1,31,000	1·0
(7) Other Secured Advances. ..	27	7,11,000	5·2
Total ..	838	1,21,12,000	88·1
II. Unsecured advances ..	119	16,31,000	11·9
Total of I and II ..	957	1,37,43,000	100·0

Small Savings Schemes.

Small Savings is one of the schemes for raising money by borrowing internally to finance the Five-Year Plans of the country. The scheme also aims at meeting the needs of expenditure on defence. It thus serves the dual purpose of helping the defence and development of the country. At the same time it benefits the investor in realising the interest entirely free from any tax and getting welfare benefits of the plan.

The Small Savings scheme was started as a movement in India in 1945 with the intention of mopping up surplus purchasing power to fight the inflationary forces in the post-war years. The Planning Commission later on relied on it as an important means to finance its expenditure on capital schemes included in the Five-Year Plans. With the out-break of Sino-Indian war, the scheme has also been employed for building up the defences of the nation.

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Small Savings Schemes.

The Small Savings include the following categories—

(1) Post-Office Savings Deposits,
(2) 12-year National Defence Certificates,
(3) 10-year Defence Deposit Certificates,
(4) 15-Year Annuity Certificates,
(5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

Of these, the Post Office Savings Banks are an important source for the collection of small savings, especially from people of limited incomes. A saving bank account can be opened with a minimum deposit of Rs. 2 and subsequent deposits may be as low as Re. 1. The deposits earn interest at Rs. 4 per cent. per annum, free of income tax, on balances upto Rs. 25,000 in case of individual accounts and Rs. 50,000 in case of joint accounts. By 1964 there were as many as 28 sub-post offices and 72 branch offices doing the savings bank's work in the district. The accompanying table gives the details of their work including the investments, the net withdrawals and the bank balances every year from 1961-62 to 1963-64.

TABLE No. 14

STATISTICS OF THE POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS IN DHULIA DISTRICT (FROM 1961-62 TO 1963-64)

Description.	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
Number of Sub-post offices doing savings bank's work.	17	21	28
Number of branch offices doing savings bank's work.	23	24	72
Number of account holders at the end of the year.	23,360	24,019	25,037
Bank balances at the end of the year (Rs).	92,49,639·82	80,62,110·71	77,38,263·73
Investments during the year (Rs.).	73,93,629·24	50,80,292·69	52,32,897·27
Net withdrawals during the year (Rs.).	59,13,874·25	62,67,821·80	55,56,744·25

10-year Defence Deposit Certificates.

These certificates have replaced the old ten year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates which carried a 4 per cent interest free of income tax. The certificates are issued in denominations of Rs. 50 and multiples thereof and earn 4·5 per cent interest annually free of income-tax. They are available from all offices of the Reserve Bank of India, branches of the State Bank of India and its subsidiary banks, treasuries, sub-treasuries and Head and Sub-post offices.

The following statement gives the total subscriptions under both the Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates and Defence Deposit Certificates in Dhulia district from 1960-61 to 1962-63 and 1962-63 to 1963-64, respectively.

10-year Defence Deposit Certificates.

Period		10-Year T. S. D. Certificates. (Rs.)	10-Year Defence Deposit Certificates. (Rs.)
From August 1960 to February 1961	...	87,590	.....
From April 1961 to March 1962	...	1,29,910	.....
From April 1962 to October 1962	...	4,400	.....
From November 1962 to March 1963	...	.....	59,650
From April 1963 to March 1964	...	.....	24,300

15-Year Annuity Certificates.

These certificates are available in denominations of Rs. 1,330, Rs. 3,325, Rs. 6,650, Rs. 13,300 and Rs. 26,600 and guarantee a monthly payment, free of income-tax, of Rs. 10; 25; 50; 100 and 200 respectively for a period of 15 years. The return works out at 4·25 per cent. per annum compound. These certificates can be got from where the T. S. D. certificates are available. Investment in them ensures a steady income every month of a specific amount for 15 years. If the investor passes away during this period, the monthly annuity amount is paid to his legal heir. In case of joint holders, on the death of one, the monthly payment is made to the survivor. Till August 1965 the total subscriptions received from Dhulia district under the 15-year annuity certificates amounted to Rs. 1,58,480·00.

12-Year National Defence Certificates.

These certificates are issued in denominations of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 500, Rs. 1,000, Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 25,000. They are available at all post offices transacting savings bank business. The rate of interest carried by them is 6·25 per cent per annum simple at maturity and 4·75 per cent per annum compound. The interest, which is free of income-tax, begins to accumulate after the second year. Figures of total collections under these certificates are not available as these certificates have been introduced only recently.

The 12-year National Defence Certificates have replaced the 12-year National Plan Savings Certificates issued by the Government of India with effect from June 1957. The latter certificates yielded on maturity a return of 5·4 per annum simple interest and 4·25 per cent. per annum compound interest. The net collections under these certificates from 1961-62 to 1963-64 are as under :—

Year.		Net Collections under 12-Year National Plan Savings Certificate (Rs.)
1961-62	..	5,63,970·85
1962-63	..	4,38,853·10
1963-64	..	10,78,512·51

It should, however, be recalled that even prior to the introduction of 12–Year National Plan Savings Certificates the Government had

12-Year National Defence Certificates.

introduced 7-Year and 12 Year National Savings Certificates and the 10-Year National Plan Certificates. These certificates were discontinued with effect from June 1957. The investments in these certificates and the withdrawals from them from 1961-64 were as under :—

Year	Investments (Rs.).			Withdrawals (Rs.).		
	5-Year	7-Year	12-Year	5-Year	7-Year	12-Year.
1961-62 ...	...	...	1921900	492·00	8135·19	448973·19
1962-63 ...	...	...	1026415	43·00	Nil	276193·69
1963-64 ...	...	...	2000035	3304·25	8681·25	229057·88

The Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

This scheme was started with effect from 2nd January, 1959. It gives opportunity to small savers to provide for specific purposes such as marriage, education of children, building a house, etc. Under the scheme a deposit of Rs. 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 or 200 can be made at a post office every month for a period of 5 years, 10 years or 15 years. The limit on maximum monthly deposit is placed at Rs. 200 in case of a 5-Year or 10-Year deposit account and Rs. 300 in case of 15-Year deposit account. The total deposits during the entire period of the accounts shall not exceed Rs. 54,000 in case of single account and Rs. 1,08,000 in the case of joint accounts.

The return on cumulative time deposits is free of income-tax. The interest at maturity works out to about 3·3 per cent per annum compound on a 10-Year account and 4·3 per cent per annum on a 15-Year account.

In case of defaults in making regular payments, the date of maturity of the account is extended by the number of months for which defaults have occurred subject to a maximum of five defaults in a 5-Year account and ten defaults in a 10-Year account.

The deposits made into the 10-Year and 15-Year Cumulative Time Deposit accounts count for rebate of income-tax in the same manner as contribution to Provident Fund and Life Insurance premia and subject to the same limits. The total investment in these deposits in this district is not available.

Financial Assistance to Industries.

Industries were left to themselves prior to the period of Independence. Since Independence the Government has been encouraging industrial development through various measures. Whereas the major industries fall within the sphere of the centre, the development of medium and small-scale industries had been assigned to the States. The most important aspect of the State's programme for development of industries relates to encouraging small-scale and cottage industries through provision of training facilities for artisans in the use of improved tools and equipment, organisation of industrial co-operatives, encouragement to non-official institutions like the Bombay

Village Industries Board in conducting industries in rural areas and financial assistance to individual artisans and their co-operatives.

Besides the Industrial Finance Corporation of India established in 1948, the important agencies in the state which give financial assistance to industries are the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India, the National Industrial Development Corporation and the Maharashtra State Financial Corporation. These agencies sanction loans for rehabilitation and modernisation of industrial units.

A number of schemes have been in operation in Dhulia district under which financial assistance is granted by the State to artisans and their co-operative societies. According to the orders of the Government, finance required for long-term purposes by industrial co-operatives such as for purchase of tools and equipment and/or for machinery is to be provided by Government. The central financing agencies are generally requested to provide working capital for these industries either on the strength of their own funds or on the strength of marginal guarantee varying between 20 and 40 per cent given by the Joint Registrar of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries.

One of the schemes under which financial assistance is granted is governed by the State-aid to Small-scale and Cottage Industries Rules of 1935. Under these rules loans are granted to small-scale industries for the following purposes.

(1) Construction of building, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks and other works necessary for industrial operations and for purchase of land;

(2) Purchase and erection of machinery, plant and appliances;

(3) Purchase of raw materials;

(4) Working capital, and

(5) Purchase of fisheries equipment.

In 1955, the State Aid to Industries Rules of 1935, were amended in accordance with the Government's liberalised policy to give further fillip to the development of cottage and small-scale industries.

Some of the important changes introduced by the recent amendments are—

(1) Loans to small-scale industries will be granted by the Department of Industries upto Rs. 75,000 in each case and in exceptional cases upto Rs. 100,000.

(2) The former rate of 5½ per cent compound interest is brought down to 5 per cent. compound interest per annum subject to a stipulation that if the instalments are not paid in time a penalty of 0·50 per cent shall be levied on all amounts including the principal and interest of the period for which arrears are not paid.

(3) Loans are advanced to the extent of 75 per cent of the security offered instead of 50 per cent as provided in the earlier rules. Loans are given also against security of persons other than borrowers.

(4) The period of repayment of the loans on account of machinery and equipment is upto 10 years; such period in respect of that part of the loan which is meant for working capital would not ordinarily exceed five to seven years.

Financial assistance under these rules was given in this district as detailed below :—

Year	No. of units or individuals	Amount Sanctioned (Rs.)
1960-61	13	6,100
1961-62	—	—
1962-63	14	7,000
1963-64	136	50,000

During 1963-64 loans to the extent of Rs. 19,150 were also granted to 26 gold-smiths in the district under the State—aid to Industries Rules, 1961.

As a part of its development programme the Government grants loans to all types of industrial co-operative societies, such as Gur and Khandsari Societies, Carpentry and Smithy Societies, etc. This is done through the State Bank by way of cash credit and hypothecation. By 1960, five miscellaneous societies were granted Rs. 8,500 as loans and Rs. 4,100 as subsidies for purchase of tools and equipment.

The Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries has certain schemes of financial assistance to cottage and village industries. This assistance is granted to individual artisans and their co-operatives in the form of loans and subsidies. These schemes and assistance granted under them are given below:

(1) Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to educated unemployed persons and *bona fide* craftsmen for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital—Under this scheme financial assistance can be granted upto Rs. 3,000 to educated unemployed persons and upto Rs. 2,000 to trained as well as to hereditary artisans in the form of loans and subsidies. By 1960 Rs. 2,600 were distributed to 8 *bona fide* craftsmen in this district under the scheme.

(2) Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to Backward Class artisans for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital—Preference and concessions in this respect are given to those who are trained in Government's peripatetic schools or Government recognised institutions. The assistance

granted under this scheme to the individuals in this district is given below :—

Name of the Scheme	No. of Individuals	Amount of loans	Amount of subsidies
(1) Backward Class artisans ..	30	16,030	4,723
(2) Backward Class artisans trained in industrial and other schools.	15	3,975	255
(3) Scheduled caste artisans trained in peripatetic schools.	4	1,500	500

(3) Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to co-operative societies for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital—According to this scheme co-operative societies, one third at least of whose members are *bona fide* craftsmen can be granted financial assistance upto Rs. 5,000. Of this amount 50 per cent can be in the form of subsidy. To those co-operative societies, the majority of whose members come from backward class, loans are given free of interest. For the remaining societies, however, interest at 4½ per cent is charged.

Under this scheme financial assistance was given to the industrial co-operatives in the district detailed as below :—

Scheme	Up to 1960		1961-62		1962-63		1963.64	
	No. of Units	Amount (Rs.)	No. of Units	Amount (Rs.)	No. of Units	Amount (Rs)	No. of Units	Amount (Rs.)
Financial Assistance to Industrial Co-operatives including the co-operatives of handicraft workers.—								
(*a*) Management subsidy to industrial co-operatives.			N.A.	5,000	19	6,734	15	7,488-60
(*b*) Management subsidy to handicraft societies.			....	....	1	1,000	1	1,000
(*c*) Loans to industrial societies for tools and equipment.	5	8,500	....	....	5	2,000	2	5,000
(*d*) Subsidy to industrial societies for tools and equipment.	5	4,100	....	....	5	1,500	2	25,00
(*e*) Loans and subsidies to industrial workers for construction of godowns and sheds.			....	....	....	....	....	....
(*f*) Additional managerial subsidy to industrial societies of backward class people.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
(*g*) Interest subsidy to industrial societies on loans borrowed from the Central Financing Agencies.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Financial Assistance to all types of societies for working capital.	11	30,753	....	....	....	....	....	....

(4) *Tanning and Leather Industry Development Scheme.*—There is a large number of artisans in the Leather and Tanning industry in the district. By reason of a number of artisans possessing practical knowledge about the tanning of leather and other processes industrial societies were organised in this district. By 1960, there were five societies registered under this scheme in the district; out of them three were tanning and two were leather societies. Loans are granted to these societies. Loans are also granted to the individual artisans for the development of the industry.

(5) *Development of Handloom Industry.*—Handloom is one of the most important cottage industries in the district. For the development of this industry financial assistance in the form of loans is granted for the purchase of improved tools and appliances and grants are given for opening sales depots, plying mobile vans for the sale of handloom cloth, establishment of dyeing, bleaching finishing and calendering plants, setting up model production centre, etc. The societies are sanctioned rebate to promote their sales. Additional rebates are also sanctioned during the "Handloom or Handicraft week". The societies, again, are provided yarn at concessional rates through the District Industrial Co-operative Association. As a result the number of weavers' societies increased over a period of years. By 1963-64, there were 32 societies of weavers in the district. The following statement gives the financial assistance to them under the scheme mentioned above.

Purpose	Number of Societies	Loans	Subsidies
		Rs.	Rs.
Purchase of tools and equipment and for share contribution.	2	62,480	2,462
Dye House	2	3,300	....
Share Capital	1	300	....

Financial Assistance to Agriculture.

Even though circumstances have changed since the inception of the Five-Year Plans it cannot be denied that the Indian farmer does not enjoy a comfortable position in the overall economy of the country. He is more poor than backward. The needs of the agriculturist require to be tackled in the direction of providing him with monetary assistance that may enable him to improve the condition of agriculture and thereby improve his economic status. This was realised long back but adequate steps were not taken to give relief to the agriculturist except during famine years when agriculturists were given certain concessions in land-tax or doles.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Financial Assistance to Agriculture.

Before the advent of the British rule in India, some financial assistance was provided to the agriculturist under the system of Tagai to tide over years of famine or drought. The system was gradually extended to embrace normal years. Under the British administration a number of acts were passed betwen 1871 and 1879 authorising the Government to grant tagai loans to needy agriculturists. Substantial financial assistance, however, was granted only after the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884 came in force. The former Act is broadly concerned with long-term loans while the latter deals with short-term accommodation.

Land Improvement Loans' Act, 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage or reclamation or its protection from floods or erosion. The Collector, Prant Officers, and Mamlatdars are authorised under this Act to grant loans, each to a specific extent and to charge on all loans an interest at the rate of 8·50 per cent, *i.e.*, 16 pies (*i.e.*, 8 paise) per rupee per annum. Since the introduction of the Community Development Programme in the country, the Block Development Officer became the chief dispenser of *tagai* loans to the agriculturist. The loan is given when the grantor is satisfied as to the security with a margin of safety. When the value of the applicant's interest in the land to be improved clearly covers the amount of the loan with interest as also the cost which is likely to be incurred in making the same, collateral security is not required. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loan if the amount advanced is large. Personal security may be accepted, even that of one person, provided that his solvency is assured.

Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

Under this Act loans may be granted to holders of arable lands for (a) purchase of seed, pesticides, fodder, agricultural stock, agricultural implements or cattle, etc., (b) rebuilding houses destroyed by fire, flood or any other calamity, (c) maintenance of cultivators while engaged in sowing or tilling their lands prior to the next crop, (d) any other purpose not specified in the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883, connected with agricultural objects. Collectors, Prant Officers, Tahsildars and Block Development Officers are authorised to grant loans upto specified limits. Loans above Rs. 2,500 have to be referred to the government for approval. Interest at 8½ per cent *i.e.*, 16 pies (*i.e.*, 8 paise) per rupee per annum is charged on all loans, but Government on special recommendations of the collector may in particular cases authorise a reduced rate or charge no interest at all. Terms as regards security are the same as under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

Besides these Acts, *tagai* loans are also given under the Grow More Food campaign and other projects launched by the Government to step up production. The following tables give in detail the amount of *tagai* loans granted to the cultivators for different

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purposes. They also indicate the total period involved in the operation of distributing the loans since they were sanctioned by the Government.

The following tables give the tagai advances and outstanding balances under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884, from 1893-94 to 1902-03 and from 1911-12 to 1921-22.

TABLE No. 15

TAGAI ADVANCES, COLLECTIONS AND OUTSTANDING BALANCES IN KHANDESH DISTRICT (1893-94-1902-03)*

Year	Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883			Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884		
	Advances	Collections	Outstanding balances	Advances	Collections	Outstanding balances
1893-94	4,500	565	7,381	6,101	6,489	19,160
1894-95	11,800	1,311	17,870	9,054	7,224	20,655
1895-96	23,000	2,807	38,063	13,884	8,030	26,508
1896-97	1,52,165	5,330	1,84,497	58,754	8,137	77,018
1897-98	6,475	37,179	1,53,793	46,910	59,969	63,959
1898-99	13,000	34,473	1,32,177	12,787	21,848	55,033
1899-00	2,57,750	18,627	3,71,301	7,22,309	3,358	7,73,482
1900-01	49,475	78,257	3,42,434	5,72,681	1,57,766	11,83,925
1901-02	1,24,010	71,133	2,95,311	2,94,593	3,88,519	10,82,039
1902-03	31,518	76,466	2,47,107	78,735	3,96,117	5,56,047

*Adopted from the Gazetteer (Supplementary) of the Bombay Presidency Vol. XII—B. Khandesh and Mehwa's Estates, 1905-P. 17.

TABLE No. 16

TAGAI ADVANCES, COLLECTIONS AND OUTSTANDING BALANCES IN WEST KHANDESH DISTRICT FROM 1911-12 TO 1921-22

Year	Advances	Collections	Outstanding Balances
1911-12	1,15,015	96,134	2,62,321
1912-13	1,03,757	1,12,566	2,51,925
1913-14	84,998	1,22,366	2,14,102
1914-15	55,238	87,040	1,94,271
1915-16	15,141	92,187	1,28,584
1916-17	14,377	69,317	86,716
1917-18	13,410	44,099	62,007
1918-19	9,83,788	7,142	10,38,173
1919-20	88,959	4,07,200	7,29,932
1920-21	80,129	65,128	7,13,799
1921-22	2,70,092	2,84,720	16,54,816

*Gazetteer (Supplementary) of Bombay Presidency, Vol. XII-B Khandesh (East and West) and Mehwa's Estates, 1926-P. 72.

Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

TABLE No. 17

ADVANCES OF TAGAI FOR VARIOUS PURPOSES IN DHULIA DISTRICT FROM 1946-47 TO 1955-56

Year	For Wells	For Land Improvement	For Bullocks	Total
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1946-47 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	3,76,622
1947-48 ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	9,13,126
1948-49 ..	16,69,002	1,05,558	15,31,257	33,05,817
1949-50 ..	11,88,447	3,00,151	15,18,203	30,46,801
1950-51 ..	4,01,227	3,41,685	8,28,004	15,64,916
1951-52 ..	....	....	....	....
1952-53 ..	1,68,040	2,10,912	5,93,741	9,72,693
1953-54 ..	2,08,331	3,25,455	4,39,941	9,73,727
1954-55 ..	2,09,343	3,25,637	4,49,833	9,84,813
1955-56 ..	2,09,400	3,26,600	4,49,900	9,85,900

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TABLE No. 18

LOANS UNDER LAND IMPROVEMENT LOANS ACT, 1883 IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Year	Applications pending at the beginning of the year	Amount involved in col. 2 (Rs.)	No. of applications received during the year	Amount applied for by these applications (Rs.)	No. of applications sanctioned	Total amount involved in col. 6 (Rs.)	Total amount actually sanctioned (Rs.)	Total amount actually disbursed during the year (Rs.)	Total loans repaid during the year (Rs.)	Total loans outstanding (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1957-58 ..	21	5,810	3,171	81,21,819	1,089	61,28,100	28,20,116	28,20,116	1,76,789	26,43,327
1958-59 ..	40	1,56,614	2,052	24,38,400	1,085	13,55,234	1,14,11,464	11,41,464	2,73,243	8,68,221
1959-60 ..	107	5,63,127	2,783	64,16,938	1,647	49,43,184	19,01,155	19,01,155	2,25,908	16,75,247
1960-61 ..	371	80,640	2,546	59,18,370	1,111	35,95,215	17,58,995	19,58,995	2,82,483	14,76,512
1961-62 ..	360	1,14,640	752	5,24,830	543	3,96,930	3,95,830	3,84,230	2,58,424	1,25,806
1962-63 ..	60	234	200	9,68,050	162	7,68,430	5,77,005	5,77,005	5,40,356	36,649
1963-64 ..	....	....	165	2,52,700	142	2,12,700	2,12,700	2,12,700	14,443	98,257

TABLE No. 19

LOANS UNDER AGRICULTURISTS' LOANS ACT, 1884, IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Year	Applications pending at the beginning of the year	Amount involved in col. 2 (Rs.)	No. of applications received during the year	Amount applied for by these applications (Rs.)	No. of applications sanctioned	Total amount involved in col. 6 (Rs.)	Total amount actually sanctioned (Rs.)	Total amount actually disbursed during the year (Rs.)	Total loans repaid during the year (Rs.)	Total loans outstanding (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1957-58 ..	184	1,630	6,323	20,96,266	1,653	10,42,093	9,29,746	9,29,746	3,71,415	6,18,331
1958-59 ..	425	1,22,662	7,205	21,14,265	4,951	14,37,312	7,91,511	7,91,511	3,41,038	5,50,473
1959-60 ..	638	62,189	5,996	16,23,785	4,238	8,52,295	5,87,677	5,87,677	2,29,950	3,57,727
1960-61 ..	231	70,290	6,710	25,74,810	4,534	16,54,001	11,44,956	11,44,956	1,20,665	10,24,291
1961-62 ..	380	1,53,700	18,282	71,92,800	14,782	45,89,400	38,49,140	24,49,140	1,19,275	23,29,865
1962-63 ..	378	1,41,600	37,718	8,06,750	11,017	24,36,250	8,05,882	8,05,882	4,43,463	3,62,419
1963-64 ..	15	10,574	5,921	4,20,320	3,278	5,02,231	5,02,231	5,02,231	4,61,231	4,56,108

TABLE No. 20

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE UNDER GROW MORE FOOD CAMPAIGN IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Year	Applications pending at the beginning of the year	Amount involved in col. 2 (Rs.)	Number of applications received during the year	Amount applied by these applications (Rs.)	Number of applications sanctioned	Total amount involved in col. 6 (Rs.)	Total amount actually sanctioned (Rs.)	Total amount actually disbursed during the year (Rs.)	Total loans repaid during the year (Rs.)	Total loans outstanding (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1957-58 ..	....	....	3,040	6,51,500	1,520	2,46,100	1,50,725	4,725	....	4,725
1958-59 ..	....	....	3,250	3,15,000	1,610	79,500	18,815	18,815	12,626	6,189
1959-60 (loans) ..	....	....	2,500	3,40,000	1,701	1,74,700	91,832	91,832	27,965	63,867
(cash)	....	....	150	1,500	100	12,500	12,500	12,500	....	12,500
1960-61 (loans) ..	....	....	950	26,000	501	13,700	12,332	12,332	8,340	3,992
(cash) ..	....	....	150	15,000	100	12,500	12,500	12,500	....	12,500
1961-62 (loans) ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
(cash) ..	....	....	14	7,000	2	1,000	1,000	....	....	....
1962-63 (loans) ..	....	....	40	25	11	2,900	1,360	500	500	....
1963-64 (loans) ..	200	10,000	....	10,000	....	....	....	....	....	....

TABLE No. 21

DURATION OF THE LOANS, DISTRICT DHULIA

Period	1957-58		1958-59		1959-60		1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64	
	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.	No. of applications	Amount Rs.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Less than 3 months ..	....	....	350	1,30,426	450	4,06,288	586	3,38,615	....	....	....	....	43	57,900
3 to 6 months ..	274	1,26,018	231	2,86,950	359	52,700	285	69,215	820	3,21,705	729	3,43,705	18	5,950
6 to 9 months ..	173	2,000	309	56,395	158	24,150	270	39,363	141	55,900	102	17,600	34	1,260
9 to 12 months ..	52	5,425	519	30,460	213	12,672	2	200	....	....	26	3,310	84	1,14,050
1 to 2 years ..	107	7,035	....	....	117	3,340	....	....	423	43,500	212	25,475	10	2,150
2 to 3 years ..	439	70,882	300	35,000	300	30,000	200	50,000	150	25,000	564	1,57,662	75	7,000
3 to 4 years ..	122	38,050	615	1,89,487	550	1,55,235	159	1,04,481	794	3,28,075	55	75,700	227	74,350
4 to 5 years ..	400	1,32,616	159	3,70,245	137	1,44,796	13	43,436	239	87,900	392	4,53,595	419	1,35,000
5 years and above ..	488	1,72,850	385	1,14,805	232	96,647	1,400	6,10,700	283	22,800	....	....	233	62,550
Those who have not stated the duration.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Total ..	2,055	5,54,876	2,868	12,13,768	2,516	9,25,828	2,915	12,56,010	2,850	8,84,880	2,080	10,77,047	1,243	4,60,210

TABLE No. 22

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PURPOSES (FROM 1957-58 TO 1963-64)

Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 Rs.	Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884 Rs.	Financial assistance to agriculture under Grow More Food Campaign		Any other loans for project area under P. L. Act Rs.	Financial assistance by other Government Departments	
			Loans Rs.	Cash subsidies Rs.		Loans Rs.	Subsidies Rs.
1 Current Farm Expenditure—							
Seed—							
1957-58	....	725	....	....	5,330	....	....
1958-59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	920	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	1,09,674	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Fodder—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	1,875	....	....
1958-59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Manure—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	1,375	....	....
1958-59	....	....	3,815	....	40,185	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

TABLE No. 22—*contd.*

Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 Rs.	Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884 Rs.	Financial Assistance to agriculture under Grow More Food Campaign — Loans Rs.	Financial Assistance to agriculture under Grow More Food Campaign — Cash subsidies Rs.	Any other loans for project area under P. L. Act Rs.	Financial assistance by other Government Departments — Loans Rs.	Financial assistance by other Government Departments — Subsidies Rs.
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Farm—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	90,582	....	....
1958-59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Implements—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	50	....	9,320	12,500	41,005	....	....
1960-61	....	....	200	....	1,37,190	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	50,000	....	....
1962-63	....	....	860	....	82,900	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	10,900	....	....
2 Purchase of Draught Animals—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	87,700	....	....	....	1,81,771	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	1,40,650	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	2,74,520	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	1,29,225	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	1,00,362	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	70,850	....	....
3 Well-digging and other Irrigation projects—							
1957-58	61,750	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	15,789	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	1,40,280	....	....	....	....	....	375
1960-61	75,390	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
4 Land Improvement—							
1957-58	4,285	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	54,674	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	4,30,038	....	....	....	....	....	....
1960-61	3,52,465	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	3,35,780	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	3,92,730	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
5 Consumption—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	....	....	....	....	620	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	1,050	....	....
1960-61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1962-63	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
6 Other purposes—							
1957-58	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1958-59	72,472	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959-60	....	....	....	....	....	....	16,000
1960-61	....	....	....	....	3,27,570	2,10,500	78,439
1961-62	....	....	....	....	....	53,520	....
1962-63	8,475	....	....	....	....	....	....
1963-64	....	....	....	....	1,19,980	....	....

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Financial Assistance to Agriculture.

TABLE No. 23

TIME-LAG BETWEEN DATE OF APPLICATION AND DISBURSEMENT OF TAGAI LOANS, DISTRICT DHULIA (FROM 1957-58 TO 1963-64)

Period	Number of Applications						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	1,200	1,270	880	685	902	1,414	678
Less than 1 month ..	585	1,504	1,433	2,355	1,485	426	230
1 to 2 months ..	386	400	295	294	563	198	196
2 to 3 months ..	396	245	62	200	193	246	44
3 to 4 months ..	363	161	85	122	65	112	59
4 to 5 months ..	188	13	11	204	215	73	83
5 to 6 months ..	73	..	332	184	241	15	14
6 to 7 months ..	181	109	158	190	109	3	66
7 to 8 months ..	113	..	112	80	1	..	..
Over 8 months ..	105	..	117	..	..	..	..
Unascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	3,579	3,702	3,485	4,314	3,774	2,487	1,370

Period	Amount Applied for (Rs.)						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	15,950	4,54,954	3,15,541	2,71,035	1,93,190	6,11,617	2,24,200
Less than 1 month ..	2,07,519	12,33,389	5,96,210	10,18,121	6,87,805	2,10,080	84,925
1 to 2 months ..	2,12,841	1,30,700	73,000	1,92,840	68,000	90,300	18,200
2 to 3 months ..	59,921	23,800	42,000	34,070	78,000	99,650	1,800
3 to 4 months ..	48,100	40,265	15,300	55,150	21,550	7,140	18,575
4 to 5 months ..	80,805	13,150	1,640	1,55,790	44,650	13,175	13,250
5 to 6 months ..	40,150	..	35,395	51,235	89,625	2,450	2,350
6 to 7 months ..	73,350	16,625	24,150	17,150	20,475	475	10,725
7 to 8 months ..	1,11,718	..	3 340	22,215	600	..	..
Over 8 months ..	15,000	..	3 340	..	..	..	..
Not ascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	8,65,354	19,12,883	11,09,916	18,17,606	12,00,895	10,34,887	3,74,025

Period	Amount Disbursed (Rs.)						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	10,950	4,54,954	3,15,541	2,71,035	1,93,190	6,11,617	2,23,505
Less than 1 month ..	2,07,519	12,12,526	5,84,498	10,18,121	6,87,255	2,10,080	84,925
1 to 2 months ..	2,12,841	1,30,700	62,300	1,79,550	68,000	90,300	18,200
2 to 3 months ..	59,921	23,800	27,000	34,050	75,000	99,650	1,800
3 to 4 months ..	48,100	40,268	15,300	55,150	19,550	7,140	18,575
4 to 5 months ..	80,805	13,150	1,640	1,55,790	44,400	13,175	13,250
5 to 6 months ..	40,150	....	35,395	51,235	89,625	2,450	2,350
6 to 7 months ..	75,350	16,625	24,150	17,150	20,300	475	10,625
7 to 8 months ..	1,11,718	..	3,340	22,215	150	..	..
Over 8 months ..	15,000	..	3,340	..	..	..	..
Unascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	8,65,354	18,92,020	10,72,504	18,04,296	11,97,470	10,34,887	3,73,230

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Financial Assistance to Agriculture.

TABLE No. 23—*contd.*

TIME-LAG BETWEEN THE DATE OF APPLICATION FOR TAGAI LOANS AND THE DATE OF SANCTION (FROM 1957-58 TO 1963-64) DHULIA DISTRICT

Period	Number of Applications						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	1,600	2,025	1,285	1,700	1,414	1,265	..
Less than 1 month ..	637	1,037	1,024	1,145	1,501	740	1,005
1 to 2 months ..	712	755	238	615	718	314	549
2 to 3 months ..	393	439	975	550	278	246	313
3 to 4 months ..	286	118	122	282	65	110	54
4 to 5 months ..	201	213	204	201	215	110	59
5 to 6 months ..	33	88	184	332	241	15	83
6 to 7 months ..	52	156	190	158	139	3	14
7 to 8 months ..	113	459	142	112	1	..	65
Over 8 months ..	105	..	..	317	..	..	..
Not ascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	4,132	5,290	4,364	5,412	4,572	2 803	2,142

Period	Amount applied for (Rs.)						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	196 1-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	2,80 000	7,92,000	2,80,000	3,65,000	2,07,000	..	..
Less than 1 month ..	2,13,535	5,34,732	4,80,840	20,71,490	7,37,530	5,83,010	2,50,460
1 to 2 months ..	2,50,590	2,05,070	4,21,140	1,96,640	2,26,050	3,82,120	1,39 225
2 to 3 months ..	1,42,905	75,158	7,63,051	1,41,915	1,27,600	1,53,150	58,130
3 to 4 months ..	58,295	80,762	1,39,655	31,670	19,500	1,53,000	8,400
4 to 5 months ..	60,400	67,307	8,85,006	13,195	42,650	1,12,040	20,200
5 to 6 months ..	1,21,750	10,000	62,850	28,670	75,825	19,095	14,400
6 o 7 months ..	99,750	14,600	20,060	24,150	60,725	4,300	2,500
7 to 8 months ..	15,000	45,000	30,300	3,340	600	600	21,000
Over 8 months ..	15,950	..	..	3,340	..	..	..
Not ascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	12,58,175	18,24,629	30,82,902	28,80,010	14,97,480	14,12,315	5,14,315

Period	Amount sanctioned (Rs.)						
	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
On the same day ..	2,07,519	5,88,639	2,71,035	3,15,541	1,93,190	..	..
Less than 1 month ..	1,45,816	3,36,366	3,95,721	4,22,781	65,525	5,29,380	1,97,705
1 to 2 months ..	1,68,992	1,51,175	3,21,300	1,31,000	65,525	3,07,980	96,825
2 to 3 months ..	69,371	11,362	4,84,510	1,21,287	1,15,000	1,04,367	23,100
3 to 4 months ..	37,975	73,677	1,39,655	26,650	19,500	99,650	4,800
4 to 5 months ..	84,150	61,875	75,790	11,640	42,400	7,140	18,575
5 to 6 months ..	21,868	7,625	54,835	36,670	68,825	13,670	13,250
6 to 7 months ..	84,225	13,270	17,150	24,150	20,300	2,450	235
7 to 8 months ..	15,000	38,995	29,155	3,340	150	475	10,625
Over 8 months ..	..	..	..	3,340	..	..	..
Not ascertainable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	8,45,866	13,22,884	17,89,151	10,97,399	5,90,415	10,65,082	3,67,230

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Joint-stock Companies.

The modern joint-stock companies have evolved from purely proprietary or partnership type of concerns. Owing to the expansion of trade and industry, the element of risk involved in business has also grown considerably. Under a joint-stock company a number of merchants come together and share this risk jointly. This factor has been instrumental for the increase in the number of joint-stock concerns and their size.

The jont-stock companies are divided into two kinds *viz.*, the Private Limited Companies and the Public Limited Companies. The main features constituting a Private Limited Company are—

(1) The number of members of such a company shall not be less than two or exceed 50 and the maximum is not to include employees or ex-employees who may be share-holders.

(2) The shares of a Private Limited Company are not transferable without the sanction of the Board of Directors.

(3) A Private Company is not allowed to make an appeal for public subscriptions either for its shares or debentures.

Apart from this a Private Limited Company is a convenient device for the systematic pursuit of small and medium-scale industrial or commercial enterprise.

When a Private Limited Company, however, grows beyond a certain size, it is beneficial to convert it into a Public Limited Company. The latter has the facility of making an appeal for public subscription for its shares or debentures and complying with a large number of legal requirements it also protects the interests of the investing public.

There was not a single joint-stock company in Dhulia district till World War I. The first Joint-stock company in the district was a Cotton Ginning and Pressing factory established in 1919 with its registered office at Nandurbar. Most of the other companies in the district came up during and after World War II. By the beginning of 1959 there were in all 13 joint-stock companies in Dhulia district, out of which 6 were private and 7 were public companies. The total authorised capital of the private companies was Rs. 16,25,000 while their paid up capital amounted to Rs. 5,72,000. The corresponding figures for the public limited companies were Rs. 63,00,000 and Rs. 33,18,189, respectively. The average authorised capital per company was Rs. 6,09,615.

Insurance.

Before the establishment of the Life Insurance Corporation all the insurance business in Dhulia district was in the hands of private companies. The Life Insurance Corporation was established by the Government of India under the statutory Act of 1956. This was done with a view to nationalising the business of life insurance

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Insurance.

in the country and delegating to the corporation the sole agency of transacting it. General insurance including marine, fire, accident and other insurance, however, remained with the private companies.

Under the new organisational set-up of the Corporation, Dhulia district comes within the territorial jurisdiction of the Nasik Division of the Western Zone. By the end of 1963 the total number of policies issued in the district amounted to 24,937 and the sum assured under them to Rs. 8,73,83,430*. The total number of agents as on 31st December, 1963 was 698. The following table gives the total business proposed and the target achieved by the Life Insurance Corporation in Dhulia district since 1st September, 1958.

TABLE No. 24.

STATISTICS OF THE TOTAL INSURANCE BUSINESS PROPOSED AND COMPLETED BY LIC IN DHULIA DISTRICT FROM 1956 TO 1962

Year	Business Proposed		Business Completed	
	No. of proposals	Sum Assured	No. of policies	Sum Assured
*1956	945	22,27,462	535	12,72,700
*1957	3,183	82,20,500	2,417	67,03,300
1958	3,217	81,10,000	2,707	72,76,000
1959	3,983	1,16,14,400	3,375	1,00,47,500
1960	4,555	1,30,40,100	4,113	1,15,67,550
1961	5,065	2,15,33,150	4,305	1,85,96,500
1962	4,116	1,82,59,900	3,409	1,30,35,750

*The statistics are from 1st September 1956 to 31st December 1956.

For the years 1956 and 1957, the statistics are for both Dhulia and Dangs districts. Figures for Dangs district, however, are negligible.

The total amount of premia collections in the district is given below.

Period		Premia Collections
1-9-56 to 31-12-56	..	39,543·00
1957	..	3,26,942·00
1958	..	6,46,836·00
1959	..	8,88,508·00
1-1-60 to 30-4-60	.	2,16,726·91

*During 1971-72, 5,757 insurance policies were issued and an amount of Rs. 47,28,5,000 was insured.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Extent of Employment.

SECTION II—TRADE AND COMMERCE

Dhulia is affluent in trade and commerce. Being an assembling as well as distributing centre of trade, there is a large number of businessmen and traders at Dhulia and towns like Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Shahada, Taloda, Nawapur and Shirpur. Table below gives the statistics of sales workers as defined in the Census of India, 1961, Maharashtra [Vol. X, Part II-B (II)-General Economic Tables].

TABLE No. 25.

EMPLOYMENT IN TRADE AND COMMERCE IN DHULIA DISTRICT IN 1961

Category	Total	Males	Females
Working proprietors, wholesale trade ..	1,152	1,148	4
Working proprietors, retail trade ..	4,443	3,999	444
Commercial travellers	343	338	5
Manufacturers' agents	246	242	4
Salesmen and shop assistants, wholesale trade	7,549	6,524	1,025
Hawkers, pedlars and street vendors ..	3,618	2,010	1,608
Salesmen, shop assistants and related workers(not elsewhere classified).	870	827	43
Total Sales workers*	18,429	15,290	3,139

*Total sales workers include insurance and real estate salesmen; salesmen of securities and services, auctioneers, money-lenders and pawn brokers, besides the categories mentioned above.

This table also covers all "workers engaged in any capacity in wholesale or retail trading activity and commercial transactions relating to imports and exports....."

Trade Routes.

Routes in Hindu Period:

It seems quite probable from the early rock-cut remains at Ajanta, Patan (near Chalisgaon), Chandor and Nasik that the trade routes between north and south India passed through Khandesh as far back as the second and first centuries before Christ. The author of the *Periplus* (247 A.D.) mentions that trade crossed Khandesh from Broach to Paithan on the Godavari and to Tagara.* If the statement of the author of the Periplus that Tagara lay ten days to the east of Paithan is correct, the trade route from Broach probably passed eastwards through Khandesh, leaving the district either near Patan or near Ajanta. The route was passable for goods traffic.

Routes during Muslim Period (1300–1760):

The rich cave and temple remains at Ajanta, Patan, and Chandor seem to show that till the Musalman conquest (1300), the passes in the Satmala hills continued to be the highways of an important

* McCrindle's *Periplus*, 125-26.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

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Trade Routes.

traffic. Under the early Musalmans, the route by the Barvan or Sukaldevi pass from Malwa to Khandesh rose to importance. In 1306 Malik Kafur, at the south entrance of this pass, established the city of Sultanpur, and during the rest of the fourteenth century, this route by Sultanpur, Nandurbar, Visarvadi and Songir, would seem to have been one of the regular lines of communication with Upper India and Gujarat.[1] Probably there was also during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the time of the greatest splendour of the Musalman dynasty of Ahmedabad, a line of traffic to north Gujarat and the coast along the north bank of the Tapi, and from Malwa through Kukarmunda over the Buvaka or Chandseli passes to Rajpipla.[2] Two other lines must have been of special importance when Asirgad was the capital of Khandesh.[3] Of these one runs north and south, from north and central India through the Simrol pass by Asirgad to Ajanta and the south; the other runs west to the coast, the route known as the Asirgad road, through Burhanpur, Savda, Jalgaon, Paldhi, and Borkhand, to Nasik and the Thal pass.

During the seventeenth and the first half of the eighteenth centuries, when Burhanpur was at the height of its power and Surat was the chief port of Western India, the bulk of the great traffic between the inland countries and the coast passed through Khandesh. The European travellers of the seventeenth century describe the main route as passing from east of Surat through Navapur, Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Sindkheda, Thalner, Chopda, Sangvi, and Nhavi, to Burhanpur[4]. A second very important route lay from Surat to Navapur, and then struck south through Pimpalner, Nimpur, and the Patan pass, to Golkonda.[5]

Routes during 1818–1880:

During the early years of this century the trade of Khandesh almost came to a standstill. At the beginning of British rule there were no made roads. 'The tracks were ill-appointed and deficient in everything but discomfort and danger. Few and far between were the miserable hamlets, and the mountain passes were as rugged and impracticable as their fierce possessors'.[6] In 1826 the chief routes were from Dhulia as a centre, 155 miles north by Songir and Thalner, through the Sindva pass to Mandleshvar and Mhow; north-east by Amalner, Chopda, and the Dhaulibari pass, seventy-three miles to Dhulkot; east by Parola, Erandol, and Savda, 103 miles to Burhanpur; south-east by Bhadgaon and Pachora, eighty-four miles to Ajanta; south by Mehunbara and the Gavtala pass to Aurangabad; south-west by Malegaon, Chandor, Nasik, and the Thal pass, 179 miles

[1] Lee's *Ibn Batuta* (1341).
[2] Captian Clunes' *Itinerary*, 89.
[3] Besides its legendary importance, Asirgad was the chief place in Khandesh before the Musalman conquest, and afterwards under the Faruki kings before Burhanpur was established (1400).
[4] Sir T. Roe (1615) in Kerr's *Voyages*, IX, 256; Tavernier (1660) in Harris' *Voyages*, II 352.
[5] Tavernier in Harris' *Voyages*, II. 359.
[6] Graham's *Bhil Tribes*, 1.

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to Bhiwandi, a route passable for every sort of laden cattle; and west by Pimpalner and Navapur to Surat. For many years the only one of these tracks on which money and labour were spent was the great Bombay-Agra trunk road by the Thal pass, Nasik, Malegaon, Dhulia, Songir, Nardana, Dabhasi, Dahivad, and the Palasner or Sindva passs. The road enters Khandesh near the Dhulia village of Jhodga, and running north passes through Virdel crossing the Tapti at Savalda where there is a ferry. It then runs due north through Shirpur until it reaches the Khandesh boundary in the centre of the Satpudas near the fort of Borghar. In 1853-54, some progress was made in improving the cross roads of the district. About one hundred miles of fair weather roads were built at a cost of Rs. 9,880.[1] But until 1863 the main Agra highway used most of the funds set apart for road-making in Khandesh. Since the levy of a special cess for local works, road-building has made rapid progress. At Songir, on the Agra road about twelve miles north of Dhulia, a much used line, passes north-west through Dangurna, Chimthana and Methi, and Vikran, twenty-four miles to Dondaicha. South from Dhulia, a road, gravelled, drained, and bridged except over the Girna, runs thirty-four miles to Chalisgaon station, and from Chalisgaon is continued seven miles south, through the Outram or Ranjangaon pass, to the border of the ex-Hyderabad State. From Dhulia, west towards Pimpalner, a road has been finished thirty-two miles to Sakri. From Sakri a line is cleared, and the part over the Kondaibari pass bridged and metalled, thirty-eight miles north-west to Navapur on the way to Surat. Since the opening of the railway (Bombay-Bhusawal line) in 1865, the old Asirgad road, running east from Jhodga on the Bombay-Agra road to Burhanpur, has been deserted and left to fall into decay.

Present-day trade routes:

Dhulia is an entrepot centre of trade, and a junction of several highways and roads. An interesting sidelight on the prosperity of this town is the importance of the transit trade. The Bombay-Agra road is by far the most important artery of trade which affords quick transit facilities to Bombay on the one hand and cities in north India on the other. The Dhulia-Jalgaon-Nagpur-Calcutta road has facilitated heavy goods traffic to commercial centres like Jalgaon, Malkapur, Akola, Amravati and Nagpur. This is a very important trade route because it affords transport facilities to the trade centres in northern and eastern Maharashtra. The Dhulia-Surat road has helped establishing close trade contacts with Surat and other markets in Gujarat. The other routes of trade in the district are (1) Dhulia-Chalisgaon-Aurangabad road, (2) Dhulia-Dondaicha-Nandurbar road, (3) Taloda-Shirpur-Raver-Burhanpur road, and (4) Nandurbar-Sakri road.

The Bhusawal-Surat broad gauge railway line which emanates from the Bombay-Delhi trunk route at Jalgaon is a vital artery of

[1] *Bom. Rev. Rec.* XXVI of 1858, part X, 3012-13.

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trade. It facilitates trade link with Surat, Baroda, Ahmedabad, Bombay, Jalgaon, Nagpur and many other trade centres in Maharashtra and Gujarat. The Dhulia-Chalisgaon branch line which emanates from the Bombay-Delhi railway line at Chalisgaon affords direct rail transport facilities to Kalyan and Bombay.

In spite of the railway facilities available, a bulk of the commercial traffic to destinations, such as Bombay, Nasik, Poona, Jalgaon and Indore goes by road. This can be attributed to the availability of good roads from Dhulia.

Changes in Pattern and Organisation of Trade.

Considerable changes have taken place in the socio-economic pattern since the beginning of this century. This had in consequence affected the pattern and organisation of trade and commerce also. The pattern of trade existing then was, in conformity with the prevalent trends in the self-sufficient village economy. The means of transport and communications were meagre. This retarded the growth of trade with distant places. The needs of the people were comparatively few. The volume of trade with other districts was smaller as compared to the one that exists at present.

The pattern and organisation of trade has changed partly due to institutional changes and partly due to increase in the volume of trade. Regulation of markets through agricultural produce market committees established under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 has led to changes in the institutional arrangements as regards trade. The legislation in this direction has regulated market practices, transactions and helped bringing about orderly trade relations between agriculturists and traders. A number of co-operative marketing organisations have come into existence. The pace of growth of the co-operative marketing has gathered momentum since the fifties.

Imports.

"Of imports the chief articles are salt, metals, coconuts, dates, groceries, oil, hardware, indigo, machinery, twist, and piece-goods. Salt was formerly brought almost entirely by pack bullocks from Surat. Some small quantity still reaches the western district the same way, but almost the whole supply comes from Bombay by rail. Under metals come gold, silver, copper, brass, and iron. During the time of the American War Of Independence very large quantities of gold and silver found their way into the district. Most of the bullion was converted into ornaments and the rest was hoarded. During the scarcity of 1876-77 a large amount of gold and silver in bullion and in ornaments left the district chiefly for Bombay. During the last two seasons better harvests have started anew, though on not a very large scale, the import of silver and gold. Copper and brass were formerly imported in blocks and worked first into sheets and then into utensils. Of late ready made sheets have been largely imported from Bombay, and have considerably lowered the price of brass-ware. Ready made pots and drinking mugs are also brought from Nasik. But these are used by the well-to-do people only. The import of iron has of late increased. It is much needed for cart wheels

and axles, and in the manufacture of buckets and other agricultural implements. All of it comes from Bombay. Coconuts are brought in large quantities by rail from Bombay, and are distributed over the district. Dates and groceries are brought in small quantities by rail from Bombay. Some of the western parts of the district still draw their supply of groceries from Surat by pack bullocks. Hardware articles, iron buckets, water pots and frying-pans are brought by rail from Bombay. Twist, both English and Indian, is brought by rail. and distributed over the district to be woven in handlooms..... Piece-goods are of two chief kinds, hand-made and steam-made. The hand-made goods are turbans and women's wear and are brought from Burhanpur, Yeola, Ahmednagar, Surat, Ahmedabad, and Nagpur, and waistcloths from Malegaon, Yeola, and Nagpur. Silk waistcloths, robes and turbans are brought from Burhanpur, Yeola, Surat, and Ahmedabad. The machine-made piece-goods are coarse strong cloth, chiefly for waistcloths, sheets, and towels from Bombay; and finer fabrics and prints from England."[1]

"There is no demand in Khandesh for steam-made European silks. Hand-made silks. chiefly turbans, scarfs and bodices from Burhanpur and Yeola, and brocades from Surat and Ahmedabad, are brought into the district sometimes by travelling pedlars loaded on bullocks or in carts, and partly by rail. No class of merchants deals exclusively in silks, but almost all rich merchants keep them in stock."[2]

Exports; *Cotton.*

Cotton is by far the most important item of export from Dhulia district. The agronomic and climatic conditions in the district are highly suitable for the crop. Following is a vivid account of the export trade in cotton given in the Khandesh Gazetteer[3] published in 1880.

"Cotton is the chief article of export, representing in quantity about 115,000 bales, and in value about £ 10,50,000 (Rs. 1,05,00,000). At the beginning of British rule, the only local cotton was the poor short-stapled variety known as Varhadi. Except to Surat little was exported. The trade was in the hands of petty dealers who stored the cotton in warehouses. *Vakhars* had it cleaned on native hand gins, *charaks*, and sold it to the local handloom weavers. In 1824, the opening of an export trade to Bombay had the effect of transferring the cotton trade from small dealers to men of capital, many of them Bombay merchants.[4] The new trade did much for the country by providing a market for cotton when the competition of English goods had reduced the handloom weavers' demand. At, the same time the carriage to Bombay was at first both costly and wasteful. Loosely packed and taken chiefly on bullock back over rough unbridged roads, the cotton lost greatly both in quantity and quality..... His cotton yielded the grower little more than

[1] *Gazetteer of Bombay Bresidency*, Vol. XII, 1880.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*
[4] Chapman's *Commerce*, 75.

1 *d.* the pound.[1] Besides injury on the road, cotton suffered much at many stages of its progress. The grower, hopelessly indebted, gave little care to his cotton crop; and its value was further lessened by adulteration at the hands of middlemen".[2]

"Since 1860, the introduction of Umravati and Dharwar-American seed cotton has greatly raised the value of the Khandesh crop....."

"Of late years the cotton trade has to a great extent gone back to the system of advances that was universal before the prosperous years of the American war. Europeans have made little way in Khandesh and the trade is still almost entirely in native hands. The only change has been the introduction of a new class of native merchants, the Bombay Bhatias, who to a large extent buy both from local dealers and from growers, and press the cotton for direct shipment to England. According to the common practice, from September to the end of April, growers and petty dealers go to the exporters, and contract to deliver a certain quantity of cotton within a given period....."

"A comparison of prices and cost of exporting cotton in 1847 and 1879 shows that in the last thirty years the value paid for cotton in Khandesh has risen from 1 *d.* or 1½ *d.* to 5 *d.* or 6 *d.* the pound. In 1847 the local price of cotton was £ 1 6 *s.* 5½ *d.* (Rs. 13-3-8) a *Khandi* of 784 pounds. The cost of cleaning was, by the native *charak*, 18 *s.* (Rs. 9) a *Khandi*, and 9 *s.* (Rs. 4½) by saw-gins.... The current (1879) price of Khandesh standard cotton, Jalgaon Gavrani is £ 18 16 *s.* (Rs. 188) the *Khandi* of 784 pounds. Faizpur cotton which is rare fetches about 12 *s.* (Rs. 6) more...."

Even now cotton remains the most important commodity exported from the district. Bombay is the principal mart of the cotton export. Nearly 80 per cent of the total export find their way to Bombay, whereas the rest of the cargo goes to Surat, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Amalner, Chalisgaon, Indore, and Kanpur. Bulk of cotton, ginned and pressed, goes outside the district from Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nandurbar, Shirpur, Taloda and Nawapur. The average yearly volume of exports is reported to be 8,000 bales from Dondaicha, 8,450 bales from Nandurbar,[3] 25,000 bales from Nawapur and 30,000 bales from Shirpur. The average volume of exports from Dondaicha has declined from 20,000 to 8,000 bales per annum, because of the diversion of cotton arrivals to the neighbouring markets in the district.

[1] Chapman's *Commerce*, 85. This price did not pay the people, and the cultivators grew grain instead of cotton.
[2] Chapman's *Commerce*, 91. According to Mr. Elphinstone, in 1848 (*East India Papers*, III 77) the merchant advanced money to the cultivator on the security of his growing crop, the cultivator agreeing to deliver his cotton and have from ten to fifteen per cent. of its market price deducted in payment of the advance. It was believed that many merchants charged a still heavier rate for their advances.
[3] 1,25,000 maunds of cotton was exported from Nandurbar in 1960-61.

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Cotton.

As cotton trade is regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Markets Act, licensed merchants have to purchase raw cotton from the agriculturists, under the supervision of the market committee. The merchants get it ginned and pressed[1] at the local ginning and pressing factories. There are ten ginning and pressing factories at Dhulia, five at Dondaicha, seven at Shirpur, three at Nandurbar, and two at Nawapur. The local merchants export the bales to Bombay. Bulk of the merchandise to Bombay and Surat is transported by motor trucks. Transport by railways is, however, by no means inconsiderable.

Virnar and *Cambodia* (CO2) are the principal varieies of Dhulia cotton. *Cambodia* is a long staple variety, whereas *Virnar* has medium staple length. *Cambodia* commands better price and gives higher yields. A high yielding long staple hybrid variety H-4 has recently been introduced on a large scale.

The fluctuations in the price of cotton are in consonance with the prices ruling at Bombay. Cotton trade is brisk during the period between November and March.

Groundnut.

Dhulia district is affluent in groundnut trade since the past. Groundnut has always been an important commercial crop[2] in the district. The commodity is traded on a very large scale at Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nandurbar and Shirpur.[3]

Nearly 80 per cent. of the groundnut is processed in the local oil mills where oil is extracted. The oil mills are the principal purchasers of groundnut. Generally farmers sell their produce to mill owners and other merchants in October, November and December, as they have no facilities of proper storage.

Groundnut oil is chiefly exported to Bombay, Amalner, Pachora, Jalgaon, Tatanagar, Delhi, Agra and Dalmianagar. Groundnut seed is exported to Bombay, Surat, Jalgaon, Amalner, Shegaon, etc. Oil is highly in demand from the vegetable oil factories in Jalgaon district and Bombay. Groundnut cake is sent to Ahmednagar, Kopargaon, Nasik and Bhusawal. As per the estimates arrived at by the Market Committee 3,50,000 Bengali maunds of groundnut was exported from Nandurbar in 1959-60. The figure for 1960-61 was estimated to be 4,00,000 Bengali maunds.

There are a number of oil crushing mills in the district.

Business is brisk during the period between November and January. The prices are however, usually higher after April, and subject to violent fluctuations due to speculative activities in the market, as a result of which cultivators often get lower prices. The forward market activities, especially at Bombay, have a great impact on groundnut prices in the local markets.

[1] Ginning charge per quintal amounts to above Rs. 7, and pressing charge to about Rs. 14 per bale.

[2] The principal variety of groundnut trade in the district is called *Vatani*.

[3] The turnover of groundnut trade at the various markets is given in the section on Regulated Markets.

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Foodgrains

The freight charge for a quintal of groundnut from the district to Bombay is about Rs. 6 by motor trucks. The cargo is mainly transported by road.

Foodgrains constitute a significant proportion of the total wholesale trade and the exports from the district. After meeting the needs of consumption in the district, jowar, *tur*, wheat, *udid*, *mug* and bajra are sent outside in large quantities. Since the introduction of monopoly procurement of jowar and rice, sale and purchase of these grains on private account are banned completely. The government, through its agencies, procures jowar from the producers, and distributes the same through fair price shops. In what follows is given an account of the normal channels of trade which prevailed before introduction of the monopoly procurement of jowar and rice.

The principal markets of jowar trade before the monopoly procurement system were Nandurbar, Shirpur, Dondaicha, Dhulia, Shahada and Taloda. Besides there was a large trade in jowar at Nawapur, Sakri, Nardhana and Betawad. The average annual production of rabi jowar (*dadar*) exceeded two lakhs of quintals. The main trade was in *rabi* jowar. *Kharif* jowar was locally consumed, and traded on a small scale. Jowar of superior quality (*rabi* jowar) used to be exported to Bombay, Gujarat, Poona, Sholapur, Lonand, Phaltan, etc. The Nandurbar Market Committee estimated the export of jowar from Nandurbar market during 1959-60 at 1,25,000 Bengali maunds. The corresponding figure for 1960-61 was estimated at 1,75,000 Bengali maunds. Nearly 65 per cent. of the jowar produced in the district was exported outside. There were about 50 wholesale dealers at Nandurbar, 30 at Dondaicha, 50 at Dhulia, 15 at Shirpur, 5 at Shahada and 10 at Taloda. Of the wholesale dealers at the respective markets, nearly 50 were jowar exporters from Nandurbar, 10 from Dondaicha, 12 from Dhulia, 15 from Shirpur and 3 from Shahada.

The fluctuations in the price of jowar were mainly in consonance with the change in prices prevailing at Bombay. The cargo to Bombay was mainly sent by motor trucks, the transportation charge for one quintal being about Rs. 3 from Dhulia to Bombay. The traders reported that the turnover of trade had increased (in 1962-63) by about 30 per cent. since the World War II.

The other foodgrains of commercial importance are bajra, wheat, *udid*, *mug* and *tur*. From the point of view of turnover, the below mentioned markets in the district are notable for the trade in the commodities mentioned against them.

Dhulia : Bajra and wheat.
Nandurbar : *Tur*, wheat, gram and bajra.
Dondaicha : *Mug*, *udid* and wheat.
Shirpur : *Mug* and gram.
Shahada : Bajra, *udid*, *mug* and wheat.
Nawapur : *Tur*.

Udid is exported to Bombay, Madras, Madurai, Salem, Tuticorin, Trichnopoly, Coimbatore, Bangalore, Assam and Gujarat. *Mug* is sent to Bombay, Assam, Delhi, Punjab and Gujarat. *Chavali* is exported to Bombay and Gujarat. Nearly 75 per cent. of the total production of *udid*, 80 per cent. of *mug* and 60 per cent. of wheat is exported outside the district. Bulk of the bajra produced is locally consumed.

Tur, an important item of trade at Nandurbar and Nawapur, is exported to Bombay, Surat, Ahmedabad, Madhi and Vyara. The exports from Nadurbar were to the tune of 60,000 Bengali maunds in 1960-61. Nawapur exports an annual average of 30,000 quintals of *tur* and *tur dal*. The pulse known as *Surati dal* in the Bombay market comes to Bombay from Nandurbar and Nawapur *via* Surat.

There is an association of foodgrain dealers at Dhulia. The association with a membership of 55 is affiliated to the Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, and is a member of the All India Foodgrain Dealers Federation. The association looks after the interests of the foodgrain merchants.

Other Exports.

Besides the principal items of export enumerated above, a number of other commodities are also exported from the district. *Udid*, an important pulse, is exported to distant markets such as, Bombay, Madurai, Salem, Tuticorin, Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Bangalore, Madras, Cochin, Surat, Bulsar, Ahmedabad, Baroda and Broach. *Mug* is exported to Bombay, Madras, Madurai, Salem, Cochin, Delhi, Kanpur, Wardha, Saurashtra, Rajkot, Junagad, Porbander, Surat, Ahmedabad, Bulsar, Baroda, Navsari, and Poona. *Math* is sent mainly to Bombay, Poona and Madras; *Chavali* to Bombay, Surat, Bulsar, Ahmedabad, Broach and Vyara. *Tur* finds its way to Surat, Ahmedabad, Madhi, Vyara and Bombay. Nandurbar is the greatest exporting centre of *tur* and *tur dal*, from where it is chiefly exported to Bombay and Surat. The *dal* which is famous as *Surati dal* at Bombay actually comes from Nandurbar side. Cotton seed finds a good market at Bombay, Tatanagar, Pachora and Amalner. Cotton seed is used as a cattle feed. The oil extracted from cotton seed is very rich in vitamin contents and is used in the manufacture of hydrogenated oils. Milk, ghee and butter are sent to Bombay by trucks and rail practically daily. Agents of the dealers at Bombay collect milk and milk products from the local producers and book the consignments to Bombay. In fact the 'Khandesh ghee' has earned a very good name for itself in the outside markets.

Hides and horns are sent in considerable quantities to Bombay. *Rosha* grass oil which is highly in demand in Western countries is exported to Bombay. This oil, used in the manufacture of perfumes and medicines, is a good foreign exchange earner. *Charoli*, the seed of *Char*, *Buchanania Latifolia*, much used in making sweetmeats, is largely exported from Akrani area to Surat and Bombay. Myrobalans found chiefly in the Taloda forests are sent principally by rail

to Bombay and Surat. Some quantity of lac is exported to Burhanpur. Carts, made chiefly in Taloda, Pimpalner and Dhulia are in demand at Burhanpur and Jalgaon.

Marketing of agricultural produce was fraught with frequent malpractices and irregularities which were not conducive to the interests of the agriculturists in the past. As the peasant was ignorant and economically handicapped the traders used to exploit him. Realising the ill effects of the unfair practices on marketing the Royal Commission on Agriculture (1927) recommended to the government, the necessity of regulating this business. Accordingly, the Government of Bombay enacted the Bombay Cotton Markets Act in 1927. Subsequently the Bombay Porincial Banking Enquiry Committee (1931) also stressed the need for protection to the agricultural community in the disposal of marketable surplus by establishing a chain of regulated markets. The Bombay Cotton Markets Act which regulated only cotton trade was replaced by a more broad based Act, viz. the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act in 1939. This Act brought the sale and purchase of a number of commodities under the purview of the enactment.

The principal objectives of this Act are, (1) to bring about equity in bargaining power among the agriculturists and traders, (2) to promote mutual confidence, (3) to prevent malpractices and (4) to give a fair deal to the peasants.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act purports to regulate market practices. The price of agricultural commodities brought into the market is settled by open auction or open agreement. Variations in this rule are not allowed. The produce is arranged in heaps or bullock carts near the *adat* shops of the various general commission agents who are licensed by the market committee. The general commission agents or *adatyas*, as they are called, serve as intermediaries between the agriculturists and traders. They are entitled to get commission at certain rates stipulated by the market committee. The prospective purchasers inspect the produce before bidding. As soon as the bargain is settled the *adatya* prepares an agreement paper giving the agreed price. The officials of the market committee supervise all these operations. After the sale is effected the buyer takes the delivery of the produce on the market yard and pays the value of the goods to the agriculturist or his general commission agents on the same day. Weighing of the produce is done by the licensed weighmen on the market yard itself. Weighing of cotton and chillis is allowed to take place outside the market premises. The weighing equipment is provided by the *adatyas*. Coolies (*hamals*) on the market yard are licensed by the market committee.

Cattle, sheep and goats are sold by open agreement system. This system does not differ much in content from the system of open auction.

The Act has clearly defined the market charges deductible from the sale proceeds. The authorities of the market committee do not

allow the traders to deduct unauthorised market charges, such as, *dharmadaya, goshala, kasar, sut* and temple charges. The recognised charges include market cess, *adat* commission, weighing and *hamali*. This has in consequence reduced the burden on the agricultural sellers.

The market authorities encourage the agricultural sellers to bring the produce to the market yard in pure condition. This assures better price for better produce.

The entire *modus operandi* of marketing is closely watched by the officials of the market committee. The code of business conduct is set and disputes are solved by arbitration. The market functionaries, *viz.*, general commission agents, weighmen and *hamals* are under the control of the market committee.

Under the provisions of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, the market committees comprise selected representatives of agriculturists and of traders as well as nominated members from government and local bodies. They are under the overall control of the Director of Agricultural Marketing and Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad looks after the working of the market committees in the district, and guides them in respect of their day to day affairs.

Another feature of considerable signicance in regard to the market committees is the facility of dissemination of information about prices and market news. The daily prices and arrivals are displayed on the notice board after the sales are completed. The price trends prevailing at important markets in the district as well as outside are announced for information of the agriculturists before the auctions take place. Market news relayed from the *Akashwani* are made available through radio sets at the market yard.

It may be noted that the entire Dhulia district has been brought under the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 and its subsequent amendment in 1961. The following market committees are functioning in the district.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee	Area of Operation	Principal Market Yard	Sub-Market Yard	Temporary Sub-Market Yard.
1	2	3	4	5
1. Dhulia	Dhulia taluka	Dhulia	Shirud	....
2. Dondaicha	Sindkheda taluka	Dondiacha	(1) Sindkheda. (2) Nardana. (3) Betawad.	
3. Shirpur	Shirpur taluka	Shirpur	(1) Holnanthe (2) Vikharan.	....
4. Nandurbar	Nandurbar taluka	Nandurbar	Dhanore	....
5. Shahada	Shahada and Akrani talukas	Shahada	(1) Prakashe (2) Mandana.	Sarangkheda.
6. Nawapur	Nawapur taluka	Nawapur	(1) Chinchpada (2) Khandbara. (3) Visarwadi.	Dhanarat
7. Taloda	Taloda and Akkalkuwa talukas.	Taloda	Akkalkuwa	(1) Sorapada. (2) Khapar. (3) Taloda (village)
8. Sakri	Sakri taluka	Sakri	....	....

Besides, it is proposed to establish sub-market yards at Dhadgaon, Ranale, Wanyavihir, Borad, Lamkani, Mhasawad, Vadali, Pimpalner and Nizampur. The necessary survey reports and proposals are being forwarded to the concerned authorities. Thus the network of regulated markets in the district will be complete.

Dhulia is one of the oldest regulated markets in the State. It was established in September 1930 under the terms of the Bombay Cotton Markets Act of 1927. Subsequently provisions of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 were made applicable to Dhulia market and a number of other agricultural commodities were brought under regulation.

The commodities regulated at Dhulia* comprise cotton (ginned as well as unginned), groundnut, jowar, wheat, bajri, *udid, math, mug, chola,* sesamum, gram, chillis (wet and dry), mangoes, onions, *gul,* sheep and goats.

The number of licensed dealers and market functionaries in the year 1962-63 is given below :—

(1) General Commission Agents	51
(2) Class A traders	148
(3) Class A cattle traders	21
(4) Cattle brokers	9
(5) Weighmen	70
(6) Warehouseman	1

Besides the principal market yard at Dhulia, there is a sub-market yard at Shirud. The total turnover of trade at Dhulia market was of the order of Rs. 5,70,40,218 and at Shirud Rs. 16,08,,035 in 1963-64. The turnover of trade in 1962-63 was Rs. 4,51,65,659 at Dhulia and Rs. 13,93,276 at Shirud.

Cotton and groundnut are the most important commodities traded at Dhulia.

The following table gives the statistics of turnover of trade at Dhulia :

* Cotton was the only commodity regulated upto 1942.

TABLE No. 26

STATISTICS OF TURNOVER OF TRADE AT DHULIA MARKET DURING 1958-59 TO 1963-64

Commodity	1958-59		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64	
	Turnover Bengali Mds.	Value Rs.	Turnover Quintals	Value Rs.	Turnover Quintals	Value Rs.	Turnover Quintals	Value Rs.
1. Cotton	1,75,330	54,87,992.12	1,57,329	1,71,64,221	1,84,030	2,15,51,857	2,00,175	2,75,25,194
2. Groundnut	7,66,000	1,28,30,412·43	1,92,473	1,22,12,781	2,29,218	1,32,08,454	2,05,614	1,43,31,415
3. Udid	9,742	1,63,317·85	3,225	1,97,014	2,628	1,74,161	2,832	1,75,032
4. Math	12,709	1,93,838·75	3,320	1,44,002	2,382	87,525	1,935	92,989
5. Mug	10,870	2,01,581·55	2,849	1,28,207	2,784	1,45,466	1,998	1,35,856
6. Chavali	7,270	1,32,493·80	4,915	3,24,488	2,772	2,89,229	2,566	2,32,365
7. Sesamum	17,196	5,65,692·32	5,033	5,19,653	10,122	10,03,740	8,388	9,78,384
8. Gram	5,166	99,006·99	10,927	4,31,947	8,082	3,52,686	6,150	1,82,916
9. Wheat	86,452	21,92,835·68	40,432	20,97,615	40,758	18,25,740	58,598	46,60,259
10. Jowar	54,175	6,78,274·53	72,346	28,88,437	42,516	13,95,334	28,752	12,33,796
11. Bajri	37,331	5,71,631·24	21,788	10,44,813	28,767	12,89,649	31,746	15,38,755
12. Gul	49,250	10,16,346·56	31,765	16,02,635	29,238	22,34,109	44,802	44,37,851
13. Chilli (wet)	17,611	3,00,003·75	7,303	2,73,216	12,504	5,74,614	13,326	6,65,623
14. Chilli (dry)	3,468	2,88,075·63	1,950	3,25,777	2,825	6,84,693	2,715	4,68,93
Total ..	12,52,570	2,47,21,503·20	5,55,655	3,93,54,806	5,98,626	4,48,17,262	6,09,597	5,66,59,368

The following statement gives the statistics of turnover of trade in cotton and groundnut at Dhulia market during the period from 1943 to 1953:

Year	Cotton Number of carts	Value Rs.	Groundnut Number of carts	Value Rs.
1943-44 ..	28,490	N.A.	49,459	N.A.
1944-45 ..	13,728	N.A.	49,220	N.A.
1945-46 ..	14,685	N.A.	53,350	N.A.
1946-47 ..	15,299	N.A.	56,559	N.A.
1947-48 ..	9,095	N.A.	69,504	N.A.
1948-49 ..	9,691	44,32,723	73,251	2,14,25,917
1949-50 ..	10,761	53,97,061	68,874	2,09,52,762
1950-51 ..	13,481	69,53,668	56,586	2,05,16,845
1951-52 ..	14,296	55,32,887	47,440	1,27,64,325
1952-53 ..	12,858	45,42,640	25,382	43,34,076

All the commodities are sold by open auction. This assures fair prices for the commodities of good quality. Weighment of cotton is done at the premises of the purchaser, whereas that of all other commodities is done on the market itself. The metric units of weights are used.

After the price is determined an agreement, called *Kabulayat*, is made. The *kabulayat* is countersigned by an official of the market committee.

The Dhulia market is well furnished with various facilities to the agricultural sellers as well as purchasers. The market yard is very spacious, and is furnished with electric lights, wells, water taps, water cooler, weighing sheds, raised platforms and good roads. The Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation has constructed warehouses for the benefit of the sellers as well as purchasers. Another warehouse has been proposed by the District Sale and Purchase Union. There is a branch of the Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank which facilitates banking transactions at the market yard.

Two co-operative marketing institutions are functioning as general commission agents in this market.

Dondaicha.

Dondaicha is another important agricultural market in the district. The predecessor of the present agricultural produce market which was then termed as the 'cotton market' was established in 1939 under the Bombay Cotton Markets Act of 1927. Subsequently, however, it was brought under the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. As such, other agricultural produce was also brought under regulation. The commodities regulated at present comprise cotton, groundnut, chilli (dry as well as wet), jowar, bajra, wheat, *math, mug, chavali, udid,* sesamum, castor seed, gram, *tur, gul,* and cattle.

Under the jurisdiction of the market committee there is a principal market yard at Dondaicha, and sub-market yards at Nardhana, Sindkheda and Betawad. The official market area of each yard extends over a radius of five miles (eight kilometres) around the respective yards.

The number of licensed dealers and market functionaries in 1961-62 is given below :—

Category	Dondaicha	Nardhana	Sindkheda	Betawad
General Commission Agents ..	47	3	5	....
Class A traders	134	29	25	22
Class B traders	8	9	10	1
Retail traders	82	93	53	43
Weighmen	49	17	16	3
Warehouseman	1	....	....	....

The value of turnover of trade was Rs. 3,09,96,297 at Dondaicha, Rs. 80,65,068 at Nardhana, Rs. 29,95,765 at Sindkheda and Rs. 89,282 at Betawad market in 1963-64.

Groundnut and chilli are the most important commodities of trade at Dondaicha. The turnover of the trade in groundnut, cotton and chilli during 1948-1953 is given in the following statement.

Arrivals of important Commodities at Dondaicha market*

(Figures in number of carts)

Year	Groundnut	Cotton	Chilli	
			Wet	Dry
1948-49 ..	45,996	1,485	N.A.	N.A.
1949-50 ..	51,521	685	N.A.	N.A.
1950-51 ..	40,151	1,742	6,408	161
1951-52 ..	21,239	2,153	9,692	376
1952-53 ..	9,939	3,227	6,005	473

* Annual Administration Report, A. P. F. C., Dondaicha, 1952-53.

The total turnover of trade and value thereof during 1962-63 and 1963-64 is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 27

VOLUME OF TRADE AT DONDAICHA MARKET COMMITTEE DURING 1962-63 AND 1963-64

(Figures of turnover in quintals)

Commodity	1962-63		1963-64	
	Turnover	Value	Turnover	Value
		Rs.		Rs.
Cotton	64,242	67,40,018	56,988	68,58,019
Groundnut (unshelled) ..	1,40,376	79,01,635	1,44,630	28,22,813
Groundnut (shelled) ..	312	29,712	486	54,180

TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

(Figures of turnover in quintals)

Commodity	1962-63		1963-64	
	Turnover	Value	Turnover	Value
		Rs.		Rs.
Chillis (wet)	1,19,658	71,84,177	1,22,124	80,30,004
Chillis (dry)	648	94,653	942	56,009
Math	896	30,837	1,512	66,895
Mug	16,892	7,90,261	48,624	25,16,622
Chola	784	56,503	2,616	1,88,617
Udid	12,780	7,40,100	15,558	7,54,495
Gram	11,854	2,38,976	5,220	1,51,625
Sesamum	8,035	7,87,160	13,007	12,07,409
Linseed	297	16,896	384	28,592
Castor seed	978	50,309	825	48,287
Tur	4,206	1,84,100	3,366	1,97,505
Gul	18,360	2,61,191	18,270	17,67,576
Wheat	23,892	10,70,923	34,743	25,29,734
Jowar	80,208	29,65,428	84,413	34,01,628
Bajri	7,890	3,12,996	7,110	3,16,287

The Dondaicha market yard is spacious, and provides the necessary facilities to the agriculturists and traders. A warehouse of the Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation is situated in the premises of the yard.

Transport of merchandise is facilitated by the Bhusawal-Surat railway line. There are also good motorable roads connecting Dondaicha market with Dhulia, Nandurbar and Surat.

Nandurbar.

The Nandurbar market was brought under the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act in 1948 when trade in cotton, groundnut, *tur*, gram and castor seed was regulated. The business in *mug, udid, math, chavali,* sesamum, *alashi, khurasani, ambadi,* chilli and *gul* was brought under regulation in 1950, that of wheat, jowar and bajri in 1954, and that of *rai,* fenugreek, *kulthi, ajwan, shepa,* and cattle in 1955. The market yard is spacious and is equipped with the necessary facilities.

The market functionaries licensed by the market authorities comprise general commission agents (46*), purchasers (197), cattle purchasers (11), cattle dalals (6), weighmen (45), warehouseman (1) and assistants (163). The market committee derived an income of Rs. 27,091 by way of licence fees and Rs. 24,738 by way of market fees in 1962-63.

* Number in 1962-63.

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Nandurbar.

The following table gives the annual arrivals of various commodities in the market :–

TABLE No. 28

VOLUME AND VALUE OF TRADE AT NANDURBAR, DURING 1962-63

Commodities	No. of carts	Volume	Value
		(Quintals)	(Rs.)
Cotton	7,845	36,317	43,85,820
Groundnut seed	56	134	12,571
Groundnut	32,853	1,80,804	1,04,83,352
Chillis (wet)	17,702	83,118	5,15,120
Chillis (dry)	5,211	20,440	31,71,358
Gul	2,068	11,425	7,23,009
Tur	6,316	34,293	16,05,826
Gram	1,191	4,737	2,04,829
Castor seed	310	1,449	81,016
Mug	1,961	9,256	5,07,439
Udid	4,163	36,161	2,44,13,65
Math	47	185	6,408
Chavali	113	432	29,715
Sesamum	801	3,179	3,04,992
Safflower	88	271	15,501
Khurasani	270	1,304	77,783
Ambadi	221	883	26,891
Wheat	9,528	49,315	26,01,382
Jowar (Dadar)	34,810	1,99,198	71,90,373
Bajri	779	3,643	1,63,973
Rai	21	40	3,755
Fenugreek	14	25	1,325
Kulthi	65	277	9,831
Ajwan	1,044	4,351	3,37,852
Shepa	933	3,765	1,69,968

The regulation of transactions in agricultural produce is beneficial to farmers. Proper supervision and guidance by officials of the market committee have brought lasting gains to the agricultural class. The market is provided with a warehouse of the Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation, since December 1959.

Shirpur. The transactions in agricultural produce at Shirpur were regulated in 1948. Consequently trade in groundnut, sesamum, *udid, mug, tur,* gram and cotton was regulated in 1948. The provisions of regulation were extended to *math, chawali, alashi* in 1950, to wheat, jowar, bajra and cattle in 1954, to sheep and goats in 1955, and to rice, *kulthi,* cotton seed, *gul,* chilli and castor seed in 1961. Thus, almost all the produce has been brought under regulation.

The Shirpur Market Committee has maintained a principal market yard at Shirpur, whereas, there are sub-market yards at Holnanthe and Vikharan. They together cover up the entire Shirpur taluka.

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Shirpur.

The Shirpur market is provided with the necessary amenities of godowns, warehouses, electric lights, water supply, roads and sanitary blocks.

The following table gives the volume and value of arrivals at the market yard and sub-market yards during 1962-63 and 1963-64 :–

TABLE No. 29

ARRIVALS AT SHIRPUR MARKET (FROM 1962-63 TO 1963-64)

Commodity	1962-63*		1963-64[1]	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
	(Quintals)	(Rs.)	(Quintals)	(Rs.)
Groundnut ..	56,747	34,04,834	93,275	70,07,550
Cotton ..	54,485	59,89,103	79,510	9,93,875
Sesame ..	7,016	40,707	8,182	9,00,020
Udid ..	1,963	1,00,723	2,773	1,52,110
Mug ..	27,699	12,86,908	30,110	22,58,250
Tur ..	236	10,047	440	24,200
Gram ..	1,501	90,017	3,703	2,03,665
Math ..	349	34,900	312	18,720
Chawali (chola) ..	249	10,035	469	35,175
Alashi (Linseed) ..	177	8,850	253	17,710
Jowar ..	35,213	14,19,063	63,953	36,17,415
Wheat ..	5,365	2,68,257	9,970	8,97,300
Bajari ..	1,577	78,628	3,904	2,39,040
Chilli (wet) ..	4,478	1,79,158	4,795	2,39,750
Chilli (dry) ..	1,243	76,300	168	30,240
Gul ..	2,933	1,48,280	4,929	3,94,320
Rai ..	2,105	1,51,250	3,055	3,05,500
Castor-seed ..	102	4,080	114	7,410
Kulthi ..	119	7,140	136	3,800
Total ..	2,03,558	1,39,69,973	3,09,521	2,61,93,925

The income of the market committee amounted to Rs. 66,204 and expenditure to Rs. 55,246 in 1963-64, thus leaving a surplus of Rs. 10,958

Shahada. The Shahada market committee was established in 1949. The area of operation of the market committee extends over Shahada and Akrani talukas. Besides the principal market yard at Shahada, there are sub-market yards at Prakashe and Mandana. The commodities brought under regulation comprise cotton, groundnut, *tur, mug, udid,* gram, sesamum, chola, *kulthi, math,* jowar, *bajari,* wheat, *methi, gul,* chilli, paddy, as also cattle, sheep and goats.

The total turnover of trade at Shahada market was 1,37,332 quintals valued at Rs. 99,39,715 in 1963-64. The following table

* Annual Report, A.P.M.C., Shirpur, 1962-63.
[1] Report from the Zilla Parishad, 1963-64.

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Shahada.

gives the volume and value of trade in various commodities at Shahada market during 1962-63 and 1963-64 :—

TABLE No. 30

ARRIVALS AT SHAHADA MARKET (1962-63 AND 1963-64)

Commodity	1962-63		1963-64	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
	(Quintals)	(Rs.)	(Quintals)	(Rs.)
Groundnut ..	30,528	17,39,399	29,542	24,97,918
Cotton ..	18,513	21,50,458	19,272	27,17,937
Mug ..	4,387	2,31,031	9,804	4,47,382
Udid ..	6,232	4,56,899	7,692	4,45,245
Sesamum ..	6,763	4,39,430	2,339	2,45,136
Tur ..	2,727	1,34,057	572	3,42,877
Gram ..	2,635	1,14,943	2,886	1,36,345
Chola ..	175	11,007	286	19,883
Kulthi ..	26	1,254	42	1,655
Math ..	8	300	62	2,863
Jowar ..	46,368	16,15,257	38,024	14,81,022
Bajari ..	1,771	67,434	2,288	59,421
Wheat ..	12,128	5,68,075	12,663	8,95,778
Methi ..	37	1,629	2	110
Gul ..	8,065	4,88,585	7,023	6,13,963
Chilli (wet) ..	114	11,799	....	....
Chilli (dry) ..	59	9,650	106	14,917
Paddy ..	9	234	2	82
Rice ..	136	7,993	102	7,241

The statistics regarding the turnover of trade at the sub-market yards at Prakashe and Mandana are given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 31

ARRIVALS AT PRAKASHE AND MANDANA SUB-MARKETS, 1963-64

Commodity	Prakashe		Mandana	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
	(Quintals)	(Rs.)	(Quintals)	(Rs.)
Groundnut ..	6,110	3,56,321	3,016	1,93,190
Cotton ..	1,233	1,35,957	234	32,445
Mug ..	916	44,148	499	26,562
Udid ..	335	19,680	2,726	1,57,415
Sesamum ..	215	13,897	93	8,522
Tur ..	1,152	72,257	55	3,245
Gram ..	541	30,969	7	430
Chola ..	4	175	39	2,074
Kulthi ..	18	807	6	350
Math ..	18	819	4	139
Jowar ..	8,175	3,47,280	534	19,657
Bajari ..	129	5,781	....	....
Wheat ..	1,173	72,477	144	6,077
Gul ..	159	14,161	7	700
Chilli (wet) ..	107	5,956	....	....
Chilli (dry) ..	1	135	....	....

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Taloda.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 was made applicable to Taloda market in 1961. The area of operation of this market extends over Taloda and Akkalkuwa talukas. The market committee looks after the principal market yard at Taloda and sub-market yard at Akkalkuwa. The commodities regulated at present comprise cotton, groundnut, *tur*, gram, castor seed, *mug*, *udid*, chola, sesamum, linseed, niger seed, *ambadi*, chilli, *gul*, wheat, jowar, *bajari*, *kulthi*, *math*, thymol (*owa*), dill-seed, *rai* (mustard), *methi* (fenugreek), cattle, sheep and goats.

The total turnover of trade in the various commodities during 1962-63 and 1963-64 is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 32

ARRIVALS AT TALODA MARKET (1962-63 AND 1963-64)

(Figures of Volume in Quintals)

Commodity	1962-63		1963-64	
	Volume	Value (Rs.)	Volume	Value (Rs.)
Cotton ..	6,971	7,67,735	1,598	1,92,754
Groundnut ..	11,015	7,21,441	24,242	12,67,319
Castor seed ..	115	6,999	39	2,460
Tur ..	4,253	1,88,314	11,259	6,58,757
Gram ..	892	38,257	N.A.	N.A.
Mug ..	51	2,576	226	9,364
Udid ..	1,056	76,474	2,663	1,48,000
Chola ..	26	1,928	173	10,814
Sesamum ..	81	7,208	354	30,667
Linseed ..	2	122	6	327
Niger seed ..	132	7,254	370	22,157
Ambadi ..	4	128	10	302
Chilli ..	7	361	26	5,243
Gul ..	1,798	1,12,373	1,449	1,32,529
Wheat ..	3,053	1,45,841	4,219	2,70,083
Jowar ..	22,836	7,15,883	21,605	8,91,610
Bajari ..	67	2,793	66	2,405
Thymol ..	325	18,496	335	34,719
Dill-seed ..	66	2,650	13	533

Sakri.

The Sakri market came under regulation from 1962. The area of operation of the market extends over Sakri taluka. The commodities regulated at present comprise cotton, groundnut, *udid*, *math*, chola, chilli, wheat, bajari, jowar, gul, onion, lady's fingers, *nagli*, and paddy.

The turnover of trade in the principal commodities at Sakri in 1963-64 is given in the following statement :—

(Figures of volume in quintals)

Commodity	Volume	Value
		(Rs.)
Groundnut ..	40.178	22.38.259
Cotton ...	20.857	23,85,991
Bhusar ...	2.794	2,02,531

Sakri is comparatively a smaller market. A large quantum of agricultural produce from Sakri taluka goes to Dhulia and Nandurbar markets for sale. The traditional commercial ties of the agriculturists with the traders at Dhulia and Nandurbar encourage considerable volume of trade to flee away to those centres.

The Nawapur market was regulated in 1950, and as such transactions in cotton, *tur*, *udid*, gram, castor seed, *khursani* and sesamum were brought under the purview of the Act. Trade in wheat, jowar (*dadar*), groundnut and *ambadi* was regulated subsequently in 1954. Besides the principal market at Nawapur, the market committee has established sub-market yards at (1) Khandbara, (2) Chinchpada, (3) Visarwadi and (4) Dhanrat. The entire Nawapur taluka is thus brought under regulation.

All the market functionaries are licensed by the market committee. In 1961-62, there were 104 wholesale purchasers, 219 retail purchasers, 8 general commission agents, 12 weighmen and 148 assistants. The market authorities derived an income of Rs. 17,909 by way of licence fee from them in 1961-62.

The total arrivals at the market amounted to 22,251 carts valued at Rs. 65,35,315 in 1961-62. Of the total value of turnover, cotton accounted for Rs. 29,36,165. The following statement gives the annual arrivals of various commodities at the market between 1950-51 and 1955-56 :–

NUMBER OF CARTS ARRIVED AT NAWAPUR MARKET*

Commodity	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56
Cotton ..	7,563	6,795	6,719	8,079	11,892	13,270
Tur ..	2,114	2,774	3,673	4,307	6,661	7,592
Castorseed ..	1,381	1,350	1,801	1,756	395	861
Gram ..	1,254	769	407	442	307	622
Udid ..	536	92	341	1,132	1,209	750
Sesamum ..	222	258	659	389	293	22
Groundnut ..	....	....	....	89	2,455	1,426
Jowar (Dadar)	....	....	....	862	2,684	1,992

The following table gives the turnover of trade at Nawapur market during the period 1960-61 to 1963-64 :–

* Annual Administration Report, A. P. M. C., Nawapur, 1955-56.

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Nawapur.

TABLE No. 33

ARRIVALS AT NAWAPUR MARKET (1960-61 to 1963-64)

(Figures of volume in quintals and value in Rs.)

Commodity	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64	
	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value
Cotton ..	38,486	39,39,427	23,753	29,36,165	44,139	53,18,600	28,578	38,09,090
Tur ..	31,242	12,78,613	37,995	13,02,519	16,567	8,55,546	34,202	23,04,675
Gram ..	429	19,798	804	39,357	549	24,615	836	52,059
Castor seed ..	1,923	66,117	710	46,038	605	35,413	977	63,516
Udid ..	9,588	3,84,277	10,285	5,38,918	1,099	63,329	5,006	2,61,691
Sesamum ..	94	9,636	15	1,369	165	14,546	139	12,977
Niger seed ..	270	19,069	594	41,362	288	17,216	218	14,921
Groundnut ..	8,597	5,17,372	8,872	6,40,342	5,818	3,40,706	10,271	6,39,273
Ambadi ..	513	13,494	404	11,395	527	14,854	487	15,643
Wheat ..	833	26,709	1,575	78,183	1,752	86,813	1,478	99,271
Jowar ..	9,583	3,32,947	13,758	4,99,667	25,219	8,34,838	35,661	14,36,870

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Regulation of agricultural marketing in Nawapur taluka has been difficult due to the backwardness and illiteracy among the *adivasi* population. The *adivasis* find it difficult to free themselves from the clutches of the money-lenders. They agree to sell their produce well in advance before the harvesting season at very low price. In order to meet debt obligations, they sell the produce at any price to the money-lenders. Thus, a considerable volume of business escapes the supervision of the market authorities. However, these conditions are sure to improve with better understanding of the principles of regulated markets and the advantages therefrom by the local populace.

Wholesale Trade Centres. *Dhulia.*

Dhulia is one of the leading markets dealing in agricultural commodities in Maharashtra. It is an entrepot centre of trade having commercial ties with the principal markets in Western Maharashtra and upcountry markets. Being on the Bombay-Agra road it is a junction of a number of roads leading to Bombay, Poona, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Calcutta, Manmad, Surat, Chalisgaon, etc. Besides the availability of good road transport, Dhulia is connected by railway with the Bombay-Bhusawal-Delhi trunk line.

Dhulia is an assembling and distributing centre of wholesale trade in cotton, groundnut, *udid, math, mug, chavali, til,* gram, wheat, jowar, bajra, chilli, *gul,* onion, mangoes, tobacco, cattle, sheep and goat. These commodities are assembled at Dhulia from the surrounding areas in the district and from the neighbouring areas of Madhya Pradesh, Nasik, Ahmednagar and some parts of Jalgaon district. Being a high paying market Dhulia attracts sellers from even distant places.

Cotton and groundnut are the principal items of wholesale trade at Dhulia. The average annual turnover of groundnut trade is over 2,05,000 quintals and that of cotton about 2,00,000 quintals. Nearly 80 per cent. of the groundnut is consumed in local oil mills for oil expellation. The oil is exported to Bombay, Madhya Pradesh and some markets in north India. There are 13 oil mills at Dhulia. Most of the raw cotton is ginned and pressed in the local factories before being exported to Bombay and other destinations. There are nine ginning factories and four ginning and pressing factories, at Dhulia. A part of the cotton is utilised by the spinning and weaving mills at Dhulia, whereas the rest, amounting to more than 80 per cent. is exported to Bombay.

Dhulia market exports jowar to Bombay and Gujarat; *udid* to Madras and Assam, *mug* to Assam, Delhi, Punjab and Gujarat; and wheat to Bombay and Poona. There are about 55 wholesale dealers in foodgrains, of whom about 40 are general commission agents.

Dhulia is also an important centre of tobacco trade. There are five wholesale dealers of tobacco. It is brought from Baroda, Kaira, Kolhapur and Guntur, and is distributed to the neighbouring areas, and Jalgaon, Ahmednagar and Nasik. The local wholesalers or their

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brokers purchase tobacco from the source markets, noted above. Tobacco is also used by the local bidi factories (3 factories) and *jarda* manufacturers (3). The annual turnover of tobacco trade is reported to be about 8,000 to 10,000 Bengali maunds. Heavy excise duty has an impact on the sales and consumption of tobacco, and that the turnover of trade was much higher before the World War II than at present. The main varieties sold in the district are *rava,* bidi tobacco, *kala chopdia* and *lal chopdia.*

Banking facilities which form an important part of the infrastructure of trade and commerce are readily available at Dhulia. The branches of the (i) State Bank of India, (2) Bank of Maharashtra, (3) Punjab National Bank, (4) Bank of Baroda, (5) District Central Co-operative Bank, (6) Dhulia Merchants' Co-operative Bank, (7) Urban Co-operative Bank, and (8) Rajwade Mandal Peoples' Co-operative Bank provide institutional finance to trading activity at Dhulia. Warehousing on scientific lines is also one of the factors which has helped in the development of trade at Dhulia. Besides the warehouse of the Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation, a number of private godowns are available at Dhulia. All these factors have contributed to the affluence of Dhulia as a centre of trade and commerce.

Nandurbar.

Nandurbar is another entrepot centre of trade where agricultural commodities from Nandurbar taluka and some villages of Taloda, Akkalkuwa and Shahada talukas are assembled for marketing. It is one of the oldest markets in the region. Bulk of the produce, in the surrounding talukas formerly used to be assembled at Nandurbar. But since the last decade a sizeable part of it is diverted to the regulated markets in the respective talukas. The fertile tracts along the Tapi are an important source of agricultural produce at Nandurbar.

Being on the broad gauge railway line (Bhusawal-Surat route), Nandurbar is well connected to Jalgaon, Bhusawal, Nagpur, Surat, Ahmedabad, Bombay and markets of Central India. Bulk of the produce is transported by railway. It is linked by road to Dhulia, Sakri and Taloda.

The principal commodities of wholesale trade at Nandurbar are chillis, cotton, groundnut and jowar. The total annual turnover of trade in agricultural produce at Nandurbar amounts to about Rs. 4 crores. The turnover of chilli trade comes to the tune of about Rs. 85 lakhs, that of groundnut about Rs. 90 lakhs, of cotton Rs. 44 lakhs and of jowar Rs. 72 lakhs. Cotton bales (about 8,450 bales every year) are exported to Bombay, Nagpur and Amalner. Bombay is, however, the principal destination. The agents from Bombay and Surat also purchase cotton at Nandurbar. Groundnut in considerable quantities is sent to Bombay, Surat, Madhi, Bardoli, Bilimora, Bulsar, Amalner, Pachora, Jalgaon and Bhusawal.

Nandurbar, which is very famous for chillis, exports chillis to Ahmedabad, Anand, Nadiad, Baroda, Bombay, Akola, Khamgaon,

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Indore, Poona, Jalna, Aurangabad, Sholapur, Godhra, Ujjain, and Madras. Traders from these places come down to Nandurbar and purchase chillis. Formerly chillis used to be exported to Assam also. Before the introduction of the system of monopoly procurement of jowar by the Government, jowar used to be exported to Gujarat State, and to Bombay, Poona, Sholapur, Lonand and Phaltan markets. Traders from these places used to come to Nandurbar for jowar purchases. *Tur* is exported to Surat, Ahmedabad, Madhi, Vyara and Bombay.

The following statement gives the statistics* of the principal exports from Nandurbar market :—

		1959-60 Bengali maunds	1960-61 Bengali maunds
Cotton	...	50,000	1,25,000
Groundnut	...	3,50,000	4,00,000
Chillis	...	80,000	1,00,000
Jowar	...	1,25,000	1,75,000
Tur	...	60,000	90,000

Besides the above mentioned commodities, there are wholesale transactions in *mug*, *udid*, gram, *chavali*, *math*, sesamum, linseed, *gul*, wheat, bajra, *ova* and tobacco. There are seven wholesale dealers of tobacco whose total annual turnover amounts to 8,000 maunds. There are about 190 wholesale dealers dealing in various commodities at Nandurbar.

Processing industries, banking and warehousing facilities available at Nandurbar have gone a long way in fostering the development of trade and commerce. There are two cotton ginning and pressing factories, eleven oil mills, and a few groundnut decortication factories. Institutional finance to trade is provided by branches of the State Bank of India, Bank of Baroda, Dena Bank and District Central Co-operative Bank. The Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation has made available a warehouse since December 1959, for scientific storage of agricultural produce.

Dondaicha.

Dondaicha ranks next in importance to Dhulia and Nandurbar as a centre of trade. Its situation on the Bhusawal-Surat broad gauge railway route has facilitated commercial ties with Surat, Ahmedabad, Baroda, Bombay, Jalgaon and other important market places in Maharashtra and Gujarat. It is also conveniently connected by road route to Nasik, Manmad and Bombay via Dhulia. Considerable volume of agricultural produce is assembled at Dondaicha from the neighbouring areas and the fertile tracts along the Tapi.

The principal items of wholesale trade, in order of their importance, are groundnut, cotton, chillis and jowar. Dondaicha is one

* The statistics are estimated by the authorities of the Nandurbar Market Committee.

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of the most important chilli markets in Maharashtra. Groundnut is, however, the most important item of trade. The annual turnover of groundnut trade exceeds 4,50,000 maunds or 30,000 cart loads. There are 20 wholesale traders who purchase groundnut at the market yard. The oil mills, six at present, crush oil and export oil as well as oil cake. Oil is exported to Bombay, Tatanagar, Delhi, Agra, Amalner and Chalisgaon, whereas oil cake is sent to Belapur, Kopargaon and Ahmednagar. Cotton ranks next in importance as an item of trade at Dondaicha. The average turnover of processed cotton which exceeded 20,000 bales per annum upto 1950 had recently declined to about 6000 bales per year. This decline is attributed to the establishment of new regulated markets in the tracts along the Tapi. There were, in 1964, 10 wholesale dealers. *Virnar* and *Cambodia* are the principal varieties of cotton at Dondaicha. Raw cotton is ginned and pressed at the local factories (5 in 1964-65) before being sent to Bombay and other places. Besides local sales, cotton seed is exported to Saurashtra. The following are the estimates* of exports of various commodities from Dondaicha :—

Commodity		Percentage of exports to
Cotton	..	Bombay 100.
Groundnut[1]	..	Jalgaon 3; Shegaon 2; Khamgaon 2; Nandurbar 3; Dhulia 2; Amalner 5; Bardoli 5; Vyara 5; Surat 3; Madhi 3; Virar 3; Ahmedabad 2; Palghar 3; Sailu 2; Pachora 12.
Groundnut Seed	..	Bombay 100.
Chillis	..	Jalgaon 2; Dhulia 2; Amalner 2; Chopda 2; Pachora 2; Bombay 15; Ahmedabad 2; Vyara 2; Bulsar 2; Ankaleshwar 2; Broach 2; Viramgaon 2; Bavala 2; Bilimora 2; Navasari 2; Dahanu Road 2; Jaipur 2; Nimakthana 1; Agra 2; Kanpur 2; Hatrad 2; Punjab 20; Delhi 10; Madras 10 and Calcutta 4.
Math	..	Bombay 80; Poona 10; and Madras 10.
Mug	..	Bombay 20; Madura 5; Salem 5; Cochin 5; Delhi 3; Kanpur 2; Wardha 2; Nandurbar 3; Saurashtra 2; Surendranagar 3; Rajkot 5; Junagad 5; Porbunder 5; Surat 2; Ahmedabad 3; Bulsar 2; Baroda 2; Navasari 2; Poona 19 and Madras 9.
Chavali	..	Bombay 80; Surat 3; Bulsar 2; Ahmedabad 3; Broach 2; and Vyara 1.

* The estimates are furnished by the Agricultural Market Committee, Dondaicha.

[1] About 45 per cent. of the total is used for oil crushing by the local oil mills.

Commodity	Percentage of exports to
Udid ..	Bombay 20; Chinchur 5; Madura 5; Salem 5; Tutikorin 3; Trichanopalli 3; Coimbatore 4; Bangalore 5; Madras 2; Raipur 10; Cochin 5; Surat 2; Bulsar 2; Ahmedabad 2; Baroda 2 and Broach 2.

Wholesale Trade Centres.

Dondaicha.

The necessary facilities of bank finance and commercial credit are available at Dondaicha. The Maharashtra Warehousing Corporation has built a warehouse which provides for storage of agricultural produce on scientific lines.

Co-operative Marketing.

Co-operative marketing has shown remarkable progress in this district. The history of co-operative marketing in the district can be traced back to the year 1928 when a co-operative marketing society was established at Dhulia. The society which preceded the establishment of the Dhulia Cotton Market was instrumental in organising the market practices on sound lines. It was followed by the establishment of a society at Shirpur in 1940, at Shahada in 1941 and at Taloda in 1943. The rest of the societies were established after 1957, *viz.*, Sindkheda in 1957, Nandurbar in 1958, Sakri in 1958, Akkalkuwa in 1959 and Nawapur in 1959. The Dhulia District Central Co-operative Marketing Society was established in 1959.

The organisation of co-operative marketing at present, comprises one district marketing society, nine taluka marketing societies*, and seven branches of the taluka marketing societies. The societies purchase the agricultural produce from the cultivators and sell it. After deducting a small margin of profit they pay the cultivators the due value of the produce. This helps protecting the cultivators from the low bidding tendency on the part of the traders. Assured price for his goods which is one of the major incentives to increase production has been possible to some extent due to these co-operative institutions.

The co-operative societies mainly function in premises of the regulated markets. The total value of the agricultural produce sold in the different regulated markets amounted to about Rs. 17 crores in 1963-64. Of this, commodities worth about Rs. 2·53 crores were sold through the marketing co-operatives. The produce sold through co-operatives was about 15 per cent. of the total turnover.

There are three co-operative processing societies in the district. These societies have received government assistance by way of subscription to share capital to the tune of Rs. 4,11,000 for construction of a ginning and pressing plant.

The Dhulia Kharedi-Vikri and Prakriya Society is a well-known agency in the field of co-operative marketing.

The following table gives the turnover of trade handled by it during the period from 1959 to 1964 :—

*The taluka market societies are also known as primary marketing societies.

TABLE No. 34

TRADE ACTIVITIES OF DHULIA SAHAKARI KHAREDI-VIKRI AND PRAKRIYA SOCIETY (1959 TO 1964)

(Figures of Quantity in Bengali maunds)

Year	Cotton		Groundnut		Foodgrains		Chillis		Gul		Total turnover
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Value
1959-60 ..	41,189	18,23,081	1,29,940	24,17,821	14,671	2,88,072	4,204	75,570	3,649	80,836	46,85,380
1960-61 ..	55,937	24,62,918	94,328	24,63,969	8,790	1,90,071	5,553	90,262	6,015	81,999	52,89,219
1961-62 ..	49,216	28,64,566	80,030	21,77,573	9,149	2,04,450	3,156	78,140	2,773	41,601	53,66,331
1962-63 ..	55,288	30,07,090	90,613	22,45,258	10,754	2,18,313	6,073	1,55,723	1,866	46,396	56,73,721
1963-64 ..	66,511	37,21,926	75,698	20,54,265	22,845	5,89,008	8,681	2,24,502	5,081	1,84,940	67,63,443

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Co-operative Marketing.

The authorised capital of the society was Rs. 5,00,000 whereas the subscribed capital was Rs. 2,47,200 in 1963-64. The total working capital was to the tune of Rs. 14,60,842 during 1963-64.

Warehousing.

Warehousing facilities is an important attribute of an organised regulated market. Storage of agricultural commodities on scientific lines is important in more than one way. Firstly, it protects the commodities from insects and rodents, and thus saves huge losses. It also helps in maintaining the quality of goods. Secondly, it saves the goods from damage due to damp. Thirdly, the agriculturist can get better prices for his produce by it till the market moves in his favour. It is one of the paradoxes of agricultural economy that the prices of agricultural produce slump down during the harvest. The agriculturist who hardly possesses any storing facility has to dispose off the produce during the harvest only. Warehousing on an organised scale gives him an opportunity to store his produce till the price situation improves. Fourthly, by depositing his produce in the warehouse he can obtain a loan against the warehouse receipt.

There are six warehouses of the Maharashtra State Warehousing Corporation established in the district during this decade.

The corporation has established warehouses at the important markets of Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nandurbar, Shirpur, Shahada and Navapur. Most of these warehouses are near the market yards, and are very convenient to the agriculturists as well as to the traders from the point of view of transportation of goods.

Retail Trade.

Retail shops provide the essential link between wholesale transactions and the consumer. In the past when Indian economy was more self-sufficient and barter oriented, retail shops were small establishments dealing in a few varieties of articles. In the circumstances prevailing then, weekly bazars were important as regards retail transactions. The villagers used to buy their requirements for the week from the bazars. Itinerant traders like pedlars and hawkers used to sell articles like oils, cloth, grains, groceries, spices, dry fruits, kerosene, ghee, etc. This state of trade, however, changed with the changes in the economic condition of the people. The change was more remarkable in the urban and semi-urban areas in the district. Since the last three decades, there has been an increase in the number of retail shops and the volume of sales has also gone up.

During the Second World War and the following years there was rationing of consumers goods in virtue of which distribution of rice, wheat, jowar, sugar, *gul*, kerosene, cloth, *etc.*, was restricted to the authorised ration shops. The controls were relaxed gradually in 1948 and 1950.

The following is the description of the various groups of retail shops in the district :—

Grocery Shops.

Grocery shops are the most numerous and their turnover is the largest of all in Dhulia district. There are a number of them in every town or village. They sell wheat, *tur*, *dal*, *gul*, kerosene, groundnut oil, hydrogenated oils, coconut oil, spices, condiments, soaps, toilets, pencils, tea, coffee, tobacco, bidi, confectionery, *etc.* A few are found selling stationery and cutlery goods, and medicines like aspro, anacin, purgolax, castophene, peps, paludrine, castor oil, *etc.*, Grocery shops in the towns have assumed a varied character. The big grocers at Dhulia, Nandurbar and Dondaicha procure the goods from local wholesalers or from Bombay, Surat and Jalgaon. The grocers in villages procure their stock-in-trade from the towns in the district.

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Grocery Shops.

Cloth, Readymade Clothes and Hosiery.

The cloth shops deal in coarse, medium and mercerised cloth. During the last few years the sale of superfine, terelyne, decron and nylon fabrics has gone up to a considerable extent. The impact of the changing fashions in apparel is perceptibly obvious. Banarasi *shaloos* and *paithanis* are becoming less popular. Their place has been taken by Bangalore silk, Kanjivaram silk and other man-made fabrics.

Cloth is imported by the dealers from Bombay, Ahmedabad, Madras, Kanpur, Nagpur and Malegaon. Ready-made clothes are imported from Bombay and Poona, whereas hosiery goods are brought from Ludhiana, Delhi, Jullunder and Kanpur.

Dhulia is by far the most important centre of retail trade in cloth in the district. Besides retailers, there are many wholesale shops in Dhulia town.

Pan, Bidi and Tobacco.

They are very small shops providing employment to a person or two. Pan, bidi, cigarettes, betel-nuts, catechu (*kat*) and sometimes confectionery are sold in these shops. The stock-in-trade is obtained from the wholesale dealers of Dhulia and Surat. Better quality cigarettes are found only in shops in the towns like Dhulia and Nandurbar.

Stationery and Cutlery.

Shops falling in this group sell toilet articles, bangles, hosiery, pencils, inks, nibs, fountain pens, cutlery and provision goods. Almost all the goods are brought from Bombay, though the small ones purchase them from the dealers at Dhulia and Nandurbar. Value of goods stored by the smaller and bigger shops may vary from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 25,000. Sales decline during periods of vacations, and go up in the months of June and July when educational institutions re-open.

In certain cases stationery and cutlery shops sell school and college books and note-books.

Radio-sets and electrical appliances.

These shops are found mainly at Dhulia, Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Shirpur, Shahada, and Navapur. With the progress in electrification of urban as well as rural areas, the demand for radio sets, electric fans, electric irons, fluroscent tubes, bulbs and electric wires has multiplied. This resulted in a flourishing trade in electrical goods.

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Sweets and Eatables.

The electrical goods and appliances are mainly brought from Bombay, Poona, and Calcutta.

Sweetmeat shops sell *pedha, barfi, bundiladu, jilebi, chivda, shev, bhaji,* etc. Some of them sell milk, curds, *chakka, shrikhand* and *mava.* Dhulia district being affluent in the production of milk, varied sweet dishes prepared from milk are available in ample quantity. The stock-in-trade of an individual shop varies from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,500. They purchase their equipment and material either locally or from the weekly bazars in the district.

Markets.

Next to the chief trade centres in the distribution and collection of goods, come the market towns. At these towns, on a fixed day in the week a market is held, where, besides the permanent local traders and shopkeepers, pedlars, hawkers, and agents of some of the larger dealers set up booths, and offer for sale copper and iron vessels, glass bracelets, turbans, waistcloths, women's robes, coarse cloth, dyes, cotton, clarified butter, garden produce, oil, and grain. Special markets for livestock, ponies, cattle, and sheep, are not uncommon. The booths are generally set up over-night and at an early hour the market is thronged by people from the villages around; and after a slack hour or two in the heat of the day, it again fills towards the evening. Almost all the transactions are done in money. But in several market towns, especially in the more outlaying parts in the west, Bhills and other tribes bring fuel, honey, and lac, and in the season, *moha* berries and *charoli* seed and barter them for cloth and trinkets. When the day is over, the sellers pack what remains and move to the next convenient market town. Though chiefly a means of distribution, these markets give dealers and the agents of export houses a good opportunity for buying or arranging for buying field and other produce.

Fairs.

Besides weekly markets at certain well-known places, fairs are held at intervals. The chief Khandesh fairs are shown in the following table:—

KHANDESH FAIRS*

Name	Sub-Division	Month	Period	Attendance
Dhulia	Dhulia	April	15 days	10,000
Dharn	Pimpalner	May	8 days	2,000
Navapur	Pimpalner	February	8 days	....
Nandurbar	Nandurbar	Moharam	8 days	2,000
Sarangkheda	Shahada	December	8 days	10,000
Prakashe	Shahada	April	. .	3,000
Patan	Virdel	February	3 days	5,000
Mudavad	Virdel	February	10 days	3,000

* This account is based on the description of markets, fairs and village shopkeepers given in the *Khandesh District Gazetteer,* published in 1880.

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Fairs.

Village Shopkeepers.

Except that they are much larger gatherings these fairs differ little from the weekly markets. Besides local pedlars and travelling dealers, most fairs are attended by the agents of many traders and some of the leading firms in distant towns. The chief articles of traffic are cloth, pots, carts, and live-stock.

Every large village has its shopkeeper, who deals in groceries, spices, grain, salt, oil, sugar, molasses, and other supplies. The value of his whole stock varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 250. He buys some of the more lasting wares at one of the chief district trade centres or at some large fair. But most of his stock is bought from time to time at the nearest market or sub-divisional town. As the well-to-do lay by the chief part of their grain and groceries for a whole year, buying them in the larger markets, they take from the village shopkeepers such perishable articles only as clarified butter, oil, and sugar. The middle and poorer classes, except what they themselves produce, draw almost all of their supplies from the village shopkeeper, and according to their credit, pay ready money, or what is commoner, have a weekly or monthly account. Even in the remote parts the village shopkeeper seldom barters. He is very often a money-lender, and in the accounts of many of his customers, oil and spices entries are often mixed with money advances.

Below the village shopkeeper is the pedlar. Some are craftsmen who work up a stock of goods, generally cloth, during the rainy months and in the fair season move from village to village, offering them for sale. Others sell groceries and hardware, moving from house to house generally with a pack bullock or a pony.

Hawkers.

Hawkers like pedlars in rural areas play an important part in the retail trade in municipal towns. Though organised trading activities due to urbanisation, and the resultant evolution of shops have limited the scope of the hawking trade, the hawkers continue to sell a variety of goods of daily consumption. They sell comparatively cheaper articles of every day use, *viz.,* peppermints, sugarcane juice, utensils, spices, fruits, dry fruits, sweetmeats, toys, *agarbattis,* cloth, jaggery, bangles, ice candy, *bhel puri,* groundnuts, milk products, stationery and cutlery goods, footwear, *etc.*

There were 411 hawkers in Dhulia town in 1963-64 selling a wide variety of articles of daily use. The hawkers do brisk business near cinema theatres, schools, and market places. The Dhulia municipal authorities have regulated the hawking trade by issuing licences to the hawkers. In 1963-64, there were 23 hawkers in Shirpur, 15 in Shahada and 7 in Taloda town. But neither of these municipalities has issued any licence to the hawkers.

The business of the hawkers is more or less of a seasonal character, the business being brisk during the fair season. Some of them belong to professional classes such as oilmen, gardeners, *attars* and *halwais.*

Now-a-days, however, the consumers who formerly used to patronise hawkers, show a preference for established shops.

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Pedlars.

The account of the various modes and agencies of trade will remain incomplete without a brief mention of pedlars. They were an important agency of retail trade in the past, when there were a few retail shops catering to the needs of the rural populace. These petty dealers used to have intimate relations with their customers, and used to sell the goods on credit or barter terms. Many of them belonged to professional classes, such as, *Telis, Kasars, Shimpis, Malis, Vanis,* Blacksmiths, *Halwais, Koshtis, Chambhars* and *Attars.*

Even now pedlars have a flourishing trade in the villages. They carry a variety of articles including groceries, fresh fruits, dry fruits, ice-candy, spices, vegetables, cloth, ready-made clothes, tea powder, bread, biscuits, sweetmeats, *etc.* They move from village to village and sell their articles on cash basis or against agricultural produce to their customers.

Controls and Fair Price Shops.

Controls and rationing date back to 1942. It was almost imperative on the part of the Government of India to impose the rationing of consumer goods due to the general shortage of the same during the World War II. Sale and purchase of consumer goods, such as, rice, wheat, jowar, bajra, sugar, *gul,* kerosene and cloth was prohibited in the open market. The movement of and transactions in these commodities were banned by enacting legislation to the effect. Under the 'compulsory levy system' a certain proportion of the grains produced was procured from the agriculturists. The commodities were distributed through ration shops. This system continued till 1948. In 1948, the Government of India relaxed the extent of controls, and discontinued the 'compulsory levy system'. With further improvement in the food situation in 1950, the Government took progressive steps towards decontrol. It was, however, in 1954 that all the controls were withdrawn.

Since the food situation showed an unsatisfactory trend in 1956, limited controls were resumed. This step towards resumption of controls was accompanied by the starting of fair price shops. Prices of rice, wheat, jowar and other foodgrains registered a steep rise during 1959, 1962, 1963 and 1964. The Government, therefore, decided to establish more fair price shops and import foodgrains from abroad. The zonal system was introduced in order to check undue rise in prices. The food situation, however, worsened into a crisis in 1964 and 1965. Prices rose to an unprecedented level. The Pakistani aggression in September 1965 caused a spurt in the prices of essential commodities.

The adverse situation prompted the Government of Maharashtra to introduce informal rationing and monopoly procurement of rice, jowar and wheat through government agencies. Under the procurement system, government purchases these foodgrains from the agriculturist at the stipulated prices. These prices are much lower than those prevailing in the open market. Sale of these foodgrains by the agriculturists to private traders is banned by the government.

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Controls and Fair Price Shops.

The grains thus procured are distributed through fair price shops at stipulated prices. A part of the grain stock is kept as buffer stock to meet any adverse situation arising from shortages.

Grain procurement started in Dhulia district from 15th November 1964. Twenty-four purchase centres were selected in the district, and nine purchase and sale co-operative unions* were declared sub-agents of the Apex Marketing Society. These unions are empowered to procure the grains under supervision of the government officials.

The fair price shops are run by co-operative societies, village *panchayats* as well as by private shopkeepers. They have to be approved by the Government. For the purpose of establishment of fair price shops, co-operative societies and village *panchayats* are given a preference over private shopkeepers. They are controlled and inspected by the District Supply Officer, and are required to maintain (i) a stock register, (ii) a visit book, and (iii) a daily sale register. The consumers are required to obtain household ration cards. The quantity and value of foodgrains disbursed through fair price shops in the district during 1963-64 is given below :—

		Quantity Metric tons.	Value.
			Rs.
Wheat	..	1,948	7,37,727·34
Rice	..	3,698	21,81,382·37
Jowar	..	9,201·50	3,52,963·10

During 1963-64, there were 467 fair price shops in the district, of which 267 were run by co-operative societies, 33 by village *panchayats,* 10 by other organised bodies and 157 by private shopkeepers.

At present there is informal rationing in respect of rice, wheat and jowar in the district. Sugar is also disbursed through fair price shops.

Associations of Traders.

With the phenomenal rise in the volume of trade and commerce over the last about 30 years, a number of associations of traders have emerged. The *prima facie* objective of such associations is to unite together to solve the grievances of the trading community *vis-a-vis* the Government, to bring harmony in various trade practices, to bring about better relations and understanding between the traders and to solve their difficulties. Special mention may be made of the Grain Merchants' Association at Dhulia. This association with a membership of 55, is affiliated to the Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, and is a member of the All India Foodgrain Dealers Association. The chief objectives of the association are to promote and protect the interests of grain dealers, to consider

* These unions are at Dhulia, Shirpur, Sindkheda, Nandurbar, Shahada, Sakri, Taloda, Nawapur, and Akkalkuwa.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Associations of Traders.

questions affecting the trade, and to co-ordinate the mode of business transactions. The association of dealers at Shirpur was established nearly 50 years ago, and was registered as a public trust in 1940. It commands a membership of 120. The association is instrumental in bringing about closer co-operation amongst the members of the trading class. It devises ways and means for promoting their business.

Besides these, there are a few more associations, *viz.*:

(1) Oil Mills Association, Dhulia.
(2) Cloth Merchants Association, Dhulia.
(3) Kirana Merchants Association, Dhulia.
(4) Saraf Association, Dhulia.

These associations have been formed with a view to bringing about closer co-operation amongst themselves.

Weights and Measures.

There was generally a multiplicity of weights and measures with the result that the units of weights and measures differed not only from place to place but also from commodity to commodity in the same place. This resulted in a state of confusion. Though the Bengal maund was accepted as a unit of weight in all transactions of agricultural produce, the units of measure, such as, *sher, chavathe, payali, adholi, etc.*, were prevalent in grain transactions in the villages. The unit of measure for milk was far from a standardised pattern. It used to vary from place to place in the district. This could be said of many units of weights and measures prevalent in the district.

In order to evolve a uniform system of weights and measures and to avoid the confusion resulting from such a state of affairs, the Government of India enacted the Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956. This Act laid down the basic units under the Metric system, which derives its name from the primary unit of measurement—the *metre*. The prototype of the metre is maintained at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sevres in France. Under the new arrangement the decimal system is applied to units of weights and measures.

In pursuance to Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, passed by the Government of India, the Government of Bombay enacted the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 for the enforcement of standard units based on the Metric system in the State. The work of enforcement of the system began in 1958 and was completed by the end of 1966.

The new units of weights and measures are enforced throughout the Dhulia district. All wholesale as well as retail transactions are now in terms of the new units. Petty transactions in foodgrains, milk and vegetables, however, are still held in old units in the villages where it will take some time for the new units to settle down.

CHAPTER 7—COMMUNICATIONS

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

THIS CHAPTER DEALS WITH THE HISTORICAL AND STRUCTURAL ASPECTS OF THE VARIOUS MEANS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS, *viz.* railways, roads, post and telegraphs and radio-sets in the district. As such an attempt has been made to give detailed description of railways, roads and the facilities regarding public transport available in the district of Dhulia. The following extracts from the Old Gazetteer of the then Khandesh district would show the state of transport and communications available in the district in the 19th Century.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Routes.

"The early rock-cut remains at Ajanta, at Patan near Chalisgaon, at Chandor, and at Nasik, make it probable that, as far back as the second and first centuries before Christ, trade routes between north and south India passed close to those places. In the third century after Christ, the author of the Periplus (247) mentions that trade crossed Khandesh from Broach to Paithan on the Godavari, and to Tagar ten days further east. The remains at Bhamer near Nizampur make it probable that this trade passed from Broach through Surat, up the south bank of the Tapti by Visarwadi, and through the Kundaibari pass near Nizampur, and the Kasarbari pass in the Satmala hills, to Paithan. The position of Tagar is not known. If the statement that it lay ten days to the east of Paithan is correct, the trade probably passed eastwards through Khandesh, leaving the district either near Patan or near Ajanta. The road though very difficult, was passable for wagons. There were also from very early times more direct routes to the sea coast by Nasik through the Sir, Thal, and Pipri Bhor passes to the ancient sea ports of Supara, Bhiwandi, Kalyan and Chaul.

"The rich cave and temple remains at Ajanta, Patan and Chandor seem to show that till the Musalman conquest (1300), the passes in the Satmala hills continued the highways of an important traffic. Under the early Musalmans the route by the Barvan or Sukaldevi pass from Malwa to Khandesh rose to importance. In 1306 Malik Kafur, at the south entrance of this pass, established the city of Sultanpur, and during the rest of the fourteenth century, this route by Sultanpur, Nandurbar, Visarwadi, and Songir would seem to have been one of the regular lines of communication with

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Communications.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Routes.

upper India and Gujarat. Probably there was also during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the time of the greatest splendour of the Musalman dynasty of Ahmedabad, a line of traffic to north Gujarat and the coast along the north bank of the Tapti and from Malva through Kukarmunda over the Buvaka or Chandseli passes to Rajpipla. Two other lines must have been of special importance when Asirgad was the capital of Khandesh. Of these one runs north and south, from north and central India through the Simrol pass by Asirgad to Ajanta and the south; the other runs west to the coast, the route known as the Asirgad road, through Burhanpur, Savda, Jalgaon, Paldhi, and Borkhand, to Nasik and the Thal pass.

"During the seventeenth and the first half of the eighteenth centuries, when Burhanpur was at the height of its power and Surat was the chief port of western India, the bulk of the great traffic between the inland countries and the coast passed through Khandesh. The European travellers of the seventeenth century describe the main route as passing from Surat east through Navapur, Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Sindkheda, Thalner, Chopda, Sangvi and Nhavi, to Burhanpur. A second very important route lay from Surat to Navapur, and then struck south through Pimpalner, Nimpur and the Patan pass, to Golkonda.

"During the early years of this century, Maratha misrule almost destroyed the trade of Khandesh. At the beginning of British rule there were no made roads. 'The tracks were ill-appointed and deficient in everything but discomfort and danger. Few and far between were the miserable hamlets, and the mountain passes were as rugged and impracticable as their fierce possessors'. In 1826, the chief routes were from Dhulia as a centre, 155 miles north by Songir and Thalner, through the Sindva pass to Mandleshwar and Mhow; north-east by Amalner, Chopda, and the Dhaulibari pass, seventy-three miles to Dhulkot; east by Parola, Erandol, and Savda, 103 miles to Burhanpur; south-east by Bhadgaon and Pachora, 84 miles to Ajanta; south by Mehunbara and the Gavtala pass to Aurangabad; south-west by Malegaon, Chandor, Nasik and the Thal pass, 179 miles to Bhiwandi, a route passable for every sort of laden cattle; and west by Pimpalner and Navapur to Surat. For many years the only one of these tracks on which money and labour were spent was the great Bombay and Agra trunk road by the Thal pass, Nasik, Malegaon, Dhulia, Songir, Nardana, Dabhasi, Dahivad, and the Palasner or Sindva pass. The road enters Khandesh near the Dhulia village of Jhodga, and running north passes through Virdel crossing the Tapti at Savalda where there is a ferry. It then runs due north through Shirpur until it reaches the Khandesh boundary in the centre of the Satpudas near the foot of Borghar. The Tapti is the only unbridged river, and except between the Tapti and the Palasner or Sindva pass where it is gravelled, the road is metalled throughout. In 1853-54, some progress was made in improving the cross roads of the district. About one hundred miles of fair weather roads were made at a cost of £ 988 (Rs. 9,880).

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Communications.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Routes.

But until 1863 the main Agra highway used most of the funds set apart for road-making in Khandesh. Since the levy of a special cess for local works, road-building has made rapid progress. At Songir, on the Agra road about twelve miles north of Dhulia, a much used line, made partly from Imperial and partly from local funds, passes north-west through Dangurna, Chimtana, Methi and Vikran, twenty-four miles, to Dondaicha. East from Dhulia, for forty-six miles through Parola and Erandol, runs a gravelled and unbridged local fund road to Mhasavad railway station. From this line a gravelled and unbridged branch runs twenty-two miles south to Kajgaon railway station, and a second branch passes six miles north-west from Erandol to Dharangaon. South from Dhulia a road, gravelled, drained, and bridged except over the Girna runs thirty-four miles to Chalisgaon station, and from Chalisgaon is continued seven miles south, through the Outram or Ranjangaon pass, to the border of the Nizam's territory. From Dhulia, west towards Pimpalner, a road has been finished thirty-two miles to Sakri. From Sakri, a line is cleared, and the part over the Kundaibari pass bridged and metalled, thirty-eight miles north-west to Navapur on the way to Surat. In the east two lines centre at Jalgaon, one fourteen miles from Neri in the south, gravelled and bridged, the other from Dharangaon twenty miles to the west, of which the first three miles to the Girna have alone been finished. In the south from Pachora station a gravelled and drained road runs eight miles west to Bhadgaon. Since the opening of the railway (1865), the old Asirgad road, running east from Jhodga on the Bombay-Agra road to Burhanpur, has been deserted and left to fall into decay. Besides these and the short gravelled roads that run between the towns and stations of Maheji, Savda and Raver on the Jabalpur, and Varangaon and Bodvad on the Nagpur line, are many much used fair weather cart tracks.

Passes.

"Of ninety-four passes through the hilly country to the west, north and south of Khandesh, fifteen are in the Sahyadris, fifty-four in the Satpudas, and twenty-five in the Satmalas. Of the fifteen Sahyadri passes, seven are in the range separating the Pimpalner sub-division from the Dangs and the Nasik district, and nine are in the spurs that intersect the Pimpalner sub-division. Those leading into the Dangs are BORJHARBARI, near Raypur, passable for half-laden cattle and CHANMALBARI, near Umbarpata, barely passable for carts. Those leading into the Nasik district are, the SELBARI-GHAT, on the main line between Surat and Nasik, bridged and in good order; PISOLIBARIGHAT, passable for carts but with little traffic; HEDALVADIGHAT, a tract for foot passengers; MOR-DARA, on the old road from Surat to Malegaon, a fair pass; and RAHUDVADI, passable for carts but in very bad order. Those in Pimpalner are GHODEGHAT near Chanpalla and one between Seri and Amli passable for foot passengers and unladen animals; KUNDAIBARIGHAT, about fifteen miles west of Nizampur, on the main road between Dhulia and Surat, described in 1826 as full of forest but passable to carriages, now bridged and metalled and with

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HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Passes.

considerable traffic; CHULKHACHABARI and THANEPADA on the road between Nandurbar and Nizampur, with fair traffic; MUG or TAMBORABARI, on the road between Brahmanvel and Dahivel, barely passable for carts; GHATBARI on the road between Ashtana and Nizampur, through Khorna, in good order and with considerable traffic; YESARBARI, on the road from Sakri to Nizampur, with little traffic; and KALAMBHIRBARI, on the road between Sevali and Nizampur, through Bhamer, in good repair and with considerable traffic.

"The Satpuda passes, beginning from the west, are AMLIBARI, leading from Amli towards Dhadgaon and the Kathi state, passable for laden bullocks, elephants, and camels; SAVARBARI and SINGPURBARI, from Savargaon and Singpur below the hills to the Kathi state, passable for unladen animals only; VALHERIBARI, DHEKATIBARI, AMONIBARI, and ASAMBAGHAT, all leading to Dhadgaon in the north and Taloda in the south, passable only for unladen animals and foot passengers carrying headloads; CHANDSELIGHAT, about thirteen miles north-west of Taloda, also on the road to Dhadgaon and thence to the Narbada, in 1826 choked with forest, now passable for moderately laden donkeys and bullocks, and with some traffic; BUVAKA or DODHABUVAGHAT, NAMTEA, and KARDIBARI, on the road from Dhadgaon to Surat, barely passable by foot passengers carrying headloads; NAVEGAVGHAT, on the road from Akrani to Shahada, passable for lightly laden camels and elephants; and TURANMALGHAT, on the road from Turanmal to Shahada, passable for foot passengers with headloads and lightly laden bullocks and donkeys. In Shirpur the only passes are VADALI, a cart road from Lasur to Vadali; and MALAPUR, a cart road from Ganpur to Malapur; BARVAN or SUKALDEVI, north of Sultanpur in the Barvani state, the usual road from Indor to Surat, passable but hard for cattle; PALASNER or SINDVA, on the Bombay-Agra Road, about thirty miles east of Barvan or Sukaldevi, with three lines, two of them passable for carts. In Chopda, besides six footpaths used more or less by the people in the plains and the Bhils of Adavad and other places in bringing down head or bullock loads of grass, fuel, and bamboos, there are the following passes used by carts; KAKRYAGHAT, leading from Vardi to Gandya Devara and to Bormali, passable for carts, with traffic in wood and bamboos; CHACHRAPATI, between Kurund and Kargund, passable for laden cattle; DHAULIBARI, twenty miles north-east of Chopda, between Malapur and Chirmira and leading also to Kharjon in His Highness Holkar's territory, passable for laden bullocks and carts, with a Vanjari traffic in wood and bamboos; SIRYA BARDA, on the road from Varad to Vaijapur, formerly passable for cattle, lately taken up as a famine work and made into a cart road; VAIJAPUR, a cart road from Adgaon to Vaijapur, with no special traffic; and UMARTHI, a cart road from Mamalda to Umarthi and on into His Highness Holkar's territory. In Savda, besides twenty mountain footpaths, VADHRIBARI, MARURBARI, SAVKHEDABARI, NAYGAVBARI, ADGAVBARI, ITVEBARI,

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Passes.

VISAVABARI, SATIBARI, DHAVLIGARBARI, PAL, MARULBARI, UMRIA, HINGONEBARI, MOHADI, LONAR, AMBAPANI, DHIMGHATI, PALON, GUDGIGHATI and VIRODE, used generally by Bhils in bringing head bullock loads of wood and bamboos, the following are the chief passes; HINDALBARI, from Pal, with a considerable traffic in wood brought by Vanjaris from His Highness Holkar's territory, BHILAINBARI from Abhodas to Pal, a cart road with no traffic; MANGRUL, a cart road from Mangrul to Boris in the Central Provinces with no special traffic; Pal, a cart road from Raver to Pal with traffic in fuel and bamboos, and from Savda to Pal with no special traffic, and GANGAPUR, a cart road from Padala to Nemad.

"The Satmala passes are beginning from the east, AJANTA, above Fardepur, about thirty miles south-east of Pachora, easily passable by carts; HALDIAGHAT, and JANJALIAGHAT, passable for laden cattle; MURDESHVARGHAT, a footpath; JOGESARIGHAT, NANDRAGHAT and SHENDRAGHAT, all passable for laden cattle SIDHGHAT and ANTURGHAT footpaths; KALADAT, also a footpath, from Haraswadi to Savargaon where a fair is held in the month of Chaitra (March-April), in honour of the god Kasoba who has a temple there; ASADGHAT, a footpath from Saygaon to Mehun; MHAISGHAT from Saygaon to the Mehun, passable for laden cattle, much used by people going to the Savargaon fair; GAVTALAGHAT or AMBA, between Chalisgaon and Kannad, the old trade line on which, at the hill foot, the ruined city of Patan stands. It was once used by carts, and though now out of repair, loaded carts with locked wheels can be taken down with difficulty. It was originally made by Aurangzeb and repaired by Lieutenant Outram when he settled the Bhils at Kannad; KANHOBACHASONDA, from Lonja and Saygaon to Kannad; NIMGHAT, from Patharje to Sathkund, passable for laden bullocks. OUTRAM or RANJANGAVGHAT, ten miles south of Chalisgaon, was in 1870 provided with a complete cart road; it has much traffic in grain, pulse, oilseed, fruit, and cloth. JUNONYACHAGHAT, from Shivapur to Junona, passable for laden cattle, was much used before the Outram pass was made. Beyond, in the extreme south-west are a group of small passes, KALGHAT, from Patan to Amba; GHAYGHAT, from Ahankari to Ambala; GANESGHAT, from Patan to Kalanki; and CHILHARGHAT, GADHADGHAT, SHEKSONDA, and MURUMGHAT, from Kharadi to Lodhra, and HANVATGHAT, from Pimpalgaon to Lodhra. These are all footpaths passable for unladen cattle only.".

The position of Railways in the district in 1880 when the old Khandesh Gazetteer was published is given below.

Railways.

"Under the British besides by roads, the district communications have been improved by the opening of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The portion of the line, about 142 miles, within Khandesh limits* was begun in 1852, and opened for traffic between 1861 and 1865. It enters Khandesh at its south-west corner, a few miles

* This line is in the present Jalgaon District. Hence this account pertains only to Jalgaon.

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Communications.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Railways.

north of the town of Naydongri in Nasik, and runs northeast, keeping near the course of the Girna as far as Jalgaon. In a length of eighty-two miles between the western boundary of the district and Bhusaval, where the line divides into the Jabalpur and Nagpur branches, there are nine stations, Chalisgaon, Kajgaon, Galna, Pachora, Maheji, Mhasvad, Shirsoli, Jalgaon, and Bhadli (Nasirabad). From Bhusaval, on the Jabalpur line, a distance of thirty miles, are five stations, Dujkheda, Savda, Nimbora, Raver and Khanapur, and on the Nagpur line, a distance of twenty-eight miles, are two stations, Varangaon and Nadgaon. Except the bridges across the Vaghur near Nasirabad and across the Tapti near Dujkheda, the line was simple and easily made. Besides the ordinary buildings at the different stations, costing from £ 300 to £ 1500 (Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 15,000), with a station master's house and booking office, and at Pachora, Jalgaon, and Nadgaon, small waiting rooms, there has been built at the Bhusawal junction a handsome station at a cost of £ 80,000 (Rs. 8,00,000), with large bath and refreshment rooms, a large work-shop, dwellings for European employees, public gardens, handsome reading rooms and a gymkhana.

Bridges.

"The chief road bridges in Khandesh are, on the Bombay-Agra road, across the Panjhra at Dhulia, a stone bridge with twenty-nine openings, fifteen of thirty feet and fourteen of eight feet span, and across the Bori on the Dhulia-Chalisgaon road, a stone bridge of fifteen openings, nine of forty-five feet and six of twenty feet span. A flying bridge at Mehunbara on the same road was carried away in the 1872 flood, and a new one is now being set up. The chief railway bridges are five in number. Three of them with thirty feet openings on the Tetur, the Bola, and the Korunda, all tributaries of the Girna, were works of no special difficulty. The bridge near Nasirabad across the Vaghur, which is here 300 yards wide, consisted at first of ten openings spanned by iron girders on Warren's principle. Five of these openings were afterwards removed and filled in. Soon after leaving the junction station at Bhusawal the line crosses the Tapti. The river is 590 yards wide and subject to sudden and severe floods rising at times to a height of seventy-eight feet. It was at first spanned by a bridge 875 yards long, consisting of five openings of 138 feet and fourteen of sixty feet covered iron girders, and twenty arches of forty feet each. The beds of the Vaghur and the Tapti, as well as of the smaller rivers are of solid rock, and for the bridges good foundations were obtained with ease. But the masonry was in many cases unsatisfactory, and as some of the bridges have shown signs of failure, it has been found necessary to build them on a new design with piers of iron cylinders filled with concrete. The Tapti bridge was in 1872 replaced by a new bridge on this principle, about 852 yards long and consisting of twenty-eight spans of sixty-six feet and five of 150 feet girders.".

RAILWAYS.

The Bhusawal-Surat and the Chalisgaon-Dhulia are the two railway routes passing through this district. The former is

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Communications.

RAILWAYS.

grouped under Western Railway and the latter under Central Railway. Both the routes are broad gauge routes. The Bhusawal-Surat line of the Western Railway which passes through this district has a run of 95 miles. There are as many as 15 stations on this route in the district. The Chalisgaon-Dhulia route has a mileage of 20 in the district. The route enters from the south-east and passes through Dhulia taluka and terminates at Dhulia. It has three stations, in its stretch in the district. The mileage under railway in this district is 2·36 per 100 square miles of area against the average of 2·66 miles in the whole state.

Chalisgaon-Dhulia Route.

This is a broad gauge branch line and falls under the jurisdiction of Bhusawal Division. It was opened for traffic in 1900. The route emerges from Chalisgaon and terminates at Dhulia. The length of the railway track from Chalisgaon to Dhulia is 57 km. The track passes through two talukas viz., Dhulia and Chalisgaon. The railway line was originally managed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company. The Indian Railways were regrouped in 1952. Since then this branch line comes under the Central Railway group.

The route enters the Dhulia district near Shirud village.

The stations on this route (with their distance from Chalisgaon) are as under—

Bhoras Bk. 7 km., Jamdha 15 km., Rajmane 24 km., Shirud 36 km., Borvihir 43 km. and Dhulia 57 km.

Following is a brief description of the main station on this line, viz. Dhulia, with the facilities available there. Dhulia has a small old fashioned station building, with high levelled platforms, III Class waiting hall and upper class waiting room. The platforms are paved, covered and electrified. Fans are provided on platforms. For drinking water, there are two taps provided on the station. Amenities like tea-stalls, benches, latrines have also been provided at Dhulia. The station is centrally situated and convenient transport facilities such as City bus service, tongas are always available at the station.

Dhulia situated on the Bombay-Agra road is considered to be one of the best market places in the State. The main commodities booked from this station are cotton, groundnut, jowar and wheat. Every day 200 to 300 milk cans are despatched to Bombay from the Dhulia station. Besides Dhulia, the other two stations on this route are Shirud and Borvihir. The only passenger train running on this tract, is the Chalisgaon-Dhulia passenger, which makes three trips to and fro daily.

The following is the statement showing the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods traffic from the stations on this route within the limits of Dhulia district during the year 1963 :—

Station	No. of passengers booked	Tonnage of goods cleared (Quintals)	Chief items of export
Shirud ..	1,49,353	4,461	Groundnut, jowar, cotton.
Borvihir ..	50,699	Not open for Goods traffic.	
Dhulia ..	3,57,221	7,75,902	Groundnut, cotton, wheat and jowar.

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Communications.

RAILWAYS.

Bhusawal-Surat Route.

The Bhusawal-Surat line of the Western Railway passes through the central part of the district. The line was laid and opened for traffic in 1899. It is a broad gauge line covering a distance of 95 miles. There are fifteen stations on this line.

The line is wholly to the south of the river Tapi and mainly serves the central part of the district, composed of Nawapur, Nandurbar and Sindkhed talukas.

The line enters the district in Sindkhed Taluka from the east and traverses Nandurbar and Navapur talukas to enter into Surat district of the Gujarat State.

The stations on this line (with their distance from Surat) are: Nawapur 103 km., Kolde 113 km., Chinchpada 120 km., Khatgaon 130 km., Khandbara 138 km., Dhekvad 152 km., Nandurbar 161 km., Tisi 174 km., Ranala 183 km, Dondaicha 195 km, Virdel Road 203 km., Sindkheda 215 km., Hol 223 km., Nardana 228 km., and Betavad 235 km.

The total railway route distance from Udhana to Jalgaon is 209·60 km. The railway line passing through Surat, Dhulia and Jalgaon districts runs parallel to the Tapi river through jungles and hilly and rocky terrain.

Between Chalthan and Timberva stations, the land on either side of the rail track is fertile, producing bananas and sugarcane. A sugarcane factory is located at Bardoli railway station 27·35 km., from Udhana station.

The passenger trains running on this route are (1) Surat-Bhusawal passenger (two trips) and (2) Surat-Bhusawal fast passenger.

Following is a brief description of the main stations on this line and the facilities provided in them.

Nandurbar station is situated 156 km. from Udhana. The grain market is quite close to the station. The transactions in grain, pulses and chillis are carried under supervision of a marketing committee functioning here. This station is well equipped with all passenger amenities.

Dondaicha railway station is 191·51 km., from Udhana. The town is also a business centre from where chillis and water-melons are exported. The station is equipped with 1st and 2nd class waiting rooms and a third class waiting hall. Facilities such as latrines, drinking water, lighting, parcel and goods shed are also available.

Nardana railway station, 223·60 km. from Udhana is connected with Bombay-Agra road by a link road. From this station, State Transport buses are available for pilgrimage to Shirdi. The station has 1st and 2nd Class waiting rooms and a third class waiting hall. The station is also provided with facilities like, latrines, drinking water, lighting, parcel and goods shed.

The other stations on this route are Navapur, Kolde, Chinchpada, Khatgaon, Khandbara, Dhekvad, Tisi, Ranala, Virdel Road, Sindkheda and Betawad.

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RAILWAYS.

Bhusawal-Surat Route.

The following is the statement showing the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods traffic from the stations on this route within limits of Dhulia district during the year 1961-62 :—

Station	Number of passengers booked	Tonnage of goods cleared	
		outward	inward
1	2	3	4
Navapur	2,52,805	31,888	6,007
Kolde	....	....	....
Chinchpada	1,44,701	3,631	1,388
Khatgaon	23,178	....	....
Khandbara	1,29,164	5,914	523
Dhekvad	22,188	95	3
Nandurbar	4,35,589	42,959	82,158
Tisi	73,911	....	....
Ranala	61,294	127	116
Dondaicha	2,53,506	35.758	28,342
Virdel Road	55,995	71	64
Sindkheda	1,77,883	4,046	1,801
Nardana	2,74,365	23,861	7,206
Shirpur	....	87	1,313
Betawad	1,03,065	9	4

ROADS.

National Highways.

National highways are defined as the main arteries or trunk roads that run through the length and breadth of the country which together form a system that connects major cities, ports, capitals of States and other highways. They are maintained by the Buildings and Communications department of the State Government from the funds of the Central Government and are generally surfaced and bridged.

Bombay-Agra Road.

This is one of the most important National Highways of India. After traversing Nasik district, it enters Dhulia district from the south in mile No. 195/2. It runs through the entire length of the district leading northwards. It crosses the boundary of Dhulia district at mile No. 269/2 and enters Madhya Pradesh.

The road crosses two rivers, viz., the Panzara river at Dhulia in mile No. 212 and the Tapi river in mile No. 240/6. It covers 74·12 miles in the district traversing Dhulia, Sindkheda and Shirpur talukas in its stretch.

The road touches the following places in its stretch—

Name of the place	Mile No.
(1) Purmepada ..	196
(2) Arvi ..	199 Inspection Bungalow.
(3) Laling ..	205/5
(4) Dhulia ..	211 Inspection and Travellers Bungalows.
(5) Nagaon ..	214/5
(6) Deothane ..	218/2
(7) Songir ..	222/6
(8) Nardhana ..	231/6.
(9) Sangvi ..	260/6 Rest house.
(10) Palasner ..	265/6.

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ROADS.

National Highways.

Bombay-Agra Roads.

While going from south to north, the following roads either take-off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of Junction	Name of Road	Class of Road*
Arvi	Arvi-Hendrun-Borkund-Shirud	O.D.R.
Dhulia	Dhulia-Aurangabad	S.H.
Dhulia	Dhulia-Edlabad-Nagpur	N.H.
Songir	Songir-Dondaicha-Nandurbar-Taloda	S.H.
Gorane	Gorane-Sindkheda	M.D.R.
Nardhana	Nardhana-Betawad	O.D.R.
Sukwad	Sukwad-Sindkheda	M.D.R.
Dahiwad	Shirpur-Chopda-Raver	S.H.

The whole length of the Bombay-Agra Road is fully asphalted and is motorable throughout the year.

Dhulia-Edalabad-Malkapur-Nagpur-Calcutta Road. **

This national highway starts from Dhulia at M. No. 211/0 of the Bombay-Agra road, runs towards the east and traverses only the Dhulia taluka for the total length of 19·76 km. in the district. It further passes through Jalgaon and the Vidarbha region. The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it.

Place	M. No. ***	Name and Class of road.
Dhulia	136/0	(i) Bombay-Agra N. H. (ii) Surat-Dhulia S. H. (iii) Dhulia-Chalisgaon-Aurangabad S. H.
Fagane	141/0	Dhulia-Amalner-Chopda-Khargone[1] S. H.

It crosses a nallah at M. No. 138/2 near Dhulia where there is a R. C. C. bridge.

The entire length of this road has a black-topped surface and motorable throughout the year.

State Highways.

There are eight state highways passing through the district, the account of which is given below.

Surat-Dhulia Road.

This highway starts from Surat in Gujarat State, enters the district at M. No. 48/7 near Lakkadkot. The portion of this road from M. No. 50/6 to 59/2 and from M. No. 60/2 to 60/5 passes again through Surat district of Gujarat State. From No. 60/5 it continues to pass through the district upto Dhulia town. The road runs parallel to the Surat-Bhusawal railway line upto Ganjapur in M. No. 64/4 upto which it crosses the railway line thrice. Its general alignment is from west to east upto Visarwadi after which it runs towards southeast upto Sakri and thence towards the east upto Dhulia. There are bridges on this road at the following river crossings :—at M. No. 61/8 on the Karanji nallah, at M. No. 63/1 on the Rangawal river near Nawapur; at M. No. 64/2 on the Raingan river near Nawapur; and at M. No. 117/3 on the Panzara river near Ner.

It touches the following places in its stretch* :—Nawapur, 62/0; Chinchpada, 72/0; Visarwadi, 76/6; Malangaon 88/0; Dahiwel, 93/0; Sakri, 103/4; Ner, 118/0; Kusumbe, 124/2; Khed, 127/5; Dhulia, 136/4.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :

Place of junction	Name and class of road.
Nawapur	Nawapur-Warsa-Pimpalner M. D. R.
Visarwadi	Nandurbar-Visarwadi S. H.
Dahiwel	Samode-Dahiwel M. D. R.
Sakri	Vinchur-Chandvad-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S. H.
Kusumbe	Kusumbe-Chaugaon M. D. R.

Of the total length of 126·19 km., the portion of 103·48 km. from Dhulia to Ganjapur has a black-topped surface and that of 19·93 km. from Ganjapur to Nawapur is water bound macadam and the remaining one of 2·80 km. near the State border is gravelled. The road section from Dhulia to Nawapur is motorable throughout the year.

Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Burhanpur Road.

This is an important highway running almost parallel to the Tapi river on its north in this district. It starts from Burhanpur in Madhya Pradesh, traverses the Jalgaon district and enters Dhulia after crossing the Aner river about 17 miles and 3 furlongs east of Shirpur. It runs towards the north-west upto Shahada and thence towards the west upto the Maharashtra-Gujarat border. It traverses Shirpur, Shahada, Taloda and Akkalkuwa talukas for the total length of 136 km. The mileage of this road is not continuous. It crosses many rivers and nallahs in its stretch in the district, *viz.* the Aner river on the district border, the Arunawati river near Shirpur, the Bhendawa nallah near Mohide, the Gomai river near Bamarkheda, the Swarnamati river near Bhamkheda, the Mohis river near Wadali, the Valheri river near Nalgawhan, the Nimshiwdi nallah near Vanyavihir, the Belhi river near Khapar, the Pechirideo river near Raysingnagar and the Gauhali nallah near Gauhali. For the purpose of mile numbering the road is divided into four sections viz., (1) Shirpur-Raver (in Jalgaon district), (ii) Shirpur-Shahada, (iii) Taloda-Shahada, and (iv) Taloda to State border. These sections touch the following places :—

Section	Place	M. No.
(1) Shirpur-Raver[1]	Misala	15/7
	Borkheda	2/8
(2) Shirpur-Shahada[2]	Arthe	5/7
	Vikhran	7/1
	Varul	11/3
	Torkheda	15/0
	Bhamkheda	18/3
	Wadali	20/4

* N. H.=National Highway.
S. H.=State Highway.
M. D. R.=Major District Road.
O. D. R.=Other District Road.

** Formerly this road, formed part of the Surat-Dhulia-Edalabad-Nagpur State highway. It is now upgraded as a *national highway* according to Road Development Plan, 1961-81.

*** Zero mileage from Surat.

[1] This road emanates from Dhulia and runs in common with Dhulia-Nagpur road for the length of 4/7 miles.

* Zero mileage from Surat.
[1] Zero mileage from Shirpur towards the east.
[2] Zero mileage from Shirpur towards the west upto Shahada.

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Surat-Dhulia Road.

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Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Burhanpur. Roads.

Section	Place	M. No.
(3) Taloda-Shahada[1] ...	Amlad ...	2/0
	Prakashe ...	10/6
	Damarkheda ...	14/2
	Shahada ...	19/4
(4) Taloda-Akkalkuwa-Sagbara[2] ...	Somawel ...	5/0
	Vanyavihir ...	10/3
	Akkalkuwa ...	12/4
	Khapar ...	18/2

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of junction.	Name and class of road.
Tonde ..	Shirpur-Thalner-Pilode-Tonde M. D. R.
Dahiwad ..	Bombay-Agra N. H.
Shirpur ..	Shirpur-Thalner-Pilode-Tonde M. D. R.
Shahada ..	(i) Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia S. H..
	(ii) Shahada-Aslad M. D. R.
Prakashe ..	Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S. H.
Taloda ..	(i) Taloda-Hattoda M. D. R.
	(ii) Taloda-Dhadgaon M. D. R.

The length of 125 km. from the Aner river bridge to Akkalkuwa has a black-topped surface and the remaining one of about 11 km. from Akkalkuwa to State border is water bound macadam. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Dhulia-Amalner-Chopda Road.

This road runs in common for a length of four miles and seven furlongs with the Dhulia-Edalabad-Nagpur national highway upto Fagane, from where it emanates to run towards the north-east. It leaves for Jalgaon district at M. No. 11 from Dhulia. It traverses only the Dhulia taluka for a net length of 9·85 km. which has a black-topped surface. It touches Mohadi (M. No. 2/0), Fagane (M. No. 4/7), Wani (M. No. 7/7) and Navran (M. No. 10/7). It crosses the Kaner river at M. No. 8/0 near Wani. The Nawara-Nawari-Mohadi road emanates from Nawara. It is motorable throughout the year.

Dhulia-Chalisgaon-Aurangabad Road.

This highway starts from Dhulia and runs towards the south-east to enter Jalgaon district at M. No. 19/5. It traverses only the Dhulia taluka for the total length of about 31 km. This road runs parallel to the Dhulia-Chalisgaon railway line upto Chalisgaon. It however crosses the railway at Ranmal. There are three major bridges on this road located at the following places: at M. No. 3/7 on the Savalde nallah near Savalde, at M. No. 4/6 on the Anwar nallah near Savalde and at M. No. 14/3 on the Bori river near Vinchur.

It touches the following places in its stretch: Savalde (M. No. 3/2); Ranmal (M. No. 4/3); Borvihir (M. No. 8/8); Vinchur (M. No. 14/2) and Talwade (M. No. 17/0).

The entire length of this road has a black-topped surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Vinchur-Chandvad-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road.

It starts from Vinchur in Nasik, enters Dhulia district at M. No. 52/7 near Shelbari, runs towards the north upto Pimpalner and

[1] Zero mileage from Taloda towards the east upto Shahada.
[2] Zero mileage from Taloda towards the west upto State border.

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*Vinchur-Chandwad-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road.**

then towards the east upto Shewali. It runs towards the north from Shewali to Nandurbar and takes a north-east turn upto Prakashe where it ends. It traverses Sakri, Nandurbar and Shahada talukas for a length of 101·84 km. It crosses many rivers and nallahs where there are bridges as mentioned below :—at M. No. 47/0 on the Panzara river near Pimpalner, at M. No. 25/0 on Rodi river near Nizampur; at M. No. 20/5 on the Borai river near Vajadare, and at M. No. 12/0 on the Tapi river near Korit.

The names of places on the way and the roads crossed by it are given below :—

Place	M. No.**	Name and class of road.
Shelbari ...	52/0	.....
Deshirwade ...	48/2	.....
Pimpalner ...	46/2	Pimpalner-Warsa-Nawapur M. D. R.
Samode ...	44/1	Samode-Dahiwel M. D. R.
Sakri ...	32/4	Surat-Dhulia S. H.
Bhamer ...	29/0	Dondaicha-Dusane-Bhamer M. D. R.
Nizampur ...	24/0	.....
Titane ...	19/0	.....
Chhadwel ...	17/0	.....
Ashte ...	6/7	.....
Nandurbar ...	0/0	(i) Nandurbar-Pathrai M. D. R.
		(ii) Nandurbar-Dhanora M. D. R.
		(iii) Nandurbar-Dondaicha M. D. R.
Prakashe[1] ...	11/4	Burhanpur-Shahada-Ankaleshwar S. H.

The length of 84·24 km. from Shelbari to Nandurbar has a black-topped surface and the length of 17·60 km. from Nandurbar to Korit is water bound macadam. The road is motorable throughout the year.

Shahada-Dhadgaon to State border Road.

This road starts from Shahada, runs towards the north upto Dara after which it runs in northwest direction upto Dhadgaon and thence towards the north upto district border where it crosses the Narmada river near Jalshindhi project and leaves for Baroda district in Gujarat State. The length of this road is proposed to be 97·76 km. of which only a length of 57·92 km. from Shahada to Dhadgaon is existing and the rest from Dhadgaon to State border is under construction. This road runs in common with the Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia road from Shahada to Mohide for a length of 4·87 km. which has a black-topped surface. It crosses many small rivers and nallahs. There is a major bridge across the Uday river. It touches the following places :[2] Patilwadi (2/4 mile), Fattepur (3/8 mile), Padalde (4/2 mile), Mhasvad (Mile 5/6).

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :

Place of junction.	Name and class of road.
Shahada ..	(i) Burhanpur-Shahada-Ankaleshwar S. H.
	(ii) Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia S. H.
	(iii) Shahada-Aslod-Madane M. D. R.
Padalde ..	Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia S. H.

* Formerly this road was known as the Taloda-Nandurbar-Sakri-Pimpalner-Satana Road.

** Mile numbering is done from Nandurbar upto the Nasik District border on the south as also upto Prakashe on the north.

[1] Prakashe is near Korit.
[2] Zero mileage from Dara towards north-west and south.

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Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia Road.

The length of 4·87 km. from Shahada to Mohide has a black-topped surface, that of 10·86 km. from Mohide to Dara is water bound macadam and the length of 42·23 km. from Dara to Dhadgaon has a gravelled surface.

It starts from No. 222/6 of the Bombay-Agra national highway near Songir, runs towards the north-west upto Shahada and thence towards the north-east upto the district border, where it leaves for Madhya Pradesh at M. No. 63/5*. It traverses Sindkheda and Shahada talukas for a length of 83·87 km. It crosses the Tapi river in M. No. 43 near Sarangkhede, the Bhendwa nallah in M. No. 50/6 and M. No. 50/8 near Mohide and the Gomai river in M. No. 54/3 near Lonkhede. There are major bridges at the above mentioned river crossings, and the bridge on the Borai river near Chimthane is under construction. The names of places on the way and the roads crossed or touched by it are mentioned below.

Place		M. No.**	Name and class of road
Songir	...	11/7	Bombay-Agra N. H.
Chimthane	...	21/7	Chimthane-Sindkheda M. D. R.
Dondaicha	...	36/0	(i) Sukwad-Sindkheda-Virdel-Dondaicha M. D. R. (ii) Dondaicha-Nandurbar M. D. R. (iii) Dondaicha-Dusane M. D. R.
Sarangkhede	...	42/7	.....
Shahada	...	52/0	Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Burhanpur S. H.[1]
Lonkheda	...	54/3	.....
Padalde	...	56/2	Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S. H.
Sultanpur	...	59/0	.....

The entire length of this road has a black-topped surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Nandurbar-Visarwadi Road.

It starts from Nandurbar, runs towards the south-west through forest areas upto Visarwadi and traverses Nandurbar and Nawapur talukas for the total length of 38·44 km. This road runs parallel to Surat-Bhusawal railway line from Nandurbar to Khandbara. It crosses three nallahs at M. No. 2/3 M. No. 6/1 and M. No. 9/4 where there are bridges. It touches the following places: Dhekwad (4/0 mile), Wirchak (7/4 mile), Shaswad (10/0 mile), Khandbara (12/8 mile), Khadki (17/4 mile), and Visarwadi (24/0 mile). This road meets the Surat-Dhulia State Highway at M. No. 73/4 near Visarwadi. The entire length of this road has a gravelled surface.

Major District Roads.

Akkalkuwa-Kathi-Dhadgaon Road.

This road starts from M. No. 12/4 of the Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur state highway at Akkalkuwa, runs towards the north upto Kathi and thence towards the east upto Dhadgaon. This road runs through the forest areas and traverses Akkalkuwa taluka and Akrani mahal for a total length of 48·71 km. This road meets the Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon state highway at Dhadgaon. It touches Gangapur, Dab, Junwani, Kathi, Khuntamodi and Son in its stretch. The total length of 24 km. of this road is water bound macadam, while that of 24·70 km. has a gravelled surface.

* Zero mileage from Dhulia.

** Zero mileage from Dhulia.

[1] This state highway runs in common with the Songir-Dondaicha-Khetia Road for some distance.

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Mhasawad-Ranipur Jaipani-Kolapani-Toranmal Road.

It starts from M. No. 5/6 of the Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon state highway at Mhaswad and runs towards the north upto Toranmal on the State border. It traverses the Shahada taluka and Akrani mahal for a total length of 41·84 km. and touches Padalde, Amode, Lakkadkot, Ranipur, Kalapani and Toranmal in its stretch. The entire length of this road is gravelled and motorable in the fair weather season.

Taloda-Dhadgaon Road.

This road starts from Taloda, runs towards the north upto Dhadgaon where it touches the Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon state highway and traverses Taloda taluka and Akrani mahal for a length of 34·75 km. It traverses through the hilly tracks and touches Chinoda-Kothar and Mankhedi in its stretch. A portion of 11 km. is water bound macadam, while that of 23·75 km. has a gravelled surface.

Shahada-Madane to State border Road.

This road starts from Shahada, runs towards the north-east upto State border for a total length of 30·57 km. through Shahada taluka. It touches Dongargaon, Aslod, Madane, and Wadgaon and leaves for Madhya Pradesh. The length of 4·83 km. of this road is water bound macadam, that of 17·30 km. is gravelled, and the remaining one is under construction. The portion of the road already constructed is motorable in fair weather season.

Shahade-Khondmali-Koparli-Ranale Road.

This road starts from Shahade (in Nandurbar taluka), runs towards the east upto Koparli, and then towards the south-east upto Ranale. It traverses the Nandurbar taluka for a total length of 32·90 km. and crosses the Surat-Bhusawal railway line near Ranale railway station. It meets the Dondaicha-Nandurbar road at Ranale and touches Khondmali, Koparli, Ranale railway station and Ranale. The length of 6·44 km. of this road is water bound macadam, while that of 16·88 km. has a gravelled surface, the remaining being under construction.

Aslod-Malgaon-Budki-Sangvi Road.

This road starts from Aslod, runs towards the east upto Boradi and thence towards the south-east upto Sangvi where it meets the Bombay-Agra national highway. It traverses Shahada and Shirpur talukas for a total length of 45·06 km. It touches Malgaon, Budki and Sangvi. The road is gravelled and motorable in the fair weather season.

Nandurbar-Dhanora Road.

Starting from Nandurbar, this road runs towards the north-west upto Dhanora on the State border. It traverses only Nandurbar taluka for a total length of 23·73 km. and touches Pimplod, Dhanora and Borale. The Khandava-Pimplod road meets this road at Pimplod. A portion of 18 km. is water bound macadam and the remaining is gravelled.

Ranale-Tishi-Korit Road.

It starts from Ranale, runs towards the north-west upto Tishi (railway station), where it crosses the Surat-Bhusawal railway line and thence it proceeds towards the north upto Korit. It crosses the Shahade-Khondmali-Koparli-Ranale road near Khondmali, and touches Tishi, Khondmali and Korit. Its length is 20·11 km. which is gravelled.

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Khandbara-Natawad-Pimplod Road.

It starts from Khandbara and runs towards north-east upto Pimplod where it meets the Nandurbar-Dhanora road. It touches Shirwade, Kothali, Natawad and Pimplod and traverses only the Nandurbar taluka for a total length of 16·49 km. The road has a gravelled surface.

Shirpur-Thalner-Manjrod-Pilode-Hol-Tonde Road.

Starting from Shirpur this road runs towards the south-east upto Pilode and thence towards the north-east upto Tonde where it meets the Ankleshwar-Shahada-Sirpur-Burhanpur state highway. It touches Pimpre, Thalner, Bhortek, Manjrod, Pilode, Hol and Tonde. Its total length is 34·40 km. of which that of 32·78 km. has a gravelled surface, the remaining portion being under construction.

Dondaicha-Nandurbar Road.

This road starts from Dondaicha and runs towards the west upto Nandurbar. It traverses Sindkheda and Nandurbar talukas for a total length of 33·79 km. and touches Dhawade, Ghotane, and Ranale. The Shahade-Khondmali-Koparli-Ranale and the Ranale-Tishi-Korit roads meet this road at Ranale. The entire length of this road is black-topped and motorable throughout the year.

Sindkheda-Chimthane-Shewade-Road.

It starts from Sindkheda, runs towards the south-west upto Chimthane, where it crosses the Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia State Highway, after which it runs towards the west upto Dusane. From Sindkheda to Arawe it runs parallel to the Borai river. It touches Malpur, Chimthane, Arawe, Shewade, Bulsane and Dusane. The road traverses Sindkheda and Sakri talukas for a total length of about 39 km., of which a portion of 4 km. is black-topped, of 8·66 km. is water bound macadam, while the remaining is gravelled.

Sukwad-Sindkheda-Virdel-Dondaicha Road.

The road starts from Sukwad on the Bombay-Agra road and runs towards the west up to Sindkheda, where it crosses the Borai river. From Sindkheda it runs towards the north-west upto Virdel and thence towards the west upto Dondaicha. This road traverses only Sindkheda taluka for a total length of 40·23 km. It touches Sindkheda, Warul, Virdel, Dalwada, Dhamane, Kurukwada and Dondaicha. Its length of 30·37 km. is water bound macadam and motorable throughout the year.

Waghadi-Wadi-Boradi Road.

It runs towards the north upto Budki and thence towards the east upto Boradi. It runs in common with the Aslod-Malgaon-Budki-Sangwi road from Budki to Boradi. It traverses only Shirpur taluka for a total length of 19 km. and touches Kuwa, Wadi, Varzadi, Budki and Boradi. The road has a gravelled surface.

Nawapur-Borzar-Warse-Pimpalner Road.

This road starts from the Maharashtra-Gujarat border near Nawapur, runs towards the south-east upto Warse and thence towards the east upto Pimpalner. It traverses the Nawapur and Sakri talukas for a total length of 57·39 km. The road crosses the Surat-Bhusawal railway line and the Surat-Dhulia road near Nawapur. There are major bridges on this road, one each at M. No. 32/0 and M. No. 33/0. It touches Nawapur, Chauka, Nagzari, Borzar, Warse, Kudashi and Pimpalner. The road is water bound macadam and motorable in the fair weather season only.

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Dondaicha-Dusane to Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road.

The road starts from Dondaicha on the Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia road and runs towards the south-west to meet the Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe road. It runs parallel to the Amravati river upto Malpur and traverses Sindkheda, Nandurbar and Sakri talukas for a total length of 40·23 km. and touches Malpur, Talwada, Indve, Dusane, Chauki and Bhadgaon. The Sindkheda-Chimthane-Dusane road meets it near Dusane. The Nizampur-Lamkani-Mandale road is crossed by this road near Hordana. The portion of 6·44 km. of the road is black-topped, of 23·33 km. is water bound macadam and the remaining is gravelled. The road is motorable in the fair weather season only.

Dhulia-Mehergaon-Chinchwar-Saitale Road.

It starts from M. No. 212 of the Bombay-Agra road at Deopur and runs towards the north-west upto Saitale. It traverses only Dhulia taluka for a total length of 30 km. and touches Deopur, Bhokar, Nimdale, Mehergaon, Chinchwar and Saitale. The entire length except 2·13 km. has a gravelled surface and is motorable only in the fair season.

Shewade-Lamkani-Shirdhane-Ner Road.

It starts from Shewade, runs in southern direction and meets the Surat-Dhulia highway near Ner. It traverses Sindkheda and Dhulia talukas for a total length of 29·76 km. and crosses the Borai river near Shewade. It touches Lamkani, Saitale, Phopra and Shirdhane. Its length of 9·66 km. is water bound macadam, of about 14 km. is gravelled, and the remaining one is under construction.

Nizampur-Lamkani to Bombay-Agra Road.

This road starts from Nizampur on the Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe road and runs towards the east to meet the Bombay-Agra road. It traverses Sakri and Dhulia talukas for a total length of 40·84 km. and touches Hordana, Mhasale, Lonkheda, Lamkani, Rami, Bori, Burzad and Mandale. The entire road is gravelled and motorable only in the fair season.

Arvi-Hendrun-Borkund-Shirul-Parola Road.

This road starts from Arvi at M. No. 200/0 of the Bombay-Agra road, runs towards the east upto Borkund and thence towards the north-east upto Dhulia-Jalgaon district border, where it leaves for Parola in Jalgaon district. It touches Moghan, Hendrun, Shirud, Velhane and Dhamangaon. It is crossed by the Dhulia-Chalisgaon Aurangabad State highway near Borkund as also by the Dhulia-Chalisgaon railway line near Shirud. It traverses only Dhulia taluka for a length of 30·50 km. which is water bound macadam.

Mulgi-Wadphali-Manibeli Road.

This road starts from Mulgi on the Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon road, runs towards the west upto Wadphali and thence towards the north upto Manibeli on the south bank of the Narmada river. It traverses only the Akkalkuwa taluka through the hilly area for a total length of 32 km. It touches Bijaligaon, Pimpalkhuta, Wadphali and Manibeli. The road is gravelled and motorable in fair weather season.

The following table gives the account of the remaining major district roads :—

TABLE No. 1

ACCOUNT OF MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS OTHER THAN THOSE DESCRIBED ABOVE IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Serial No.	Name of road	Length (in km.) Black-topped	Water bound macadam	Gravelled	Total	Talukas it traverses	Roads met or crossed by it	Places touched by it
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Ban-Dara-Ranipur	.. ..	..	12·71	12·71	Shahada	(i) Mhaswad-Ranipur-Toranmal M. D.R. (ii) Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S.H.	Ban, Dara and Ranipur.
2	Taloda-Hattoda ..	.. 2·42	..	..	2·42	Taloda	Ankaleshwar-Shadada-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	Taloda and Hattoda.
3	Aslod-Borala-Sarangkhede	.. .	..	9·77	9·77	Shahada	Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	Aslod, Kaothal, Borali, Kothali and Sarangkheda.
4	Nandurbar-Patharai	.. 14·4	..	..	1·44	Nandurbar	(i) Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S.H. (ii) Nandurbar-Visarwadi S.H. (iii) Nandurbar-Dondaicha M.D.R. (iv) Nandurbar-Dhanora M.D.R.	Nandurbar, Karajkhupe, Dhamdai and Patharai.
5	Sangvi-Sagbhatti ..	.. ..	..	4·82	4·82	Shirpur	Bombay-Agra N.H.	Sangvi and Khamkhede.
6	Shirpur Town road ..	.. 1·34	..	..	1·34	Shirpur	Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	
7	Sindkheda-Gorane ..	.. ..	14·88	..	14·88	Sindkheda	(i) Bombay-Agra N.H. (ii) Sindkheda-Chimthana-Dusane M.D.R. (iii) Sukwad-Sindkheda-Dondaicha M.D.R. (iv) Surat-Bhusawal Railway near Dabli.	Sindkheda, Dabli and Gorane,
8	Nardhana approach ..	0·60	..	..	0·60	Sindkheda	Bombay-Agra N.H.	Nardhana
9	Raipur-Ahawa		7·24	..	7·24	Nawapur ..	Nandurbar-Pimpalner M.D.R	Raipur and Vadkalambi.
10	Nardhana-Betawad to district border ..		9·96	..	9·96	Sindkheda	Bombay-Agra N.H.	Nardhana, Betwad and Warud.
11	Samoda-Dahiwel		12·25	..	12·25	Sakri	(i) Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S.H. (ii) Sakri-Dahiwel-Kondaibari M.D.R.	Samode, Ghodade and Dahiwel.
12	Shewali-Behed upto district border	4·40	4·80	..	16·04	Sakri	(i) Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S.H. (ii) Ner-Mhasadi-Dhamner M.D.R.	Kasare, Nadase, Behed and and Vitai.
13	Kusumbe-Chaugaon upto district border ..		..	12.60	12·60	Dhulia	Surat-Dhulia S.H.	Kusumbe, Chaugaon and Ajanale.
14	Ner-Mhasadi-Dhamner-Behed. ..		..	1·00	17.50	18·50	Dhulia and Sakri	(i) Surat-Dhulia S.H. (ii) Shewali-Behed M.D.R.	Ner, Deur, Mhasadi, Dhamner and Behed.
15	Mehergaon-Kauthal		..	4.83	4·83	Dhulia	Dhulia-Mehergaon-Chinchwar M.D.R.	Mehergaon and Kauthal.
16	Nawara-Mohadi		..	11.16	11·16	Dhulia	Dhulia-Amalner S.H.	Nawara, Satarne and Mohadi.
17	Gauhali-Moramba upto district border. ..		..	32·00	32·00	Akkalkuwa	Ankaleshwar-Shahada-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	Mauhali, Moramba, Khadakpani and Horphali.

TABLE No. 2

OTHER DISTRICT ROADS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Serial No.	Name of Road	Length (in km.) Black-topped	Water bound macadam	Gravelled	Total	Talukas traversed	Important roads met or crossed by it	Important places touched by it.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Dhadgaon-Mundalwad-Varkhedi	..	..	15·00	15·00	Akrani	(i) Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S.H. (ii) Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon M.D.R.	Dhadgaon, Mundalvad and Varkhedi.
2	Dhadgaon-Shelkui-Talkhedi ..	..	..	16·00	16·00	Akrani	Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon M.D.R.	Shelkuwi, Khardi and Tekhadi.
3	Bijari-Mandvi upto Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	..	..	11·50	11·50	Akrani	(i) Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H. (ii) Taloda-Dhadgaon M.D.R.	Bijari, Shirsani, Vavi and Mandvi.
4	Kuktar-Surwani-Mundalvad-Kaparpati	..	..	17·00	17·00	Akrani	Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S.H.	Kuktar, Surwani and Mundalvad.
5	Nandurbar-Junmohide-Bhaler-Koparli	..	..	20·00	20·00	Nandurbar	(i) Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe S. H. at Nandurbar. (ii) Nandurbar-Visarwadi S.H. (iii) Ranale-Tishi-Korit M.D.R. at Bhaler. (iv) Dondaicha-Koparli	Junmohide, Bhaler and Koparli.
6	Dab-Jamana ..	..	..	12·87	12·87	Akkalkuwa	Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon M.D.R.	Dab, Todikund, Chivalutar and Jamana.
7	Datarti-Deur-Ubhand	..	..	4·80	4·80	Sakri and Dhulia	Ner-Mhasadi-Dhamner M.D.R.	Datarti, Wasmar, Deur and Ubhand.
8	Moramba-Raisingpur joining the Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon road.	..	..	13·63	13·63	Akkalkuwa	Akkalkuwa-Dhadgaon M.D.R.	Moramba, Nawanagarmutha and Raisingpur.
9	Khapar-Raisingpur-Vadphali ..	..	..	8·05	8·05	Akkalkuwa	Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	Khapar, Raisingpur, Ambabari, Mogra and Vadphali.
10	Amlad-Bhade-Borad-Sultanpur.	..	..	28·46	28·46	Taloda and Shahada	(i) Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H. (ii) Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S.H. (iii) Songir-Dondaicha-Khetia S.H.	Amlad, Bhade, Borad, Kalambi, Chikhali, Mhaswad and Sultanpur.
11	Mhasawad-Padalde-Katharde ..	..	..	11·26	11·26	Shahada	Shahada-Dara-Dhadgaon S.H.	Budigavan, Padalde and Katharde.
12	Prakashe-Vaijali-Kalmadi ..	..	..	0·12	6·42	Shahada	Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar Prakashe S.H.	Vaijali and Kalmadi
13	Jalod-Kondhaval to Aslod-Borale-Sarangkheda road.	..	..	3·00	3·00	Shahada	Aslod-Borale-Sarangkheda M.D.R.	Jalod, Phopra and Kauthal.
14	Aslod-Brahmanpuri upto Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia S.H	..	..	8·04	8·04	Shahada	Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada Khetia S.H.	Londra, Brahmanpuri and Sultanpur.
15	Damarkheda-Shelti ..	..	..	4·80	4·80	Shahada	(i) Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H. (ii) Shahade-Khondmali-Koparli-Ranale M.D.R.	Damarkheda, Palaswada, Nandarkheda and Shelti.
16	Mandane-Jawade ..	..	..	8·20	8·20	Shahada	Shahada-Aslod-Vadgaon M.D.R.	Mandane and Jawade.
17	Shahada-Vaijali-Osarli ..	..	..	3·20	3·20	Shahada	Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur S.H.	Katharde and Vaijali
18	Palasner-Boradi ..	..	..	14·48	14·48	Shirpur	Bombay-Agra N.H.	Palasner and Boradi.
19	Nandurbar-Dhanora upto Khandbara-Borad road.	..	..	3·21	3·21	Nandurbar	(i) Nandurbar-Dhanora M.D.R. (ii) Khandbara-Borad M.D.R.	Kothali

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of Road	Length (in km.) Black-topped	Water bound macadam	Gravelled	Total	Talukas traversed	Important roads met or crossed by it.	Important places touched by it.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20	Dondaicha-Shewade	..	..	12·00	12·00	Sindkheda	(*i*) Songir—Dondaicha—Khetia S. H. (*ii*) Dondaicha—Nandurbar M. D. R. (*iii*) Sukwad—Sindkheda—Dondaicha M.D.R. (*iv*) Sindkheda—Chimthane—Dusane M.D.R. (*v*) Shirdhane—Lamkane—Shewade M.D.R.	Kharda, Vikharan, Warzadi, Degaon and Shewade.
21	Dondaicha-Tembha	..	..	8·05	8·05	Sindkheda	Roads No.(*i*), (ii) and (*iii*) as above	Daul nad Tembha.
22	Vikharan-Tekwade	..	..	7·07	7·07	Shirpur	Ankaleshwar- Shirpur-Burhanpur, S.H.	Londra and Tekwade
23	Shirpur-Karwand-Lauki upto Bombay-Agra N.H.	..	..	13·50	13·50	Shirpur	Do.	Karwand and Lauki.
24	Sule-Rohini up to Tonde-Bhoitti road and from Kavthal to Bhamkheda.	..	..	3·20	3·20	Shirpur and Shahada.	(*i*) Bombay- Agra N. H. (*ii*) Tonde—Khambe M.D.R.	Sule, Fattepur and Rohini.
25	Chinchpada - Kel - Sonare — Khatgaon.	..	0·59	0·59	1·18	Nawapur	Do.	Kel and Sonare.
26	Rayangan-Dhayate	..	..	5·40	8·40	13·80	Nawapur	Surat— Dhulia S. H. ..	Pengaran and Dhayate.
27	Khandbora-Vaslai	..	..	..	7·23	7·23	Nawapur and Nandurbar.	Nandurbar- Visarwadi S.H.	Karanjali and Vasalai.
28	Khatgaon-Shehi upto State border	..	1·60	11·27	12·87	Nawapur	Do.	Khatgaon and Shehi.
29	Ashte-Khandbara	..	..	..	23·33	23·33	Nandurbar and Nawapur.	(*i*) Vinchur—Sakri—Nandurbar— Prakashe S.H. (*ii*) Nandurbar—Visarwadi S. H.	Do.
30	Langhane-Bamhane-Dhamana	..	..	18·50	18·50	Sindkheda ..	Sukwad—Sindkheda—Virdel —Dondaicha M.D.R.	Langhane, Bamhane and Dhamana.
31	Virdel - Ranjane - Kalgaon-Lohgaon-Torkheda	..	..	2·01	2·01	Sindkheda ..	Do. ..	Varpada, Ranjane, Kalgaon and Lohgaon.
32	Songir-Waghadi-Betawad-Vikwel	..	8·45	20·55	29·00	Sindkheda and Dhulia.	Bombay— Agra N. H.	Waghadi and Betawad.
33	Gorane-Khalane up to Songir-Dondaicha Khetia S.H.	..	..	12·87	12·87	Sindkheda ..	(*i*) Bombay Agra N.H. (*ii*) Songir— Dondaicha-Khetia S.H.	Vitai, Khalane, Nishane, Dalwade and Chimthane,
34	Warud-Pashte-Vikwel	..	..	..	9·25	9·25	Sindkheda ..	Nardhana— Betawad M.D.R.	Warud, Pashte, Mudwad, Maltar and Vikwel .
35	Sindkheda-Varpada-Shirpur	..	..	..	12·87	12·87	Sindkheda ..	Sakwad—Sindkheda— Dond-Dondaicha M.D.R.	Patan, Varsus, Newade and Varpada.
36	Shirpur-Thalner-Bhatpura	..	..	..	4·00	4·00	Shirpur ..	Bombay- Agra N. H.	Thalner and Bhptpura.
37	Nawapur-Zamanzar-Khekade	..	..	..	4·82	4·82	Nawapur ..	Surat—Dhulia S.H.	Zamanzar and Khekade.
68	Raipur - Nagzari - Davanyapada - Chaupade-Rothod-Dahiwel	..	..	..	22·00	22·00	Nawapur and Sakri.	(*i*) Surat—Dhulia S. H. (*ii*) Samode—DahiwelM.D.R. (*iii*) Nawapur— Borzar—Warsa— Pimpalner M.D.R.	Nagzari, Davanyapada, Chaupade, Rothod, Shirsole and Dahiwel.

TABLE No. 2—*contd.*

Serial No.	Name of the road	Length (in km.) Black-topped	Water bound macadam	Gravelled	Total	Talukas traversed	Important roads met or crossed by it	Important places touched by it.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
39	Dapur-Karanji Savarat ..	..	..	2·50	2·50	Nawapur	Surat—Dhulia S. H.	Dapur and Karanji.
40	Shirdhana - Vardhane upto Nandurbar-Sakri S.H.	..	..	9·65	9·65	Sakri	(*i*) Vinchur—Sakri—Nandurbar—Prakashe S.H. (*ii*) Shewade—Shisdhane upto Surat—Dhulia road.	Dhadgaon, Vardhane, Nagpur and Aine.
41	Nizampur-Brahmanwel ..	..	..	15·20	15·20	Sakri ..	Vinchur—Sakri—Nandurbar—Prakashe S. H.	Vaskhedi and Brahmanwel.
42	Kondaibari - Pinarzadi-Brahmanwel-Korde.	..	..	18·91	18·91	Sakri	(*i*) Surat—Dhulia S. H. (*ii*) Vinchur—Sakri—Nandurbar—Praksahe S.H.	Pinjarazadi, Brahmanwel and Chhadwel. Danghirwade, Bopkhel and Shenvad.
43	Warsa - Bopkhel - Dhamandhar - Shenvad.	..	..	5·50	5·50	Sakri	Nawapur—Borzar—Warsa—Pimpalner M.D.R.	Danpada, Amale and Dhaner Tembhe and Rothod.
44	Danpada-Dhaner-Kondaibori ..	..	..	9·65	9.65	Sakri	Surat—Dhulia S.H.	Do.
45	Umarpate-Tembhe-Rothod ..	..	..	5·00	5·00	Sakri	Nawapur—Borzar—Warsa—Pimpalner M.D.R.	
46	Warsa-Shenvad	..	..	10·43	10·43	Sakri	Nawapur—Warsa—Pimpainer M.D.R.	
47	Starting from the Nawapur - Pimpalner-Warse road upto State border.	..	3·20	4·00	7·20	Sakri	Do.	Do.
48	Pimpalner-Degaon-Darkhel ..	..	..	19·00	19·00	Sakri	(*i*) Vinchur—Sakri—Nadurbar—Prakashe S.H. (*ii*) Nandurbar—Warsa—Pimpalner M.D.R. (*iii*) Shewde—Behed M.D.R.	Deshirwade, Degaon Dighawe, Chhail and Darkhel.
49	Kasare-Pratappur-Nalgavan ..	5·00	5.00	10·80	20·80	Sakri	Sakri—Nandurbar—Prakashe S. H.	Kasare, Prtappur and Nalgavan.
50	Ner-approach road ..	..	1.20	..	1·20	Dhulia	Surat—Dhulia S.H.	Ner.
51	Ner-Approach road ..	..	0.80	..	0·80	Dhulia	Surat—Dhulia S.H.	Ner.
52	Dhulia-Ajanale ..	..	..	16·09	16·09	Dhulia ..	Surat-Dhulia S. H. ..	Chitod, Raver and Ajanale.
53	Dhulia-Vadjai-Anchade ..	..	3·68	8·72	12·40	Dhulia ..	(*i*) Bombay-Agra N. H. .. (*ii*) Dhulia-Nagpur N. H. .. (*iii*) Surat-Dhulia S. H..	Vadjai, Baundane, Babulwadi and Anchade.
54	Khede-Kundane-Chaugaon ..	..	..	11·46	11·46	Dhulia ..	(*i*) Surat-Dhulia S. H. .. (*ii*) Kusumbe-Chaugaon M. D. R.	Kundane, Udane, Gotane and Chaugaon.
55	Borkund-Kulthe ..	..	..	0·80	0·80	Dhulia ..	.....	.....
56	Lonkhedi-Nandre ..	..	..	8·05	8·05	Dhulia ..	Surat-Dhulia S. H. ..	Nandre.
57	Dhulia-Mohadi-Kulthe ..	..	1·80	20·73	22·53	Dhulia ..	(*i*) Bombay-Agra N. H. .. (*ii*) Dhulia-Nagpur N. H. (*iii*) Surat-Dhulia S. H. (*iv*) Dhulia-Aurangabad S.H.	Tiki, Monghan and Kulthe.
58	Biladi-Nyahalod-Kauthal ..	..	1·80	22·34	24·14	Dhulia ..	Bomay-Agra N. H. ..	Biladi, Nyahalod and Kauthal.
59	Mukti-Shirud-Nane ..	..	10·00	14·10	24·10	Dhulia ..	Dhulia-Edalabad-Nagpur N. H.	Amlad, Shirud, Vinchur and Nane.
60	Talwade-Nandale ..	..	..	8·05	8·05	Dhulia ..	Dhulia-Aurangabad S. H. ..	Talwade and Nandale.
61	Arvi-Kulthe ..	..	..	8·05	8·05	Dhulia ..	Bombay-Agra N. H. ..	Arvi and Kulthe.
62	Laling-Ajanale ..	..	3·74	6·70	10·44	Dhulia ..	Bomay-Agra N. H. ..	.....
63	Shirud-Mordar ..	..	2·59	..	2·59	Dhulia ..	.....	Khordar and Mordar.
64	Bombay-Agra N. H. to Dapuri Dongargaon.	..	..	9·66	9·66	Dhulia ..	.....	.....
65	Sindkheda-Varshi ..	..	1·20	8·44	9·64	Sindkheda ..	(*i*) Sukwad-Sindkheda-Dondaicha M. D. R. (*ii*) Sindkheda—Chimthane-Dusane M. D. R.	Varshi.
66	Rohana-Mukti ..	..	..	3·62	3·62	Sindkheda ..	.....	Rohana and Mukti.
67	Khandbara-Shehi ..	..	..	8·05	8·05	Nawapur ..	Nandurbar-Visarwadi S. H.	Khandbara and Shehi.
	Total ..	5·00	51·25	701·50	757·75			

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

ROADS.

Municipal Roads.

Roads in municipal towns are maintained by the respective municipalities. There are very few cement concrete and asphalted roads in this district under municipal administration. The following statement gives an account of municipal road mileage in Dhulia district :—

Name of the Municipality	Metalled Length M. F.	Unmetalled Length M. F.	Total M. F.
1. Shahada Kukdel	1 0	6 0	7 0
2. Taloda	0 5	4 4	5 1
3. Nandurbar	8 1	14 4	22 5
4. Shirpur-Warvade	9 2	0 ¾	9 2¼
5. Dondaicha	6 0	1 2	7 2
6. Dhulia	36 0	0 2	36 2
Total ..	61 0	26 4¼	87 4¼

Vehicles plying within Municipal Limits.

The following is an account of different kinds of vehicles which are plying within the municipal limits of different municipalities in Dhulia district.

Name of Municipality	Number of Motors*	Cycles	Tongas	Bullock Carts	Motor Cycles
1. Shahada Kukdel ..	36	535	....	450	5
2. Taloda ..	*N.A.*	*N.A.*	*N.A.*	*N.A.*	*N.A.*
3. Nandurbar ..	66	713	24	670	25
4. Shirpur ..	72	*N.A.*	2	457	..
5. Dondaicha ..	16	355	2	350	16
6. Dhulia ..	347	*N.A.*	118	760	80

*The number of motors includes taxis, private cars, passenger cars and trucks.

BRIDGES.

With a net-work of road-communications in the district, a number of river-crossings have bridges. Similar small bridges have been constructed over many nallahs. The construction of bridges has eased the difficulties of transport and communications especially during the monsoon.

One of the most important bridge in the district is the Syke's bridge (*Sukwad Pool*).

Till 1954 it was the only bridge on the Tapi river. In 1959 as the Tapi overflowed due to torrential rains, some portion of the bridge near Shirpur collapsed and communication on the Bombay-Agra road was completely dislocated.

Sarangkheda Bridge.

To overcome the difficulty, a temporary bridge was constructed near Dabhashi on the Tapi river. However, the bridge could not carry the overload of heavy traffic. Ultimately the original bridge was repaired at a cost of Rs. 7 lakhs.

The other bridge on the Tapi river is near Sarangkheda. In the past the area of the district north of the Tapi used to be cut-off from the rest of the district during the monsoon.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

BRIDGES.

The construction of the Sarangkheda bridge on the river Tapi has facilitated communication across the Tapi throughout the year.

The work of the construction of Sarangkheda bridge was undertaken in 1953-54 and the bridge was completed and opened for traffic in 1957.

Other Bridges.

There is yet another bridge constructed on Arunavati river near Shirpur at the cost of Rs. 9 lakhs.

It is proposed to construct a bridge near Shahada on river Gomati. This is estimated to cost Rs. 7½ lakhs.

The work on the following bridges was started in March 1962 and completed subsequently :—

(1) Bridge across Raingan river on Surat-Dhulia road;

(2) Bridge at Pimpalner on Panzara river on Vinchur-Pimpalner-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe road;

(3) Submersible bridge on Gomati river on Songir-Dondaicha-Shahada-Khetia road;

(4) Bridges on Vinchur-Pimpalner-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe road. (Roki river bridge and Borai river);

(5) Bridge on Surat-Dhulia road on Panzara river (approach);

(6) Bridge on Surat-Dhulia road on Londhya Nallah;

(7) Bridge on Borai river on Nandurbar-Sakri road (concreting).

Table No. 3 gives the locational and structural particulars of major bridges having length of 100′ and above.

TABLE No. 3

MAJOR BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS (WITH A LINEAR WATERWAY OF 100′ AND ABOVE) IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Sr. No.	Name of Road.	Name of River or Nalla	Mile No.	Name of nearest village or town.	Type of construction	Average Height	Length	Breadth	Cost of Construction in Rs.	Year of Construction
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
						Ft. ins.	Ft. ins.	Ft. ins.	Rs.	
1	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Borai River ..	198/2	Purmepada ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	19 0	273 0	18 0	4,740	1896
2	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Panzara River ..	211/8	Dhulia ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	22 3	637 0	21 0	49,000	1889
3	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Sushi Nalla ..	214/4	Deopur (Dhulia).	Segmental Arched Bridge.	16 3	190 0	17 6	N.A.	1856
4	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Bhat-River ..	220/1	Deobhana ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	7 0	158 0	18 3	N.A.	1856
5	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Gul Nalla ..	222/6	Sarwe ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	8 0	132 0	19 0	N.A.	1856
6	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Lendi River ..	240/3	Sukwad ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	26 0	128 0	20 0	N.A.	1928
7	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Tapi River ..	240/6	Gidhad ..	Syke's Bridge ..	64 0	1,324 0	24 0	15,59,449	1933
8	Bombay-Agra Road ..	Arunavati River	260/5	Hadkhed ..	Elliptical Bridge ..	21 6	128 0	18 4	N.A.	1933
9	Dhulia-Edlabad-Nagpur Road.	Anwar Nalla ..	138/2	Dhulia. ..	Arched Bridge ..	10 9	216 0	22 0	48,250	1940
10	Surat-Dhulia Road ..	Karanji Nalla ..	61/8	Karanji ..	R. C. C. Hammer Head Type Bridge	20 0	N.A.	N.A.	3,79,723	1972
11	Surat-Dhulia-Edlabad-Nagpur Road.	Rangwal River. ..	62/8	Nawapur ..	Submersible Bridge	14 0	170 0	15 0	N.A.	1947
12	Surat-Dhulia Road. ..	Raingan River ..	67/2	Raingan ..	R. C. C. Slab ..	25 0	160 0	25 0	2,11,676	1960
13	Surat-Dhulia Road. ..	Panzara River ..	117/2	Ner ..	R. C. C. Slab ..	4 5	100 0	20 0	N.A.	..
14	Surat-Dhulia Road ..	Londhya Nalla ..	120/4	Kusumbe ..	R.C.C. Slab ..	17 0	N.A.	N.A.	1,20,318	1962
15	Surat-Dhulia Road ..	Hirasan Nalla ..	123/7	Khede ..	R.C.C. Slab ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	2,31,063	1967
16	Surat-Dhulia Road ..	Kharya Nalla ..	127/5	Kundane ..	R.C.C. Slab ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	1966
17	Surat-Dhulia Road. ..	Moti Nalla ..	135/3	Dhulia ..	Segmental Arched Bridge.	13 0	112 0	10 0	N.A.	1942
18	Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road	Borai River ..	20/5	Vajadre ..	R. C. C. Bridge ..	15 0	280 0	25 0	180,000	1963
19	Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road.	Rodi River ..	24/4	Nizampur ..	R. C. C. Bridge ..	20 0	176 0	25 0	1,17,000	1963
20	Vinchur-Sakri-Nandurbar-Prakashe Road.	Panzara River ..	46/2	Pimpalner ..	R. C. C. Bridge ..	25 0	280 0	25 0	2,83,283	1961
21	Dhulia-Aurangabad Road.	Sawalde Nalla ..	3/7	Sawalde ..	Segmental Bridge ..	7 0	143 0	20 0	N.A.	1942
22	Dhulia-Aurangabad Road.	Anwar Nalla ..	4/6	Gadutar ..	Segmental Bridge. ..	9 0	132 0	21 0	N.A.	1942
23	Dhulia-Aurangabad Road.	Bori River ..	14/3	Vinchur ..	Arched Bridge ..	9 0	610 0	21 0	N.A.	1942
24	Singir-Dondaicha Khetia Road.	Benda-Nalla ..	50/7	Mohida ..	Low level causeway	5 6	160 0	22 0	160,000	1952
25	Songir-Dondaicha-Khetia Road.	Gomati River ..	54/3	Lonkheda ..	R.C.C. Bridge ..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	7,73,053	1966
26	Ankaleshwar-Shirpur Burhanpur Road.	Arunavati River.	On diversion outside Shirpur Town.		R. C. C. Bridge ..	22 0	700 0	22 0	9,83,347	1964
27	Ankaleshwar-Shirpur-Burhanpur Road.	Gomati River ..	14/0	Bamarkheda ..	R.C.C. Bridge ..	40 0	423 0	22 0	N.A.	1968

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PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

State Transport.

In August 1947, the State Government decided to nationalise passenger transport. A statutory body, *viz.* the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation was created to which was handed over the administration of the scheme.

For administrative convenience of operating the services the entire State was divided into divisions, comprising one or more districts. Dhulia district formed part of the Khandesh Division.* The nationalisation of the services in Khandesh Division started in March 1952.

The table given below indicates various routes in operation, route mileage, frequency of 'Up' and 'Down' trips and the average number of passengers travelled per route :—

TABLE No. 4

NAME OF THE ROUTES EMANATING FROM EACH DEPOT IN THE DISTRICT OF DHULIA AS ON 31ST MAY, 1964

Depot	Route	Distance		No. of Single Trips per day	No. of persons Travelled per day
		Miles	Fur-longs		
1	2	3	4	5	6
Dhulia ..	Dhulia-Nardhana ..	20	7	14	798
	Dhulia-Kapadane-Dhanur	11	2	4	484
	Dhulia-Sendhawa ..	71	1	2	222
	Dhulia-Borkund ..	15	7	4	210
	Dhulia-Amalner-*via* Mohadi	31	4	2	146
	Dhulia-Sadgaon ..	13	0	4	160
	Dhulia-Bombay ..	210	7	2	364
	Dhulia-City Bus ..	3	0	10	176
	Dhulia-Nizampur ..	42	2	2	186
	Dhulia-Akkalkuwa ..	85	7	2	364
	Dhulia-Sindkheda ..	30	4	4	320
	Dhulia-Aurangabad *via* Chalisgaon	99	7	2	370
	Dhulia-Shirdi Rly. Station	24	5	4	280
	Dhulia-Betawad ..	28	4	4	442
	Dhulia-Nyahalod	9	4	6	330
	Dhulia-Chinchwar ..	17	2	6	370
	Dhulia-Nimbgul ..	20	6	2	128
	Dhulia-Parola ..	23	4	2	148
	Dhulia-Dhanur ..	12	5	4	172
	Dhulia-Manmad ..	54	2	2	166
	Dhulia-Behed ..	23	4	2	154
	Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Darane	33	4	2	152
	Dhulia-Ner	17	5	4	244
	Dhulia-Brahmanwel	51	2	2	250
	Dhulia-Lamkani ..	25	4	6	436
	Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Nardhana	32	2	2	126
	Dhulia-Pimpalner *via* Dhadne	48	1	2	258
	Dhulia-Mandal ..	24	0	2	136
	Dhulia-Khetia ..	66	0	2	268
	Dhulia-Betawad-Betawad Rly. Station.	2	2	2	184
	Dhulia-Nardhana-Betawad	7	5	2	178

*Khandesh Division was bifurcated into two separate divisions for Dhulia and Jalgaon districts subsequently.

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1	2	3	4	5	6
	Betawad-Mudawad ..	4	6	2	70
	Mudawad-Dhulia ..	33	2	1	110
	Parola-Tamaswadi ..	12	1	2	108
	Sindkheda-Shewade ..	15	3	2	154
	Sindkheda-Mudawad	23	6	2	150
	Sindkheda-Dondaicha ..	15	0	4	268
	Sindkheda-Divi ..	19	5	2	126
Sakri ..	Sakri-Navapur ..	41	0	2	230
	Sakri-Pimpalner ..	14	3	4	196
	Sakri-Dondaicha ..	32	4	6	598
	Sakri-Dondaicha *via* Nizampur.	37	4	2	244
	Sakri-Dhaner ..	21	6	2	162
	Sakri-Dighave ..	12	1	2	276
	Sakri-Kasare ..	4	6	8	232
	Sakri-Sindkheda ..	43	5	2	286
	Sakri-Ayane ..	20	0	2	68
	Navapur-Visarwadi ..	12	0	2	70
	Navapur-Pimpalner ..	34	0	2	136
	Navapur-Navapur Rly. Station.	1	4	12	284
	Pimpalner-Charanmal ..	20	4	2	42
	Sakri-Nizampur-Dondaicha.	26	0	2	172
Nandurbar ..	Nandurbar-Koparli ..	20	1	4	260
	Nandurbar-Shanimandal	16	7	6	470
	Nandurbar-Sujalpur ..	14	0	2	122
	Nandurbar-Korit	12	4	16	984
	Nandurbar-Raigad	17	4	10	678
	Nandurbar-Kavtha	14	5	8	434
	Nandurbar-Nizar ..	9	5	8	212
	Nandurbar-Kothali ..	13	7	4	214
	Nandurbar-Shahada ..	39	2	2	206
	Nandurbar-Navapur	38	2	2	166
	Nandurbar Korit *via* Khondamali.	17	2	4	238
	Koparli-Ranala Rly. Station.	4	0	2	118
Shahada ..	Shahada-Ranipur ..	16	7	2	102
	Shahada-Khetia ..	12	0	18	588
	Shahada-Mandane ..	11	2	4	208
	Shahada-Prakashe ..	8	3	4	168
	Shahada-Vaijali ..	12	5	4	260
	Shahada-Padalde ..	5	0	4	160
	Shahada-Javada ..	15	1	4	232
	Shahada-Dhadgaon ..	39	6	4	384
	Shahada-Taloda ..	19	3	8	550
	Shahada-Khapar ..	39	3	6	624
	Shahada-Shahane ..	25	0	2	100
	Shahada-Mulgi ..	57	1	2	180
	Shahada-Kahatul ..	9	1	2	84
	Shahada-Mhasawad ..	8	0	2	82
	Dondaicha-Kharde ..	11	3	2	98
	Taloda-Khapar ..	20	0	1	178
	Taloda-Akkalkuwa ..	12	4	8	394
	Taloda-Borad ..	10	4	10	626
	Taloda-Pratappur ..	5	6	2	86
	Taloda-Kukarmunda	7	4	4	126
Shirpur ..	Shirpur-Nardhana ..	18	2	14	634
	Shirpur-Sendhwa ..	33	0	8	502
	Shirpur-Thalner ..	12	2	6	304
	Shirpur-Tekwade ..	11	4	6	340

1	2	3	4	5	6
Shirpur—*contd*	Shirpur-Bhatpure ..	13	2	4	110
	Shirpur-Sindkheda ..	12	2	6	284
	Shirpur-Manjrod ..	16	1	4	238
	Shirpur-Piloda ..	21	2	4	284
	Shirpur-Shirdi ..	129	1	2	350
	Shirpur-Warla ..	30	6	2	130
	Shirpur-Kamkheda ..	22	0	2	64
	Shirpur-Boradi ..	13	5	2	134
	Shirpur-Lauki ..	9	2	2	144
	Shirpur-Palasner ..	20	6	2	146
	Shirpur-Shahada ..	24	..	2	164
	Shirpur-Nandurbar ..	48	7	2	322
	Sindkheda-Kamkhede ..	10	4	2	126
	Kamkhede-Nardhana ..	8	5	2	80
Combined routes operated by more than one Depot.					
	Dhulia-Amalner ..	23	5	14	886
	Dhulia Pimpalner *via* Ner.	48	3	6	764
	Dhulia-Pimpalner ..	46	7	1	239
	Dhulia-Chopda ..	46	2	10	1,142
	Dhulia-Nandurbar ..	58	0	14	1,730
	Dhulia-Sakri *via* Mhasadi	43	6	8	1,034
	Dhulia-Sakri ..	32	4	8	704
	Dhulia-Shirpur ..	38	1	18	1,636
	Dhulia-Jalgaon ..	57	7	20	2,160
	Dhulia-Shahada ..	54	0	10	956
	Dhulia-Navapur ..	73	4	4	642
	Sakri-Navapur ..	36	1	14	1,396
	Nandurbar-Bhaler ..	14	0	4	221
	Nandurbar-Taloda ..	15	0	18	1,054
	Shahada-Dondaicha ..	17	5	26	1,556
	Shahada-Shirpur ..	33	2	16	1,546
	Shahada-Akkalkuwa ..	31	7	6	584
	Shirpur-Dondaicha	27	2	8	784
	Shirpur-Chopda ..	29	2	16	1,312
	Sindkheda-Virdel ..	5	0	6	236
	Sindkheda Sindkheda Railway Station.	2	4	14	674
	Sindkheda-Varpada ..	6	0	6	286

State Transport Routes opened after May 1964—

1. Dhulia-Shirpur-Boradi.
2. Dhulia-Shirpur-Holnaye.
3. Dhulia-Shrirampur.
4. Dhulia-Warshi.
5. Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Songirphata, Chimthane.
6. Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Chimthane, Nishane.
7. Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Goranephata, Khalane, Nishane.
8. Dhulia-Sindkheda *via* Vaipur, Khalane, Nishane.
9. Dhulia-Tamthare-Amrale.
10. Dhulia-Nyahalod-Kavathal.
11. Dhulia-Lamkani-Njiampur-Brahmanvel-Pinjarzadi.
12. Dhulia-Nizampur-Domkani.
13. Dhulia-Lamkani-Balsane-Dusane *via* Sayne.
14. Dhulia-Chinchawar-Ghanegaon.
15. Dhulia-Shirdhane-Vardhane.
16. Dhulia-Rami.
17. Dhulia-Dongrale.
18. Dhulia-Tikhi.
19. Dhulia-Saundane-Babhulwadi.
20. Dhulia-Narvhal.
21. Dhulia-Kunzar.
22. Dhulia-Arvi-Borkund-Shirud.
23. Dhulia-Borkund-Kanolidharan.
24. Dhulia-Borkundphata-Nandale.
25. Dhulia-Arvi-Kulthe.
26. Dhulia-Borkund-Londhre.
27. Dhulia-Shirud-Dhamangaon.
28. Dhulia-Mukti-Anchale.
29. Dhulia-Mukti-Pimpalkhute.
30. Dhulia-Bholane-Pimpalkhute *via* Jamde.
31. Dhulia-Amalner *via* Mondhale, Phopra.
32. Dhulia-Amalner *via* Arvi.
33. Dhulia-Amalner *via* Wavde.
34. Dhulia-Wavde-Mandal-Kalambi.

35. Dhulia-Shirdhane *via* Varkhedi, Arni, Varni.
36. Dhulia-Japi.
37. Dhulia-Amalner-Chopda-Yaval.
38. Dhulia-Erandol-Jalgaon.
39. Dhulia-Khede.
40. Dhulia-Lonkhedi.
41. Dhulia-Khandalai-Shirdhane.
42. Dhulia-Mhasadi-Kalgaon.
43. Dhulia-Chaugaon.
44. Dhulia-Ubhand.
45. Dhulia-Dondaicha Shahada.
46. Dhulia-Shahada-Toranmal.
47. Dhulia-Korit *via* Vikharan Sujatpur.
48. Dhulia-Talode-Akkalkuwa-Khapar
49. Dhulia-Dondaicha-Nandurbar.
50. Dhulia-Nandurbar *via* Vikharan, Khodamali.
51. Dhulia-Sakri-Nawapur.
52. Dhulia-Sakri-Pimpalner.
53. Dhulia-Pimpalner *via* Chhail, Dighave.
54. Dhulia-Sakri *via* Mhasadi.
55. Dhulia-Sakri *via* Mhasadi, Datarti.
56. Dhulia-Mhasadi-Nampur-Satane.
57. Dhulia-Ahmadnagar-Pune.
58. Dhulia-Malegaon-Nasik.
59. Dhulia-Jalgaon-Jalna.
60. Dhulia-Malegaon-Satane.
61. Dhulia-Satane *via* Tingri Vadner, Khakardi.
62. Dhulia-Nasik *via* Kalvan, Nanduri.
63. Dhulia-Malegaon *via* Kusumbe.

Shirpur—

64. Shirpur-Dhulia-Chalisgaon.
65. Shirpur-Adhe.
66. Shirpur-Aner-Velode.
67. Shirpur-Chopda-Jalgaon.
68. Shirpur-Varul-Tarad (Kasabe).
69. Shirpur-Bhamte.
70. Shirpur-Warul-Tarhadi.
71. Shirpur-Varul-Shahade.
72. Shirpur-Boradi-Dondvade.
73. Shirpur-Boradi-Shahane.
74. Shirpur-Bharvade.
75. Shirpur-Banaval.
76. Shirpur-Rohini.
77. Shirpur-Varla *via* Lalmati.
78. Shirpur-Varla *via* Rohini, Khambale.
79. Shirpur-Shewada-Sakri.
80. Shirpur-Shahada-Toranmal.
81. Sindkheda-Khalane.
82. Sindkheda-Nardhane *via* Warshi, Sukwad.
83. Sindkheda-Valkhede-Kanchanpur *via* Hol.
84. Sindkheda-Virdel-Hisapur.
85. Sindkheda-Virdel-Ranjane.
86. Nardhane--Malsar.
87. Nardhane-Khalane.
88. Nizampur-Chipalpada.
89. Nardhane-Kamkhede.
90. Nandurbar-Sindkheda-Shirpur-Raver.
91. Nandurbar-Dhulia-Nagar-Pune.
92. Nandurbar-Dhulia-Aurangabad.
93. Nandurbar-Shanimandal *via* Bhone.
94. Nandurbar-Ranale-Dondaicha.
95. Nandurbar-Taloda-Khapar.
96. Nandurbar-Kolade.
97. Nandurbar-Khondamali-Borale-Korit.
98. Nandurbar-Khondamali-Dondaicha.
99. Nandurbar-Chopda *via* Khondamali, Sarangkheda.
100. Nandurbar-Bhaler-Tishi Rly. station.
101. Nandurbar-Bhaler-Hatmohide.
102. Nandurbar-Dhanora.
103. Nandurbar-Dhanora-Khandbara.
104. Nandurbar-Samsherpur.
105. Nandurbar-Waghale.
106. Nandurbar-Kevadivada.
107. Nandurbar-Dhulawad.
108. Nandurbar-Adachhi.
109. Nandurbar-Vadjakhan.
110. Nandurbar-Chaupale.
111. Nandurbar-Nijampur-Sakri.
112. Nandurbar-Kondaibari-Sakri.
113. Nandurbar-Sakri-Satane-Nanduri-Nasik-Bombay.
114. Nandurbar-Nasik *via* Pimpalner, Selu, Satane.
115. Nandurbar-Sakri-Satane *via* Nampur.
116. Nandrbar-Korit-Tishi Rly. Station.
117. Shahada-Khapar-Nawapada.
118. Shahada-Vadali-Bamkhede-Torkhede.
119. Shahada-Nandya-Kudhawad.
120. Shahada-Taloda *via* Prakashe, Vaki, Nawapada.
121. Shahada-Taloda *via* Borad, Pratappur.
122. Shahada-Borad-Mod.
123. Shahada-Javade *via* Taradi.
124. Shahada-Kharavad-Tarhad.
125. Shahada-Karankhede *via* Katharde.
126. Shahada-Mandane-Holamubarakpur.
127. Shahada-Mandane-Chandsaili.
128. Shahada-Dhadgaon-Mulgi.
129. Shahada-Ranipur-Toranmal.
130. Shahada-Sultanpur.

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131. Shahada-Jainagar.
132. Shahada-Udhalod.
133. Shahada-Shelti.
134. Shahada-Bhiladi.
135. Shahada-Nandarkhede.
136. Shahada-Damalde-Ozarte.
137. Shahada-Lohare.
138. Shahada-Bamkheda-Phes.
139. Shahada-Ganor-Khetia.
140. Dondaicha-Divi-Revadi.
141. Dondaicha-Anjanvihir-Degaon.
142. Dondaicha-Lohgaon.
143. Dondaicha-Rami.
144. Dondaicha-Torkhede.
145. Dondaicha-Shanimandal.
146. Dondaicha-Javade *Via* Kahatul.
147. Dondaicha-Karle.
148. Dondaicha-Tavkhede *via* Nimgul.
149. Dondaicha-Malpur-Surai.
150. Khetia-Bombay *via* Dhulia, Ghatkopar.
151. Taloda-Akkalkuwa *via* Rozave.
152. Taloda-Shirve via Bhavar, Singpur.
153. Taloda-Pratappur-Ranipur.
154. Taloda-Borad *via* Mod-Kharvad.
155. Taloda-Kothar.
156. Akkalkuwa-Amalibari.
157. Akkalkuwa-Morambe.
158. Khapar-Shahada-Shirpur-Chopda-Bhusawal.
159. Khapar-Bombay *via* Nandurbar-Sakri-Satane-Nasik.
160. Sakri-Dhulia-Chopda.
161. Sakri-Dhadgaon *via* Datarti, Mhasadi.
162. Sakri-Nagai.
163. Sakri-Kasare-Umbare.
164. Sakri-Kasare-Umbare-Pimpalner, Virkhel.
165. Sakri-Kasare-Satane *via* Nampur.
166. Sakri-Dusane-Dondaicha.
167. Sakri-Dondaicha-Navapada-Shelambe.
168. Sakri-Chhavadi.
169. Sakri-Nijampur-Khori.
170. Sakri-Nijampur-Phopode.
171. Sakri-Nizampur-Brahmanwel.
172. Sakri-Nizampur-Kudane.
173. Sakri-Pinjarzadi-Brahmanvel.
174. Sakri-Dhaner-Amli.
175. Sakri-Dahivel-Pimpalner.
176. Sakri-Dahivel-Tembhe-Pimpalner.
177. Sakri-Aichale-Shanimandal.
178. Sakri-Malpur.
179. Sakri-Perejpur.
180. Sakri-Ayane-Shirdhane.
181. Sakri-Vasmar.
182. Sakri-Tamasvadi.
183. Sakri-Taharabad-Satane.
184. Sakri-Manmad *via* Nampur.
185. Nawapur-Bhusawal *via* Dhulia, Jalgaon.
186. Nawapur-Nawagaon.
187. Nawapur-Khadki.
188. Nawapur-Kolade.
189. Nawapur-Godad-Khekade.
190. Nawapur-Vadphali-Khandbara.
191. Pimpalner-Charanmal-Nawapur.
192. Pimpalner-Dangshirawade-Shenwad.
193. Pimpalner-Dhulia-Jalgaon.
194. Pimpalner-Nawapur-Shirdi *via* Charanmal.
195. Indore-Shirpur-Dhulia-Bombay.
196. Akola-Nasik *via* Jalgaon and Dhulia.

The State Transport maintains depots and garages with workshops in which facilities for the maintenance of vehicles are provided such as oiling, greasing, cleaning, servicing, etc. The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the Divisional Workshop which is situated at Dhulia. Besides, after operating 12,000 miles the vehicle is sent to the Divisional Workshop for check up and preventive maintenance. Moreover, workshops are also maintained at each of the depots in the district. The following table shows the number of the depots and the number of vehicles attached to each depot. Regular daily and weekly servicing, weekly and 4,000 miles docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots :—

Name of Depot	No. of Vehicles.
1. Dhulia	42
2. Sakri	14
3. Nandurbar	19
4. Shahada	28
5. Shirpur	21

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State Transport.

For the convenience of travelling public, a number of facilities are provided. Bus stations have been constructed at Dhulia, Sakri, Navapur, Nardhana, Shahada, Shirpur, Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Sindkheda and Nizampur. Pick-up stands have been constructed at Ranala, Vikhran, Dusane, Malpur, Indore, Korit, Ner, Akalpada, Prakashe, Shanimandal, and Chhadwel. Besides these, refreshment rooms have been provided at 8 places, tea stalls at seven places and book stalls at three places in the district.

The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees, There is a labour Welfare Centre at Dhulia with indoor games and recreational facilities. Welfare facilities for workers' families are also provided at this centre, such as sewing classes, cooking classes, montessori classes, etc., under the charge of a Lady Welfare Instructor. In addition to this, medical dispensaries for the workers and their families are provided at Dhulia, Shirpur and Shahada.

The schedule of fares charged by the State Transport is based on the stage system, 20 paise being the fare for a stage of four miles, and 10 paise for a sub-stage of two miles in the case of villages closely situated. The schedule of fares is uniform throughout the State and is not related to its earnings in any particular division.

The goods transport in the district is carried on by two agencies *viz.*, public carriers and private carriers, the number of vehicles attached to each agency being 533 and 13 respectively.

Almost all kinds of general merchandise is carried on by these agencies, the nature of which cannot be specifically described.

As regards freight charges, the following rates are fixed—

(1) One rupee per lorry mile or eight annas per ton mile plus additional surcharge of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. on the basic freight rate i.e. the freight rate including surcharge will be Rs. 1-5-4 per lorry mile or Rs. 0-10-8 per ton mile.

(2) In the case of short trips within a radius not exceeding five miles the rate is as in item No. 1 above or forty Rupees per vehicle per day, no surcharge being permissible.

There is no union of Transport Owners. Also there are no stage carriage operators in the district.

FERRIES.

An account of ferries taken from the old Khandesh Gazetteer is given below.

"The only public ferry in the district is across the Girna at Mehunbara.* After the loss of the flying bridge in 1872, a double ferry boat twenty feet by fifteen, drawing about three feet and able to hold fifty passengers was, in 1874, built out of local funds at a cost of £300 (Rs. 3,000).

"Besides this public ferry, forty-eight private boats ply at different places on the Tapti, some working throughout the year where the river

*Jalgaon district.

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FERRIES.

is never fordable and some during the rainy season only. The depth of water in these places varies from five to thirty feet. Of the forty-eight Tapti boats, one is in Amalner, seven are in Bhusaval, four in Chopda, two in Erandol, one in Nandurbar, two in Nasirabad, nine in Savda, seven in Shahada, nine in Shirpur, three in Taloda, and one in Virdel. The boats are generally built of teak at Prakasha, Sarangkheda and other Khandesh villages, and sometimes brought from Burhanpur or Bombay. They vary in size, from eighteen feet long by eight broad and three deep, to forty-seven feet long by eleven broad and three deep. They can carry from fifteen to 100 passengers and some of them from four to fifty animals. Their charges are, for a passenger, from $\frac{3}{8}$ d. to $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ($\frac{1}{4}$-$\frac{1}{2}$ anna), for animals from $\frac{3}{8}$ d. to 3 d. ($\frac{1}{4}$-2 annas), and for carts from 3 d. to 6 d. (2-4 annas). The whole yearly number of passengers varies from 100 to 7,000 and of animals from 300 to 1,600. The boats cost from £15 to £330 (Rs. 150-Rs. 3,300), and last for nearly twenty years. The crew, who are also the owners of the boats, are generally Kolis and Bhois, and some are Bhils, Mhars, Rajputs, and Pardeshis. When not employed on the boats they work in the fields or do some other unskilled labour. They row the boats with paddles, generally, in times of flood, starting a mile or two higher up the stream than the place they make for. Other rivers are crossed either by swimming with gourds tied under the chest, or on a gourd-buoyed cot launched some distance up the stream and guided across by two or three Bhois or Kolis swimming on either side. The usual charge is from 3/8 d to 3/4 d. ($\frac{1}{4}$–$\frac{1}{2}$ anna)."

RURAL TRANSPORT.

Indian economy is predominantly rural in character. The facilities of transport in the rural areas are meagre though considerable improvement could be evinced during recent years. Most of the available roads are unmetalled. During monsoon they become unusable for any traffic.

During the last few years considerable progress has been achieved in regard to the development of roads in the rural areas. Many new roads have been constructed and the work on a number of others is in progress.

As compared to other districts, the condition of rural transport is much better in Dhulia district. The existence of National highways, State highways and a number of Major District Roads has facilitated rural transport and brought the distant villages on the right lines of communication. A large number of approach roads were recently constructed and the surface of many roads was improved making them usable for vehicular traffic.

On most of the motorable roads the State Transport authorities are running buses since the nationalisation of the transport undertaking. Most of the villages in the district have been brought within the orbit of road transport.

The railway routes *viz.*, Chalisgaon-Dhulia and Bhusaval-Surat which run through this district also cater to the transport needs of the rural area.

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RURAL TRANSPORT.

TOURIST FACILITIES.

The approach roads to and from railway stations on these lines have been developed thereby connecting distant villages with the respective railway stations.

There are not many places of tourist interest in Dhulia district. However, Dhulia, is fast developing as a cultural and educational centre.

Being situated on the National Highway (Bombay-Agra Road), many tourists and motorists break their journey on their way and halt at Dhulia. Besides, the development of trade and commerce has increased the number of people visiting the district during the recent past.

The Government of Maharashtra has developed the panoramic Toranmal into a beautiful holiday resort. This place is situated in Akrani taluka in Satpuda mountain and is 3,400 feet above sea-level. It is eighty miles away from Dhulia, while the nearest railway station of Dondaicha is 50 miles away from it.

In 1958, when the holiday camp was established, there were only 6 suites. At present, there are as many as 12 Blocks which can accommodate 90 persons. The blocks are well furnished and provide all the necessary amenities. A nominal rent of Rs. 2 is charged per block. Facilities for advance booking are also provided.

For tourists there are as many as 35 travellers bungalows constructed at suitable places in the district.

Besides, there are 25 inspection bungalows at the following places :—

(1) Dhulia, (2) Sule, (3) Palasner, (4) Ner, (5) Sakri, (6) Malangaon, (7) Visarvadi, (8) Navapur, (9) Vinchur, (10) Chimthane, (11) Dondaicha, (12) Ranala, (13) Nandurbar, (14) Taloda, (15) Shahada, (16) Hisala, (17) Khed, (18) Pimpalner, (19) Chhadvel, (20) Khed (Taluka-Dhulia), (21) Arvi, (22) Shelbari, (23) Nardhana, (24) Shirpur, and (25) Sindkheda.

There are also three district bungalows and a rest house at Dhulia.

Besides, there are forest bungalows under the jurisdiction of the Dhulia Forest Division. They are located at Rohini, Laling, Boradi, Malangaon, Dhadgaon, Ukhali and Toranmal.

There were rest houses at the following places in the old district of Khandesh.

"Besides, twelve travellers bungalows at Arvi, Bodvad, Chalisgaon, Chikalval, Dhulia, Jalgaon, Khed, Nardana, Pachora, Palasner, Shirpur, Songir, and Vinchur; nine district officers Bungalows at Betavad, Bhusaval, Dharangaon, Dhulia, Jalgaon, Nandurbar, Nardana, Rangaon, and Saundane; and seven public works inspectors bungalows at Chimthana, Dondaicha, Khed, Kundaibari, Mehunbara, Sakri and Vinchur, there are ninety-five rest-houses, dharmashalas. Of these one is in the Amalner sub-division, seven are in Bhusaval, four in Chalisgaon, two in Chopda, ten in Dhulia, four in Erandol,

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TOURIST FACILITIES.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

six in Jamner, nine in Nandurbar, four in Nasirabad, nine in Pachora, five in Pimpalner, eleven in Savda, eight in Shahada, five in Shirpur, two in Taloda, and seven in Virdel. Of the twelve travellers bungalows two are in the Bhusaval sub-division, five in Dhulia, two in Shirpur, and one each in Chalisgaon, Pachora, and Virdel."

This is the account of post and telegraph offices given in the old Khandesh Gazetteer.

"The district of Khandesh, forming part of the Khandesh postal division, contains fifty-three post offices. Of these that at Dhulia, the chief disbursing office, is in charge of a postmaster drawing a yearly salary rising from £ 120 to £ 168 (Rs. 1,200–Rs. 1,680); four head offices at Bhusaval, Jalgaon, Pachora, and Sindkheda, are in charge of deputy postmasters drawing from £ 48 to £ 60 (Rs. 480–Rs. 600) a year; twenty sub-offices at Amalner, Bhadgaon, Bodvad, Chalisgaon, Chopda, Dharangaon, Edlabad, Erandol, Jamner, Maheji, Nandurbar, Nasirabad, Parola, Pimpalner, Savda, Shahada, Shirpur, Songir, Varangaon, and Yaval, are in charge of sub-deputy postmasters drawing from £ 18 to £ 48 (Rs. 180–Rs. 480) a year; eleven branch offices at Betavad, Faizpur, Mhasavad, Ner, Neri, Nimbora, Nizampur, Patonda, Ranala, Raver, and Taloda, are in charge of branch postmasters drawing from £ 12 to £ 14 8*s.* (Rs. 120–Rs. 144) a year; and seventeen branch offices at Adavad, Asoda, Bahadurpur, Dondaicha, Kajgaon, Kanalda, Nagardevla, Nandra, Paldhi, Pimprala, Prakasha, Shendurni, Sirud, Sukri, Thalner, Utran, and Virdel, are in charge of village schoolmasters, drawing besides their schoolmasters salaries, from £ 3 12*s.* to £9 12*s.* (Rs. 36–Rs. 96) a year from the postal department. The post office at Pimpalner is, from October to February, removed to Malpur, then the mamlatdar's head-quarters. The Maheji post office is open from December to February while the fair lasts. The branch office at Kannad in the Nizam's dominions, twenty miles south-east of Chalisgaon, is managed as part of the Khandesh postal division.

"These offices are supervised by an inspector with a yearly salary of £ 240 (Rs. 2,400), helped by a sub-inspector with a yearly salary of £ 90 (Rs. 900). At some of the chief stations papers and letters are delivered by thirty-two postmen with yearly salaries varying from £9 12*s.* to £12 (Rs. 96–Rs. 120). In some places postal runners do the work receiving, in addition to their salaries, from £1 4*s.* to £2 8*s.* (Rs. 12–Rs. 24) a year. Village postmen ninety in number, receive from £8 8*s.* to £12 (Rs. 84–120) a year. A pony-cart post, managed by contractors, runs daily both ways from Dhulia and Chalisgaon. The mails, carried along the north-east section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, are sorted by travelling post office sorters who have the use of a separate carriage. The parcel sorting-office at the Bhusaval railway station, in charge of an officer drawing £120 (Rs. 1,200) a year, is supervised by the superintendent of travelling post offices, Bombay Division.

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POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

"Besides the railway telegraph offices at the different railway stations, there are at present (1880) two Government Telegraph offices, one at Bhusaval and the other at Dhulia. The total number of messages in 1879-80 was 2,036 at Bhusaval, 148 of them Government and 1888 private and 944 at Dhulia, 410 of them Government and 534 private. The corresponding figures for 1870-71 and 1875-76 were 278 and 734 for Bhusawal and 498 and 458 for Dhulia."

The Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department maintains a postal division at Dhulia. Besides the headquarters at Dhulia, which is also the chief receiving and distributing head office, there are a number of sub-offices, combined offices and branch offices.[1]

The following table gives the statistics of post and telegraph services in the district :–

TABLE No. 5

STATISTICS OF POSTAL, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE FACILITIES IN DHULIA DISTRICT DURING 1961-62, 1965-66, 1970-71 AND 1971-72

Year	No. of Post Offices	No. of Telegraph Offices	No. of letter boxes	No. of postmen	No. of Telephones	No. of Radio licences issued and renewed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1961-62 ..	178	17	291	94	538	5,157
1965-66 ..	238	23	415	105	1,166	12,955
1970-71 ..	269	24	554	78	1,601	23,412
1971-72 ..	285	21*	679	84	1,647	32,921

There are six telephone exchanges in the district, *viz.*, at Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nawapur, Nandurbar, Shahada and Shirpur.

The number of working connections from the various exchanges are given below :–

Exchange	Working connections
1. Dhulia	672
2. Dondaicha	91
3. Nawapur	45
4. Nandurbar	187
5. Shahada	52
6. Shirpur	90
	1,137

[1]The Directory of Villages and Towns gives the Postal facilities in the villages in the district.

*Figure of telegraph offices has been reduced, as 3 telegraph offices have been converted into non-combined offices.

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COMMUNITY RADIO-SETS.

Thus there are 1,137 telephone connections in the district.

Under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme of the Government of Maharashtra, the Directorate of Publicity provides radio sets in the district to institutions like grampanchayats, public libraries, municipalities etc. Besides installation of the sets, the Directorate provides for their maintenance and servicing. Dry batteries are also supplied for the battery sets.

The Community radio sets are provided specially for the benefit of the common man. It is also prescribed that the radio set should be used to tune programmes relayed from the All India Radio and specially the programmes for villagers and workers.

The following table gives the talukawise number of villages where radio-sets were installed upto 31st March 1972 under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme, as also the rural population benefited by it.

TABLE No. 6

RURAL BROADCASTING STATISTICS IN DHULIA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1972

Taluka	Number of villages	Rural population benefited	No. of Radio farm forums
1	2	3	4
District Total	892	9,56,729	8
Akrani	68	23,570	....
Akkalkuwa	84	41,511	....
Taloda	32	22,944	....
Shahada	69	73,644	....
Nandurbar	77	84,027	2
Shirpur	96	1,00,925	....
Sindkheda	121	1,52,319	....
Nawapur	72	85,915	....
Sakri	138	1,74,799	....
Dhulia	135	1,97,075	6

Source.—Divisional Engineer, Rural Broadcasting Bombay.

CHAPTER 8—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS CHAPTER IS DEVOTED TO A DESCRIPTION OF THE MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS which provide employment to a considerable number of persons. These occupations do not come under the purview of Factories Act. However, they have an important place in the economic life of the district as they provide a means of livelihood not only to a considerable number of people, but also to those who produce essential goods of daily consumption. Some others render useful service to the people in a variety of ways. These occupations are a sort of blending of trade and industry. In this chapter an attempt is made to give a broad account of the more important of these occupations and the peculiar conditions and problems affecting the persons engaged in them. The narrative is based on findings of a sample survey conducted in the year 1964 at urban centres such as Dhulia, Nandurbar, Nawapur, Shirpur, Shahada and Taloda. These occupations include hotels and restaurants, lodging and boarding houses, tailoring, hair-cutting saloons, sweetmeat making, goldsmithy, pan-bidi shops, laundering, flour mills, cycle repairing, watch and radio repairing, teaching, medical and religious professions etc.

Besides, there are many other occupations such as cap-making, rope-making, cinema-houses, vegetable and flower selling etc. Their impact on the economy of the district is too insignificant and hence they are not described here in any detail.

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

Hotels and restaurants are quite common in towns and big villages. The urbanization of population following the growth of industries, is responsible to a great extent for the rise of hotels and restaurants. A number of industries sprang up in and around towns with the result that people from distant areas flocked in at such places, leaving their families at their native places. To provide meals, eatables, beverages to these people, hotels and restaurants came into existence.

Another factor that is responsible for the growth of hotels is the rapid change in the fashions, tastes and likings of the people.

The 1951 Census enumerated 1,567 persons engaged in this occupation while the 1961 Census recorded their number at 768. This number includes only waiters and related workers.

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HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

In recent years, hotels have made deep inroads in distant villages. They are not hotels in the strict sense of the term but are in the nature of small tea-shops managed by proprietors with limited means. They are usually situated near the bus-stops, and are generally housed in huts. Benches and chairs, generally obsolete, are placed for the convenience of the customers. They are equipped with a few pots, a kettle or two, a stove and trays to keep dry eatables, such as, *chivda*, *bhaji*, etc.

They provide milk, tea, coffee, etc. Very few of them also provide dry-dishes such as *shev*, *chivda* and *bhaji*. The business and the area of service is limited. They earn an income, ranging between Rs. 125 and Rs. 200 per month.

Hotels in cities and towns in the district, present an altogether different picture than the small tea-shops in villages described above. They are bigger, well-equipped with good items of furniture, in many cases covered with sunmica sheets, electric fans, etc. They have a good number of utensils, generally of stainless steel. They have radio sets, show-cases, and they provide various sweet-meats, beverages and snacks. However, excepting a few cases, the hotels in Dhulia district do not present so good an appearance and are not so well-equipped as those in cities like Bombay, Poona or Nagpur.

The material required includes such items as tea, coffee, sugar, milk, ovaltine, gram-flour, oil, salt, vegetables, spices, *vanaspati* oil, etc. The amount spent on them differs widely in case of different hotels depending more or less on the size of the hotel and its turnover. The latter in turn depends on the quality of the items served and the location. The value of these items ranges between Rs. 300 and Rs. 800 per month. Most of these establishments are housed in rented premises in cities and towns, the rent varying between Rs. 20 and Rs. 80 per month. Taking all these items of expenditure, the income of the establishment varies somewhere between Rs. 150 and Rs. 600 per month.

Tables, chairs, cupboards, show-cases, cups, and saucers, big utensils, frying pans and strainers comprise the main tools and equipment. The expenditure on these items is of a fixed nature. This expenditure too, depends, to a great extent, on the size of the establishment and varies, generally, between Rs. 500 and Rs. 2,500.

The establishments employ hired labourers to man different specific jobs. Cooks and waiters come under these categories. For doing odd jobs such as cleaning tables and the floor, serving water to the customers, etc., boys above 15 years are employed. Cooks and waiters are paid monthly wages ranging between Rs. 60 and Rs. 90 with snacks twice a day. Others are paid daily wages from Re. 1 to Rs. 1·50 with snacks twice a day.

LODGING AND BOARDING.

The rise of lodging and boarding houses can be attributed to the increasing trade and commercial activities in the towns and market

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LODGING AND BOARDING.

places of the district. Following the development of transport and communications, people from all over the district as also from outside frequently visit the towns and stay in lodges.

In Dhulia district, there are very few lodging and boarding houses. Most of them are located in Dhulia town, the district headquarters, and an *entrepot* centre of trade. Most of the houses cater either for lodging or boarding services and very rarely for both. These services are available in some of the hotels also. Some boarding houses provide only vegetarian meals, whereas a few provide both the vegetarian and the non-vegetarian meals.

The lodging and boarding houses in the district are not so decent and clean as their counter-parts in big cities like Bombay, Poona or Nagpur. The furniture that they have is of a mediocre type, the meals they serve are of medium standard, and the lodging facilities they provide are not up to the mark.

The accessories consist of foodgrains, pulses of all kinds, spices, gram-flour, milk, tea, sugar, coffee, etc. The expenditure on these items ranges from Rs. 500 to Rs. 800 per month, depending on the size, turnover and location of the establishment.

Tables, chairs, benches, show-cases, cup-boards, big utensils, pans, mugs, bowls, dishes, glasses, drums, mattresses, pillows, chaddars, etc., comprise their equipment. The expenditure on them is of a fixed nature and varies between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,500.

Consequent upon the general scarcity of foodgrains and rising cost of equipment, the business, to some extent, has been affected. Though the turnover has declined, their income is not affected as there has been a simultaneous rise in the charges for the services they render. The monthly income of a lodging house is found to be ranging between Rs. 250 and Rs. 600, and that of a boarding house between Rs. 300 and Rs. 500 per month.

TAILORING.

Tailoring was the hereditary occupation of the Shimpi community. However, with the passage of time and changes in the socio-economic conditions a number of artisans from other communities have taken to this occupation.

With the change in fashions and tastes of the people in wearing apparel and their desire to look graceful and well-dressed, tailoring as an occupation enjoys a place of distinction in the society.

The demand for the services of a village tailor is of seasonal nature. He is found busy in times of festivals and marriages. During the rest of the period his business is slack. His income ranges between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600 per year. He is not so well-off as the tailors in cities and towns.

A village tailor is not so skilled as his counterpart in towns and cities. Tastes and fashions in apparel are attached more importance

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TAILORING.

in cities and towns than in villages. A tailor in cities has of necessity to equip himself with all modern techniques in stitching if he desires to be prospective. He has also to keep his shop decent, well-furnished and pleasing in appearance.

Many a tailor, in villages as well as in towns, keep cloth for sale in addition to their business of stitching. In 1951, there were 3,846 tailors in Dhulia district of whom 274 were females. The 1961 Census enumerates 3,887 persons engaged in the occupation in the district. The number of female workers shows an increase from 274 to 518.

The tools and equipment comprise sewing-machine, pair of scissors, wooden flat table for cutting cloth, cupboard, chairs, etc. Bigger shops in the district have more than one machine with their shops well decorated, mirrors hanging on the walls, etc. A sewing machine costs from Rs. 275 to Rs. 500, a pair of scissors Rs. 25, wooden flat table Rs. 20, cupboard from Rs. 100 to Rs. 250 and a chair from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30. The expenditure, on these items, however, varies from shop to shop amounting to between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,200.

Unlike other occupations, accessories required are less expensive and are easily available in local markets. They include thread, needles, buttons, canvas cloth and marking pencils which cost a tailor a little over Rs. 25 per month.

In a small establishment, the tailor himself does all the work single-handed. He secures help from his family members to do odd jobs as and when required. In medium shops labour is hired to stitch clothes, the cutting work being done either by the owner or by a skilled worker. Skilled workers are employed in big establishments. The wages paid to them are generally either on piece-rate basis or equivalent to half the value of the work done, by them during a day. In some of the well-known establishments, a skilled artisan gets preferential pay in addition.

They stitch variety of clothes including pants, shirts, pyjamas, blouse, *choli*, coat, etc. A few of the tailors are specialists in either ladies' or gents' garments.

Besides the fixed expenditure on tools and equipment, rent, labour charges and expenses on accessories are the other major heads of expenditure. It is the expenditure on these heads that matters most as it directly affects the income of an establishment. In a village or a small town, a tailor often converts part of his residence into a shop and this saves for himself the expenditure on rent. It is in towns like Dhulia, that the element of rent comes in which varies between Rs. 10 and 50 per month depending on the location. Wages too consume a major portion of the total income.

Despite the aforementioned liabilities a tailor is left with a good income. This can be attributed to the changing tastes and fashions of the people. The stitching charges of fashionable garments are

comparatively higher than for ordinary clothes. The income of a tailor varies between Rs. 125 and Rs. 350 per month.

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HAIR CUTTING SALOONS.

Hair cutting saloons are generally found in towns and big villages. Their origin and growth can be attributed to modern ways of life. Till recently, an itinerant barber with a satchel containing requisite instruments, was to be seen moving about from place to place. He used to call on every customer's house. However, the change in habits, tastes and fashions of the people have together caused the establishment of hair-cutting saloons.

The occupation is followed by the persons belonging to *Nhavi* community as a hereditary one though others can follow it. While the total number of persons engaged in the occupation was 1,563 in 1951, it was 1934 in 1961.

The tools and equipment consist of a pair of scissors, cropping machines, combs and razors. The total cost of equipment ranges between Rs. 100 and Rs. 150. Similarly, items like soap, oil, snow, powder are also required. The expenditure on them, however, depends on the total turnover and is found to be varying between Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 per month.

In villages a barber is found to supplement his earnings by taking to agriculture. In cities and towns, as the business is fairly good the owner employs artisans on daily or monthly wages. The number of such artisans, depending on the size of an establishment, varies between 3 and 5. The wages of an artisan employed on daily wage basis are fifty per cent. of the value of the total work done. His daily earnings thus range from Rs. 2·50 to Rs. 4·50. An artisan, employed on monthly wages gets Rs. 90 to Rs. 120.

A shop owner has to pay rent, wages and incur comparatively more expenditure on accessories. Still his net income is generally found to be fairly good. The income of a shop in the district is found to be ranging between Rs. 125 and Rs. 300 per month.

LAUNDERING.

In olden days washermen known as *Parits* or Dhobis were engaged in the occupation. They used to go to every house, collect the clothes from the customers, wash them and deliver them back. In return they used to get a customary reward of grain, called "*baluta*" which is prevalent in a few villages today. Laundries, as they are seen today, were not in existence then. However, with the growth of urbanization the services of a *Dhobi* have been replaced by well-managed, upto-date and decent laundry shops.

The occupation is no longer the monopoly of the *Dhobis* and persons of different castes have been taking to it. While the 1951 Census enumerates 398 persons engaged in the occupation, the number of persons given in 1961 Census is 758, showing an increase of 371 persons.

A laundry requires soap, washing soda, bleaching powder, indigo and tinopal for washing purposes. Besides, they need firewood and

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LAUNDERING.

charcoal. Almost all the materials are purchased in the local markets. The tools and equipment consist of a table, an iron, a wooden cup-board, washing tub, etc. Some of the laundries use accessories of better quality and good furniture.

An individual Dhobi hardly employs outside labour. He works with the assistance of his family members, while a laundry has to hire the services of artisans who, generally, are skilled in their job. While the wages paid to a washerman, are Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 for washing hundred clothes, an artisan doing ironing is paid better especially if he irons costly garments, such as, silk, terylene, terycotton etc. On an average, an artisan earns between Rs. 100 and Rs. 200 per month.

The main heads of expenditure are the cost of raw materials, payment of wages and rent, and other expenditure incidental to the occupation. The amount of net income, however, differs widely from one laundry to another depending upon the size, turnover and location of the establishment. It is found to be ranging between Rs. 150 and Rs. 400 per month.

Consequent upon the general rise in prices laundries have raised their charges. However, the laundry services are in good demand as they were before despite the increased rates.

GOLDSMITHY.

It is the hereditary occupation of the *Sonars*, a caste among Hindus. The rise and prosperity of the *Sonars* is attributed to the frantic craze for ornaments among practically all sections of the community.

The *Khandesh District Gazetteer* of 1880 has to say the following about *Sonars* :

"Sonars, holding the highest place among Khandesh Craftsmen and believed to have come from upper India or Malwa, are found throughout the district. They are of two sub-divisions, Ahir Sonars and Vaishya or Jain Sonars. They are clever and hard-working. Besides making and repairing gold and silver ornaments, they set gems and work in precious stones, and the poor prepare copper and brass ornaments for sale to the women of lower classes. Besides working as jewellers, some are cultivators, others masons and a few are labourers. Some deal in grain and lend money and a few who have received education are employed as Government servants. Those who work as goldsmiths earn according to their skill from ¾ d. to 6 d. (½ anna to 4 annas) for every rupee weight of gold.".

As per the 1961 Census, the number of persons engaged in this occupation is 1,274, of which 15 are female workers. There are no silversmiths as such in the district. *Sonars* themselves make the silver ornaments too.

There exists another class of people who deal in gold and silver. They are known as *Sarafs* who are loosely identified with goldsmiths.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

GOLDSMITHY.

However, they do not make gold ornaments, but sell and accept on mortgage ornaments of precious metals. In olden days, this business was done by goldsmiths.

A Goldsmith requires a variety of materials for moulding and preparation of ornaments. They are *morchud*, mercury, *tejab*, *sora*, lac, *navasagar*, *tankankhar*, etc. The total expenditure on them varies from shop to shop. With the exclusion of gold and silver it is found to be ranging between Rs. 35 and Rs. 50 per month.

An anvil, a pair of hammers, pinches, *sawani* and scissors constitute his tools. Besides, every goldsmith has a safe to keep gold and silver, and one or more show cases to display the prepared ornaments. The whole set, including a safe and show-cases, costs him between Rs. 600 and Rs. 1,000.

Almost all the units surveyed are of hereditary nature and the question of initial capital investment does not figure. Much of the business is effected on cash basis. Borrowing is hardly resorted to.

As the occupation is hereditary, a goldsmith, generally, inherits the skill and craftsmanship from his forefathers. Outside artisans are hardly employed. However, during marriage seasons and festivals which inevitably result in unusual rush of clientele, he does hire the services of other artisans. A hired artisan is paid wages on a piece rate basis which depend upon the skill and craftsmanship involved in the job entrusted to him.

The income of a goldsmith is derived from the charges he receives for the services he renders. The making of new ornaments as also the repairing of old ones is undertaken. A goldsmith makes and repairs a variety of ornaments, such as, *kamarpatta*, *chinchpeti*, *bormal*, *chandrahar*, *galsar*, *thusi*, *goth*, *tode*, etc. The change in fashions seems to have made its impact on the design of ornaments. New patterns of ornaments such as *bakulhar*, *lappha*, *pohehar*, *zanak-zanakar*, etc. have become more popular. The charges of making them have also gone up. Generally, a goldsmith earns an income ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 400 per month.

The Gold Control Rules promulgated under the Defence of India Act, which came into force on 10th January 1963, affected the business adversely. Under these rules, the manufacture of new ornaments of gold with a purity of more than 14 carats is prohibited. It has not only affected the business of the goldsmiths but also has thrown a number of them out of employment. Consequently, goldsmiths have been taking to new occupations. The government is however taking steps to rehabilitate them by providing numerous facilities. The recent amendment in the rules makes provision for the remaking of existing gold ornaments.

PAN BIDI SHOPS.

Pan bidi shops are commonly found in towns as well as in villages. They are scattered fairly well over the district. But they have a flourishing business near market places and entertainment corners. Many a shop are situated by the side of hotels. A rack-

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

PAN BIDI SHOPS.

like wooden pattern, generally hung on the wall or supported by small pillars, contains all the articles of sale. Though accommodated in a small place, they are attractively decorated by fixing mirrors, placing a time piece and a radio set, and the pictures of deities and film stars. The glittering bowls and shining brass plate are an added attraction.

The accessories consist of betel-leaves, betel-nut, tobacco, lime, catechu, cloves and other spices, bidis, cigarettes, etc. Some of them are purchased from local markets and the rest are brought from wholesalers in the district. The monthly expenditure of different shops varies between Rs. 200 and Rs. 400. Some of the establishments also keep post cards, stamps, envelopes and kites, in addition.

Tools and equipment include nut crackers, scissors, racks, shelves and pots for keeping articles of sale. The entire set costs approximately Rs. 250 to Rs. 400.

Cigarettes of different brands, bidis, *pans* of different kinds and match boxes are the main articles of sale. The daily turnover primarily depends on the location of the shop and speciality of pans that it provides. The daily turnover, however, varies between Rs. 15 and Rs. 75.

The main heads of expenditure are the cost of accessories and payment of rent. The cost of raw materials accounts for three-fourth of the total expenditure. The rest varies between Rs. 10 and Rs. 40 depending on the size of the shop. The net income of a shop is found to be ranging between Rs. 125 and Rs. 300 per month.

FLOUR MILLS.

The use of electricity in the flour mills replacing the old oil-engines has accelerated the growth of floor mills in the district and also reduced, to a great extent, their operational cost. Almost in all the bigger villages flour mills have been established. There were as many as 627* flour mills providing employment to 1,144 persons in the district in 1961.

The machinery required to set up a flour mill is of a varied nature, and involves a lot of initial outlay. An electric motor or an oil engine, grinders, and small tools for repairs comprise the machinery and equipment, the cost of which varies between Rs. 6,000 and Rs. 7,000. Wherever pounding is undertaken, hullers and crushers are also installed.

The charges for grinding are more or less the same all over the district. The monthly income of a flour mill is reported to range from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250.

Though some of the flour mills are manned by the owners themselves, many of them are found to employ a skilled worker or two.

SWEET-MEAT MAKING.

Sweet-meat making is one of the important occupations in the district. It is a flourishing business at Dhulia, Shahada, Shirpur and

* This number includes rice mills also.

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SWEET-MEAT MAKING.

Nandurbar. The sweet-meat shops are generally situated on the main road of a town or near the market place.

It is the hereditary occupation of the *Halwais* who run the shop with the assistance of family members. In a very few cases, hired labour is found to be employed. At the time of survey, there were 1,057 persons reported to be engaged in this occupation.

To set up a sweet-meat shop a small initial capital is required. The tools and equipment consist of utensils either of brass or of aluminium necessary to prepare various kinds of sweets. They include pots, pans and saucer-pans and tools like tongs and spoons. Generally, they last for a period of well over 20 years or so with a few requiring replacements. The outlay on tools and equipment, on an average, comes to about Rs. 2,000.

Cost of materials required, rent etc., are the major items of expenditure. They account for almost 95 per cent of the total expenditure and vary between Rs. 250 and Rs. 600 per month. The net income of a sweet-meat shop ranges from Rs. 150 to Rs. 350 per month.

MILK AND MILK PRODUCTS.

It is a flourishing business in Dhulia district which is known for the production of ghee of good quality. The most valuable cattle feeds like jowar kadbi, wheat bran, cotton-seed and groundnut-cake are available in abundance. Grazing areas are extensive and have spread mostly in the hilly portion. In addition, *anjan* trees, a very nourishing fodder for buffaloes is abundantly found in the district. These, all together, provide very nutritive and succulent feed to the animals. The *Malvis* and *Ahmedabadi* types of breed of buffaloes, which yield more milk, are found in the district.

With the availability of ample quantity of milk, a number of shops selling milk and its products have come up in Dhulia district. They require no tools and equipment except a few pots, a balance and weights and other measurements which cost the shop-keeper not more than Rs. 100.

The occupation requires less initial capital investment. Milk and its products are in good demand in spite of the high prices. As a result, the occupation yields good income to its owners.

The old *Khandesh District Gazetteer* published in 1880, has to say the following about dairy business in Khandesh.

"Clarified butter, *tup*, is made chiefly at Dhulia and Laling. Almost all well-to-do husbandmen sell clarified butter, and besides by them, a large quantity is prepared by professional herdsmen of the Dhangar and Gavli castes. The women do the dairy work and sometimes go to sell the butter. Clarified butter is of two kinds, one made from buffaloes', the other from sheep's milk. The butter made from buffaloes' milk is the best fetching from 6 d. to 1 s. (4–8 annas) a pound. It is used by all the well-to-do. Sheep's fetching from 4½ d. to 9 d. (3-6 annas) a pound, is used chiefly by

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MILK AND MILK PRODUCTS.

the poorer classes and in mixing. Cow's butter, which is used for medicine, is seldom made. The producers generally sell to butter dealers, local and Marvad Vanis, Bhatias, and Kachhis, who live in the larger towns and travel about gathering supplies. They keep the butter in large leather jars, *dabas*, and dispose of most of it at their shops in market and other large towns. Butter is clarified by boiling it in a brass or iron pot. When good it keeps fresh and fit for use from eight to fifteen days. Almost the whole supply is used in Khandesh. A little finds its way to Berar and the Nizam's dominions. There has not of late been any marked change in the butter trade".

At present a considerable quantity of ghee, butter and milk is exported from Dhulia district to Bombay. Regular consignments of these products are sent by the agents of the Bombay dealers daily. The Khandesh ghee and butter enjoy very good reputation in the Bombay market. Since the opening of the Government Milk Scheme at Dhulia the milk production and procurement business has received good encouragement. Thousands of litres of milk is exported from the Government dairy to Nagpur and Bombay daily.

BICYCLE SHOPS.

As in other districts, bicycle shops are very common in Dhulia district too. This may be due to the fact that, bicycle is the cheapest and the most convenient conveyance.

Bicycle shops are found to be situated either near market places or in the heart of towns. An average shop is found to own 10 to 30 bicycles. They keep in store such spare parts and accessories as handles, bearings, rims, tubes, tyres, scissors, spanners, wrenches, nuts and bolts, screws, etc. In addition the shops also undertake repairs to the bicycles and petromaxes. The total investment in these shops is generally to the tune of Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 10,000.

A few shops are managed by the owners themselves. In most of the shops, the hired workers, generally specialised in the repair of cycles, petromaxes and stoves are employed. They are paid monthly wages which range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 100.

RADIO AND WATCH REPAIRING.

In recent years there has been an increasing demand for radio sets and watches. Even in distant and interior villages radio sets are to be seen. As a result, a number of shops, dealing in their sale and repairs, have come up. However, they are located only in big towns like Dhulia, Nandurbar and Dondaicha.

For the establishment of a radio or watch shop, a large initial capital investment is required. The investment reported by the surveyed shops ranged between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 15,000.

Besides the sale of radio sets and watches, they undertake repairs to them and sell spare parts. Generally, a skilled worker is employed to carry out repairs. He is paid a monthly salary ranging from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250.

The income from sale is limited as compared to the income derived from repairing as it calls for a specialised technical knowledge and

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MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATERS.

skill. The income of the shops was found to be varying between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600 per month.

Aerated waters have become popular during the last few years. Cold drinks find a good demand during the summer season. This has contributed towards the growth of aerated waters producing factories in many towns in the district such as Dhulia, Shahada, Dondaicha and Nandurbar. With the exception of few they are small sized and are often managed by the owner with the assistance of a few paid workers.

The demand for aerated waters is at its peak during the summer while the state of business is generally dull in the rainy season and the winter.

In such a factory, gas cylinders, soda bottles, glasses, ice boxes, furniture, etc., comprise the machinery and the equipment. The cost of these items, varies between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 5,000 depending on the turnover of the establishments.

The raw material required for the manufacture of aerated waters and allied items includes lemon essence, sugar, syrups, fruit juices, colour, ice, gas (in cylinders), milk, etc. Colour, gas and essences are brought from Bombay and the rest of the material is locally purchased. The monthly expenditure on them ranges from Rs. 50 to Rs. 75.

A skilled worker who works in an aerated drinks producing factory is paid from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 per month. The waiters are paid between Rs. 50 and Rs. 75 per month.

The factories produce a variety of drinks such as soda, lemon, orange, ginger, pineapple and vimto, and ice-creams. In some of the establishments, *lassi* is also prepared. Some shops do the twin business of manufacturing and selling as well. Others supply the products to hotels and restaurants and to cold drink houses at wholesale rates.

The monthly income of an establishment varies between Rs. 125 and Rs. 350 per month depending on the turnover.

The total number of persons employed in the occupation was 71 in 1951 and 131[1] in 1961.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

In 1951, the total number of persons employed in Public Administration in Dhulia district was 6130[2] of which 151 were females. As a result of the increased participation of government in development activities a number of new departments have been set up in which a number of persons are being absorbed. Consequently, the 1961 Census shows a remarkable increase in the number of persons employed in the public administration in the district. It gives the number at 8940[2].

[1] The number includes persons engaged in the production of other beverages besides those engaged in the manufacture of aerated waters.

[2] The number includes the officials of Central and State Governments, *quasi*-Government bodies, local bodies, village officials, clerks, stenographers, typists and police.

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ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCE.

This category embraces those professionals who have achieved a degree or distinction in their respective fields such as arts, literature and science. It includes artists, writers, musicians, architects, engineers, etc.

In 1951, there were only 37 persons enumerated in this category in the district. However, the category was confined only to arts, letters and journalism. The 1961 Census records considerable increase in the number of persons taking to these professions. The following statement gives the number of persons engaged in arts, letters and science in 1961 :–

Category	Persons		
	Males	Females	Total
Social scientists and workers	792	24	816
Architects, Engineers and Surveyors	225	....	225
Artists, writers and related workers	179	20	199
Musicians and related workers	126	4	130
Photographers	186	....	186

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

During the pre-Independence period, the spread of education was confined only to a few towns. Though quite a good number of schools were located at Dhulia, other towns and villages hardly had any school. However, there did exist primary schools which were few and far between. In 1951, immediately after the independence, the total number of persons engaged in the field of education was only 3,143 of which 352 were females.

The introduction of planning, after 1951, for the country's all-round development, proved a boon in the field of education. The expansion of education was given top priority in the Five-Year Plans. Accordingly, a number of schools and colleges were opened almost at each and every town of the district. Primary schools were started in distant and interior villages. A number of educational facilities were made available to the common people. As a result, there had been a remarkable increase in the number of persons engaged in this profession. The Census of 1961 gives the figure at 5,258.

The following statement gives a category-wise split-up of persons employed in the educational services in the year 1961 :–

Category (Teachers)	Males	Females	Total
University	88	5	93
Secondary	945	77	1,022
Middle and primary	3,038	616	3,654
Kinder garten	180	25	205

The rest were research and related workers.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSION.

The spread of education and the remarkable advance in science and technology have together brought about a spirit of questioning

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RELIGIOUS PROFESSION.

the old dogmas about religious beliefs. Many of the customary beliefs appear insipid, and many of the rituals are either circumvented by short-cuts or dropped altogether. This has brought about a decline of the religious profession. However, even now, a good number of people are drawn to the profession. The 1951 Census enumerates 940 persons engaged in the profession, while the Census of 1961 gives the number at 1,120, of whom 707 are non-ordained and 165 are females.

MEDICAL AND HEALTH SERVICES.

In 1951, the total number of persons engaged in this profession including nurses was 549, of whom 111 were females. However, as compared to the total population of the district, very few persons deemed to have taken up this profession. Besides doctors, the number included other persons engaged in the health services. Following the implementation of educational expansion programmes and various health service schemes, in 1961, there were 133 allopathic, 174 *ayurvedic* and 128 other doctors in the district. The total number of doctors and other health service personnel was 521 in 1961. Besides, there were 409 nurses.

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS IN THIS VOLUME RELATING TO agriculture, industries, finance, trade and commerce, transport and miscellaneous occupations describe the economy of the district in its historical as well as structural aspects. The various sectors of the economic life of the district are described so as to present a realistic picture. In the course of the presentation of facts some references are made to various developmental projects and plan programmes. However, no attempt is made towards evaluation of the projects and events. Deduction of analytical conclusions is also not attempted.

The present chapter proposes to analyse the economic trends in the district pertaining to the various aspects of economic life. The chapter analyses the trends in agriculture, industries, trade, banking, prices, wages, employment, etc., as reflected in the standard of living enjoyed by different levels of income-groups. The chapter is divided into two sections.

A study of economic trends is important because the economic life in a developing economy, geared up by the five-year plans, undergoes momentous changes. An evaluation of these changes serves as a guideline for future planning. At the same time it is interesting to analyse the results of the active utilisation of the available resources best reflected in the standard of living of the people. The standard of living depends upon a number of factors. As the gross national product is shared by the entire population of the nation, optimum utilisation of the existing factors of production in relation to the total population determines the standard of living of the people. It is best reflected in the size and pattern of income and expenditure of an individual family.

SECTION I—STANDARD OF LIVING

STANDARD OF LIVING.

Standard of living and standard of life are often misunderstood to be synonymous. However, that is not so. While standard of living denotes the necessaries, comforts and luxuries to the consumption of which an individual or a family is accustomed to, the term standard of life denotes the ideal that an individual or a family would aspire for. Thus the efforts of an individual or a family are directed towards the achievement of an ideal. The concept of standard of living is dynamic and its connotation changes from time to time.

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It is a resultant of two forces, namely changes in the outlook of a family or an individual depending on their income and strides made in the field of science and similar other factors which change the complexion of human demand and character of propensity to consume. Thus there is every likelihood of an ideal for the distant future becoming an immediate fact in the near future and creating new concept for both the standard of life as also for the standard of living.

The concept of standard of living is a relative one. A comparison between the present and the past based on an analysis of income, expenditure, price level, etc., covering a period of a few years and that also for certain selected normal years is essential to judge whether the people in the district are better off or worse off to-day than what they were in the past. However, such an analysis is not possible due to the difficulties encountered in obtaining the detailed statistical data required for the purpose.

The other way to judge the standard of living of the people of the district is to assess the economic prosperity of the district measured in monetary terms. Though such an analysis is purely of a general nature, the rise or fall in the district income as against the price level reflects the commensurate rise or fall in the standard of living in the district, distribution of income being even and the rate of employment during the period of study being fairly steady. The method that is adopted for calculating the provincial or national income can be adopted to calculate the district income. But here again the same difficulty of obtaining correct and reliable statistical data prevents the use of this method. Statistics required for the computation of the district income would be more difficult to obtain than that is required to compute the provincial or the national income. That naturally restricts the scope of an analysis contemplated in this chapter. Thus the study of relative standard of living of the people in the district is not possible. Hence in what follows is given an analysis of the income and expenditure patterns of various representative families belonging to certain defined income groups. Though such a study may not be indicative of the change in the material prosperity of the people, it will definitely show the trends in the patterns of the standard of living and comparison as between the standards enjoyed by various strata of the community. The standard of living is a result of various factors such as the total income of a family, the total expenditure liability of a family and the prevailing price-structure. The family is taken as a unit for this purpose.

The following description of the patterns of income and expenditure in urban and rural areas of Dhulia district is based on tabulated and descriptive information collected through a sample survey in the district. No statistical accuracy is contemplated for the findings of the survey.

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The method adopted for the survey was as follows. Certain rural and urban centres in the district were selected for the survey. The survey was conducted by adopting a family as a unit.

Taking average annual income of a family as a basis of classification, the families were grouped as under :—

Group I—Families with an annual income of Rs. 3,000 and over.

Group II—Families with an annual income ranging between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 3,000.

Group III—Families with an annual income of Rs. 1,000 and below.

The survey covered almost all the aspects of income and expenditure pattern of a family such as the number of members, number of earners, income, expenditure, family possessions, indebtedness, literacy conditions, housing conditions, etc. For the sake of computation an adult[1] or two minors were treated as equal to one unit.

The income from all sources of a family was considered, grouping it together for analytical purposes. Value and volume of debts as also the statistics regarding the savings of a family were collected at the time of the survey.

The monthly and annual expenditure was considered separately. The monthly expenditure included the expenditure incurred on grocery, rent, lighting, domestic services, entertainment, education, etc., while the annual expenditure contained the money spent on clothing, ornaments, medical relief, charity, travelling and social obligations, etc.

In Dhulia district the survey was conducted at the urban centres of Dhulia, Dondaiche, Nandurbar, Nawapur and Shirpur and at the rural centres of Bhadne, Dahivel, Kasare, Khandbara, Malpur, Ner, Nyahalod, Prakashe and Shirud. As the conditions in regard to the cost of living in urban and rural areas of the district do not differ much, the rural and urban areas of the district have been considered together for arriving at the conclusions of the survey. The differences between rural and urban areas, wherever they exist, are shown separately.

Higher Income Group.

Group I consists of families whose annual income is Rs. 3,000 and above. A total of 51 families were surveyed from this group. The average family in this group consisted of 5 units, 4 adults and 2 minors. On an average each family had 2 earners. Of the families in this group 15 in rural areas and 12 in urban areas owned houses valued at Rs. 2,93,600 giving an average value of a house owned at Rs. 10,875. Besides, 21 families owned landed property with an aggregate value of Rs. 5,00,000 giving an average of Rs. 23,000. Only 16 families had property other than house and landed property and that was valued in aggregate at Rs. 86,400 with an average of Rs. 5,400.

[1] A person over 22 years of age is treated as adult for the purposes of cereal consumption.

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Higher Income Group.

Of the families in this group 20 were getting an aggregate income of Rs. 2,52,000 from land, the average income being Rs. 12,600. Six families were getting an aggregate earning of Rs. 6,000 with an average of Rs. 1,000 from their houses. Forty families were getting occupational income of Rs. 1,76,800 giving an average of Rs. 4,420. The average income of a family in this group from all sources was Rs. 9,000 excepting a few families whose annual income was over Rs. 12,000.

Many of the families in this group had cash savings besides insurance policies and other forms of paper savings. Two of the families reported cash savings to the extent of Rs. 34,000 each. Only 18 families were found to be in debts giving an average of Rs. 1,600 only. Most of them were found to have contracted debts for productive purposes.

The following statement shows the minimum and maximum monthly expenditure incurred by a family on different items of consumption in rural and urban areas of the district.

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
Cereals and Pulses	15	120	30	500
Oil, Ghee, etc.	5	30	5	100
Vegetables, eggs, etc. ..	5	70	10	100
Lighting	2	20	5	25
Domestic Services ..	5	125	5	60
Entertainment	1	30	5	50
Education	1	50	10	300
Milk	5	90	10	40
Rent	7	30	25	65

Besides this a family spent some amount every year on clothing, religious matters, medical relief, social obligations and travelling and other miscellaneous items. The statement below gives the minimum and maximum yearly expenditure incurred by a family in rural and urban areas of the district.

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
Clothing	200	2,000	200	1,000
Religious	5	1,200	25	1,000
Medical	40	800	50	2,000
Social obligations ..	5	500	20	1,000
Travelling and Miscellaneous.	10	1,000	75	1,500

Average monthly expenditure of a family in this group came to about Rs. 400. Of this an amount of Rs. 70 was spent on the purchase of cereals and pulses. Many families, from this group, in

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Higher Income Group.

the rural area, were consuming what they themselves produced and purchased in the market only allied essential commodities. Oil, ghee, etc., accounted for Rs. 23 while an equal amount was spent on vegetables, eggs, mutton etc. The family on an average spent Rs. 10 on lighting. They were incurring an expenditure of about Rs. 40 towards domestic services. Besides the cash payment, a few of the families provided facilities such as food, clothing, etc., to their domestic servants. Though the average expenditure on education was placed at Rs. 30, it was high in the urban areas and it was almost five times the expenditure on this item in the rural areas. The average sum of money spent on entertainment was Rs. 14. The average expenditure on milk in urban areas was almost double the expenditure on this item in rural areas. It was Rs. 46 in urban areas as against Rs. 22 in rural areas. A family had to spend much more by way of rent in urban areas as compared to rural areas. In rural areas the average expenditure of families in this group was about Rs. 15 while the same in urban areas was about Rs. 50 per month.

About 13 families out of 29 in rural areas and about 12 families out of 22 in urban areas lived in their owned premises. The District Census Hand-book of Dhulia district for 1961 has the following to say about houses in the district :—

'Classified by "owned" and "rented" 78 per cent of the dwellings in the district are owned and 22 per cent are rented. The proportion of owned is higher (86 per cent) in the rural areas but lower (38 per cent) in the urban areas. Even this low proportion of 38 per cent for the urban areas in the district is somewhat higher than the average of 30 per cent for urban areas of Maharashtra.'

Out of the various materials used for walls, mud appears to be predominant in the district with a proportion of 47 per cent of occupied houses. Mud walls are more common in rural areas as 53 per cent of the occupied dwellings are having such type of walls compared to 18 per cent in urban areas. Its proportions in the talukas of Taloda and Nawapur are a little lower and least in Akrani mahal. The difference is however made up by grass, leaves, reeds or bamboos in these talukas. Burnt bricks are not used as much in rural areas as in urban areas. Their proportion is only 7·7 per cent in the rural areas as against 64·6 per cent in urban areas. Unburnt bricks appear to be used comparatively more in the rural areas with a proportion of 5·5 per cent dwellings against 2·8 per cent dwellings in urban areas.

Out of the materials of roof tiles are predominant in the district with a proportion of 28·5 per cent of occupied dwellings. Tiled roofs are, however, a little less common in urban areas. Their proportion in urban areas is 22·7 per cent against 29·7 per cent in rural areas. In the rural areas tiled roofs have higher proportions specially in northern and western talukas, *viz.*, Akkalkuva, Taloda,

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Nandurbar and Nawapur and Akrani mahal. Towards the east they are gradually replaced by concrete or stone slabs. Flat roofs of earth on wooden beams and rafters are more common in Shahada and Sakri talukas. The distribution corresponds exactly to the pattern of annual rainfall in the district.

Corrugated iron or zinc sheets appear to be predominant in urban areas with 35·3 per cent. They are mostly noticed in the urban areas of Dhulia taluka. They are, however, less common in rural areas and make only 3 per cent. The proportions of roofs of tiles and grass leaves etc., in the rural areas, are almost equal.

Classified by number of rooms occupied, 72·1 per cent of households are occupying one-room dwellings and 20·9 per cent are occupying two-room dwellings. Households occupying more rooms are more in urban areas than in rural areas.

The families in this group spent about Rs. 500 per year on clothing. Their religious expenditure per annum was about Rs. 250. The people were generally health-conscious and they spent yearly about Rs. 225 towards the same. They spent about Rs. 200 towards meeting the social obligations every year. Their annual expenditure on travelling and miscellaneous items was about Rs. 150. In case of few families it was as high as Rs. 1,500.

Many of the families in this group possessed gold in the form of ornaments. Besides gold, a few families had ornaments wedded in precious stones and pearls. These families also had a radio, a fan and in a few cases a motor cycle or a motor car. The utensils that they used were of stainless steel, brass and copper. Use of fine crockery was not uncommon. The percentage of literacy was very high in this group. However, it was noticed that higher education was a marked feature of the urban areas than the rural ones.

Middle Income Group.

The families with an income of between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 3,000 were included in this group. The average family was composed of four adults and two children making five units. There were about one to two earners per family. Out of 62 families surveyed from this group from the rural areas 35 were living in owned premises while in urban areas 14 out of 34 were living in owned houses. Only 6 from the urban areas had landed property worth Rs. 1,32,500 in aggregate. From the rural areas 27 families owned landed property worth Rs. three lakhs. Very few families owned property in other forms than houses and landed property. Only 37 families in the group disclosed their cash savings which amounted to Rs. 77,916 in aggregate giving an average of about Rs. 2,100. Besides, many families had savings in the form of provident fund, insurance, etc. Out of 96 families about 49 families had contracted debts to the extent of Rs. 60,120 in aggregate giving an average of Rs. 1,200 per family. Besides, many families purchased the necessities on credit facilities provided to them by their respective grocers. The loans

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were generally obtained on personal credit, many a times from friends without any interest. Those who had contracted loans from the co-operative bank were paying an interest of around 7 per cent per annum. The average annual income of a family in this group was Rs. 2,800.

The following statement gives the maximum and minimum monthly expenditure incurred by a family in rural and urban areas of the district :—

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
Cereals and pulses ..	150	25	175	20
Oil, ghee, etc.	50	5	30	10
Vegetables, mutton, eggs, etc	35	5	30	3
Lighting	15	2	15	2
Domestic services ..	45	2	30	2
Education	40	2	50	2
Entertainment	15	2	20	2
Milk	30	5	50	7
Rent	30	5	35	8

Besides this a family spent some amount on clothing, religious matters, medical attention, social obligations and travelling and miscellaneous expenditure which is accounted on yearly basis. The maximum and minimum expenditure incurred on these items by families in rural and urban areas of the district is given below :—

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
Clothing	900	100	1,000	80
Religious	100	5	300	13
Social obligations ..	300	5	200	10
Medical	1,000	15	200	15
Travelling and miscellaneous.	500	10	200	10

The average expenditure incurred by a family over the purchase of cereals and pulses was Rs. 60 per month. They generally spent on an average Rs. 16 on oil and ghee. For many, clarified butter (ghee) was a home product. They spent about Rs. 13 per month on vegetables, eggs, mutton, etc. In many cases it was supplemented by home produce. The expenditure on lighting per month came to Rs. 6 on an average. In urban areas 24 out of 34 families employed domestic servants and paid them Rs. 524 in aggregate giving an average of about Rs. 16 per month per family. In rural areas 54 out of 62 families were found employing domestic servants and paid

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Middle Income Group.

them about Rs. 1,130 in aggregate giving an average of Rs. 20 per month. In rural areas the servants were employed on full-time basis while in the urban areas, in many cases, they were employed for doing specific jobs like cleansing utensils, washing clothes, etc. About 22 families from urban areas (75 per cent of the families surveyed) spent Rs. 557 on education of their children while in rural areas 41 families (68 per cent of the families surveyed) spent about Rs. 250 on education. Entertainment expenditure of 27 families in the urban areas was about Rs. 270, as against Rs. 250 by 37 families in rural areas. The average expenditure on the consumption of milk in the rural areas was Rs. 14 while the expenditure over the same item in the urban areas was Rs. 19. In rural areas 34 out of 62, *i.e.*, 56 per cent of the families surveyed were living in rented premises and were found to be paying an average rent of Rs. 12 per month. In urban areas, the average expenditure incurred on rent was Rs. 22. It was found that 50 per cent or 17 of the 34 families surveyed were living in rented premises.

The average annual expenditure incurred on clothing by the families in this group was Rs. 400 in both rural areas as also in urban areas of the district. Generally people were religious-minded. About 83 per cent of the families in this group both from rural as well as urban areas spent on an average Rs. 40 per annum towards the same. Of the 62 families surveyed from this group, as many as 84 per cent of the families numbering 52, spent about Rs. 7,000 in aggregate on medical expenses giving an average of Rs. 135 per family. In urban areas 30 out of 34 families surveyed, *i.e.*, 88 per cent, incurred medical expenses of Rs. 3,300 in a year, in aggregate, giving an average of Rs. 110 per family.

The average expenditure of a family in meeting social obligations was Rs. 74 per year. About 66 per cent of the families in this group spent on an average Rs. 69 per year on travelling and miscellaneous items.

The family possessions of the families in this group consisted of a few tolas of gold in the form of ornaments and some brass, copper and earthen wares besides crockery and a few stainless steel articles. A few pieces of furniture like a chair, a stool or a table were also seen. Their bedding usually consisted of blankets, *chaddar* and minimum number of mattresses required for a family. Many of them had a radio set also. Children in this group generally were educated, many getting secondary and a few getting collegiate education.

Lower Income Group.

The family in this group generally comprised 5·5 units composed of four adults and three minors. There were on an average two earners per family. Many families in this group were staying in their owned premises which were generally small huts constructed on the outskirts of towns or villages. About 30 per cent of them were living in rented premises. About 20 per cent of the families in this group owned landed property and were thus able to

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supplement their occupational income by about Rs. 150 per annum. The average occupational income of a family was placed at Rs. 800 per annum. With such a meagre income, no large savings were expected. However 22 per cent of the families reported an average saving of Rs. 600. About 50 per cent of the families were found to have contracted debts which were placed at Rs. 650 per family

The maximum and minimum monthly expenditure incurred by a family in rural and urban areas on different items of consumption is given below :

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
Cereals and Pulses ..	115	25	55	30
Oil, ghee, etc. ..	16	4	10	5
Lighting	20	3	20	6
Vegetables, eggs, mutton etc.,	8	1	8	2
Domestic services ..	8	1	8	1
Education	30	1	10	3
Entertainment	12	1	....	....
Milk	20	2	7	5
Rent	15	1	....	....

In addition to the items mentioned above these families spent on items such as clothing, religion, medicine, social obligations, etc., on annual basis. The maximum and minimum expenditure incurred by these families on these items is given below :

Expenditure Items	Rural		Urban	
	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum
Clothing	400	60	175	120
Religious	30	2	5	....
Medical	300	10	100	30
Social Obligations ..	10	2	....	....
Miscellaneous	25	2	25	....

The average monthly expenditure incurred by a family in this group towards the purchase of cereals and pulses required for consumption in a month was Rs. 47. In case of only four families from the rural areas (*i.e.*, only 6 per cent of the families surveyed) were they consuming the produce grown on their own farm for a month or two. They spent about Rs. 10 per month on oil. Their average expenditure on vegetables, eggs, mutton, etc., was only Rs. 8 per month. The family spent about Rs. 4 per month on lighting. Even though the people in this group had a small income, it was found that about 60 per cent of the families were providing education to

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their children and were spending about Rs. 6 per month towards the same. Only 43 per cent of the families in both urban and rural areas were found spending on an average Rs. 2 per month on entertainment. Their expenditure on milk was Rs. 7 per month, calculated on an average basis. About 28 per cent of the families spent about Rs. 6 per month on rent.

The family on an average spent Rs. 220 per annum on clothing, Rs. 24 on religious matters, Rs. 12 on social obligations and Rs. 60 on miscellaneous items and travelling.

Their household equipment was meagre, generally consisting of a copper drum or an aluminium pot to store water, a few aluminium utensils and earthen pots. Their bedding was also poor without a mattress or a pillow. The percentage of literacy was also very poor among the families in this group and their education was mostly limited to a primary stage.

Comparative Study of all three groups.

As regards the size of the family, it was found that the family in the third group was slightly bigger than the first two groups. In the families in all the groups there were two earners. The average income of a family in the first group was about Rs. 9,000, of a family in the second it was about Rs. 2,800 and of a family in the third it was about Rs. 900 per year.

The families in the first group spent about 23 per cent of their total expenditure on the purchase of food items as against 38 per cent by the families in the second group and 45 per cent by the families in the third group. The average expenditure on clothing shows a decline as we move from the first to the third group. This may be attributed to the seasonal and costly apparels that a family in the first group would purchase as against the absolutely necessary purchases by the families in the third group. The families in the second group were found to possess sufficient sets of dresses and even a few spares to be worn on ceremonial occasions. In housing condition a marked difference was witnessed between the first group and the third group. The houses of the families in the first group were either spacious *wadas* or good apartments with more than three rooms, well ventilated and well furnished. In contrast to this, the families in the third group were staying in huts with hardly a bare space to live in comfortably. These huts were neither ventilated nor furnished. In case of the families in the second group it was noticed that they were staying in well ventilated apartments, many a time two room tenements partially furnished.

In respect of education it was found that the children in the first and the second groups were generally imparted higher and better education. The children in the third group received education upto primary level and higher levels in a few cases only.

SECTION II.—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS

The economic conditions in the district witnessed numerous changes during the last few decades. Though the basic structure of the rural

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economy did not undergo revolutionary changes, the economic life has changed to a great extent. The First World War, The Great Depression, the Second World War and the post-war economic crisis were the most significant events shaping the economic condition of the country in the pre-Independence period. These fateful events in the international economy had a definite impact on the Indian situation. In turn, The Indian situation was reflected in the district economy as well.

The process of economic development was accentuated in the Post-Independence period by the five year plans. National planning brought in its wake economic and social development. The various sectors of the economy gathered a momentum and the progressive impact is being felt gradually.

Livelihood Pattern.

The livelihood pattern of the population of the district throws a searching light on the economic life of the district. The trend in the livelihood pattern as reflected in the censuses of 1951 and 1961 is analysed in the following paragraphs.[1]

In the Census of 1951 the district population was divided into two broad categories, *viz.*, agricultural and non-agricultural. Each of the two categories was divided into four occupational classes. The distribution of population in the district according to the various occupational classes in 1951 is given below.[2]

Livelihood class	Persons
Agricultural Classes	8,85,834
1. Owner Cultivators	6,14,468
2. Tenant Cultivators	37,817
3. Agricultural Labourers	2,26,901
4. Non-cultivating Owners of Land	6,648
Non-agricultural Classes	2,60,190
5. Production (other than agriculture) ..	83,489
6. Commerce	50,997
7. Transport	7,091
8. Miscellaneous services	1,18,513
Total—District Population ..	11,46,024

Each of the occupational classes was sub-divided into occupational groups and sub-groups. All the classes and sub-classes were further divided with reference to economic status into :—

(*i*) self-supporting persons,

[1] The livelihood pattern as per 1971 census is given in Appendix III to this volume.

[2] Census Handbook, Dhulia District, 1951.

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Livelihood Pattern.

(*ii*) earning dependents,

(*iii*) non-earning dependents.

The concept of dependency has, however, been abandoned, for economic classification, at the 1961 Census. Instead the population is classified into workers and non-workers. The emphasis is on work and not on income or economic dependence. This makes difficult the comparison of the various livelihood classes as in 1951 and 1961.

As per 1961 Census, population is divided into nine categories of economic activities. The following statement gives the livelihood pattern of population on the basis of workers and non-workers, as per 1961 Census :—

Livelihood Class	Persons	Percentage of working population.
Total Working Population ...	6,38,848	.....
(*i*) Cultivators*	2,94,227	46·06
(*ii*) Agricultural Labourers ...	2,32,913	36·46
(*iii*) Mining, quarrying, Live-stock, Forestry, etc.	8,478	1·33
(*iv*) Household industry	22,568	3·53
(*v*) Manufacturing	15,538	2·43
(*vi*) Construction	4,272	0·67
(*vii*) Trade and Commerce ...	19,936	3·12
(*viii*) Transport, Communications and storage.	6,012	0·94
(*ix*) Other services**	34,904	5·46
Non-working population	7,12,388	.....
Total—District population ...	13,51,236	.....

The percentage of cultivators to total working population in the district is only slightly less than that for Maharashtra State. Though the proportion of female workers as cultivators is very much lower, their proportion among agricultural labourers is higher than that for the State. This is attributable to the fact that many women from landholding households in the district do not participate in agricultural work whereas women from landless households participate in field work much more than the corresponding average for the

*Include owner cultivators as well as tenant cultivators.

**Include—

(*i*) Public utility services like electricity, water supply, sanitary services, etc.

(*ii*) Central and State Government employees, and municipal employees.

(*iii*) Professional Services.

(*iv*) Trade or labour associations, recreation services, etc.

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Livelihood Pattern.

State. The percentage of agricultural labourers is very high in this district. Being industrially underdeveloped, employment in manufacturing industries is much less in this district than in the State.

In spite of the changes in the methods of occupational classification, the pattern of employment in 1961 may broadly be compared with the livelihood pattern in 1951.

In 1951, cultivators and agricultural labourers (including earning dependents) formed 56·32 per cent and 24·24 per cent of the total working population* respectively. The corresponding percentages are returned to be 46·06 and 36·46 in 1961. The combined proportion of the two categories has increased from 80·56 per cent in 1951 to 82·52 per cent in 1961. The percentage of cultivators has decreased in 1961, whereas the percentage of agricultural labourers has increased substantially. 'This may, however, be due more to the 1961 changes in the definition of principal workers as a result of which many more persons from those engaged both in cultivation and agricultural labourers have returned their work in the latter category than those in 1951'.

In 1951, agricultural classes accounted for 81·05 per cent of the total working population* (*viz.*, Self-supporting persons and earning dependents), whereas the percentage for 1961 is worked out at 82·52. The 1951 census enumerated that the non-agricultural classes formed together 18·95 per cent of the working population. The corresponding percentage for 1961 is 17·48. About 6·38 per cent of the working population was engaged in 'Production other than agriculture' in 1951. The corresponding group of occupations comprising 'house-hold industry', 'manufacturing', and 'mining, forestry, live-stock, fishing, hunting, plantation, etc.' is enumerated to have engaged 7·79 per cent of the total number of workers in 1961. The percentages in these three occupational classes are returned to be 3·53, 2·43 and 1·33, respectively. Trade and commerce engaged 3·38 per cent and 3·12 per cent in 1951 and 1961, respectively. The occupational class of transport and communications absorbed 0·52 per cent and 0·94 per cent of the total workers in 1951 and 1961, respectively. The percentage of working population grouped under 'other services' declined from 8·67 in 1951 to 5·46 in 1961. One of the principal reasons for this decline might be the change in definition of principal workers.

Population Absorption.

During the decade 1951-61 the population of the district registered an increase of 27·44 per cent. The self-supporting persons and earning dependents who could be said to comprise the working population numbered 4,90,731 in 1951. The 1961 census recorded 638,846 persons as working population. It means that while the population has increased by 27·44 per cent. the working population has shown an increase of about 30·18 per cent during the decade.

*Total working population in various occupational classes in 1951 has been worked out by adding up the self-supporting persons and earning dependants.

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Population Absorption.

The increased working population seems to have been absorbed in occupational divisions like manufacturing, transport and storage, household industry and agricultural labour.

The study of the status of employment in non-household industry, trade, business, professions or services shows interesting facts. Employers constitute only 2·63 per cent (2347 in number) of the workers engaged in non-household industries. The largest class is that of employees who account for 47·97 per cent or 42,759 in number. Single workers forming 35·60 per cent or 31,743 in number are an important class from the economic point of view. Family workers represent 13·80 per cent or 12,291 in number.

Non-working population.

The distribution of non-working population classified in eight broad categories, as per 1961 Census is given below :—

Category	Males	Females	Percentage	
			Males	Females
Total non-working Population ..	3,07,493	4,04,895	100	100
1. Full-time students ..	97,373	43,208	31·67	10·67
2. Household duties ..	443	1,28,344	0·15	31·70
3. Dependents, infants and disabled.	2,03,479	2,31,854	66·17	57·26
4. Retired, rentiers or independent means.	1,393	688	0·45	0·17
5. Beggars, vagrants, etc. ..	803	537	0·26	0·13
6. Inmates of institutions ..	1,965	188	0·64	0·05
7. Persons seeking employment for the first time.	1,207	51	0·39	0·01
8. Unemployed but seeking work	830	25	0·27	0·01

There is a very remarkable difference in the pattern of distribution for non-workers among males and females. About 31·67 per cent. out of male non-workers are full-time students while the corresponding percentage for females is 10·67. It is mainly because 31·70 per cent. females who are engaged in household duties are also included as non-workers. Naturally enough dependents, infants and disabled persons form the largest proportion.

Persons enumerated as unemployed form 0·66 per cent. among males and 0·02 among females. But the statistics of unemployment do not seem to present a realistic picture of the state of employment in the district. The statistics do not cover a large number of people who are only partially employed or underemployed. In fact the Census questionnaire did not have any question to determine the extent of full employment or under-employment.

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Economic Resources.

The principal economic resources available in Dhulia district are agricultural land, forests, agro-industrial raw materials, abundant manpower and live-stock. Agricultural land, with a net cultivated area of 16,58,904 acres (1961-62), is the most important of the economic resources in Dhulia district. The cultivated land is classified into five categories, such as, deep black soil, medium deep black soil, medium black soil, light brown soil and *murmad* soil. The first three types of soil respond more favourably to manures and fertilisers. Intensive cultivation is favourably rewarded in these soils. They are suitable for the cultivation of cotton, jowar, groundnut, *tur*, *mug* and a variety of cereals and pulses. The light brown and *murmad* soils are suitable for *kharif* jowar, bajra, *mug*, *udid* and *kulthi*.

Of the total geographical area of 35,31,135 acres, 16,58,904, acres form net area cultivated, 22,39,75 acres constitute double cropped area, 92,612 acres culturable waste, and 53,754 acres fallow lands.

Forest Resources.

Dhulia district is rich in respect of forest resources. The forests in the district are very important commercially. The forests yield valuable teak wood (*sagwan*) as well as a number of species, such as, *khair*, *palas*, *shadada*, *shisam*, *tiwas*, *haldu*, *kalam*, *ain*, *bija*, *dhavada*, *shaman*, *sal*, *hivar*, *anjan*, etc. The other commercially important forest products are, (1) *tendu* and *apta* leaves useful for bidi industry, (2) *mohwa* flowers and fruits (3) gums and resins, (4) lac, and (5) *khair* for manufacture of catechu. Bamboo is also found on a large scale. *Charoli* trees which yield valuable dry fruits are found scattered in the forests. Besides timber and other products, fire wood, fodder grass and *rosha* grass are abundantly available, and they form an important source of revenue. The oil extracted from *rosha* grass has a great demand in foreign countries, and is rated to be an exchange earner.

Forests extend over an area of 1564·72 square miles*, of which 1441·72 square miles are in charge of Forest department and 123 square miles in charge of Revenue department. The forest area forms 32·26 per cent of the total geographical area of the district as against 17·56 per cent for Maharashtra. The percentage for this district accords favourably with national forest policy.

The forest resources are exploited through the agency of Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies. Forestry and logging provided employment to 1647 persons in 1961.

Minerals.

There are no mineral deposits found in the district. Mining industry is therefore limited to quarrying of stones and clay.

Industrial Raw materials.

In the absence of geological resources and minerals, agricultural produce comprises the principal raw materials, in Dhulia. Cotton which is cultivated on a very large scale is by far the most important

*13,34,455 acres in 1961-62 as per statistics furnished by Agriculture department.

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Economic Resources.

Industrial Raw materials.

raw material in the district. Cotton commanded an area of 1,55,622 acres in 1952-53 and 2,09,455 acres in 1961-62. The outturn of cotton in the two years was 13,400 tons and 32,837 tons, respectively.

Groundnut, the most essential raw material for the hydrogenated oil industry, is also produced in large quantities. Groundnut occupied an area of 2,25,295 acres in 1952-53 and 3,22,007 acres in 1961-62. The outturn of this commercial commodity was 22,516 tons in 1952-53 and 1,05,99 tons in 1961-62.

Besides cotton and groundnut the other raw materials available in the district are cotton seed, forest produce as referred to above and non-edible oils used in the manufacture of soaps.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the mainstay of the majority of the people in Dhulia. The Census of 1951 recorded 8,85,834 persons as dependent on agriculture in various capacities, such as, owner cultivators, tenant cultivators, non-cultivating owners of land and agricultural labourers. The 1961 Census which followed work rather than dependence as a basis, returned 2,94,227 persons as cultivators and 2,32,913 persons as agricultural labourers. In fact about 75 per cent of the total population are dependent on agriculture in one way or another.

Though the agrarian economy of the district has not witnessed basic changes in its structural fabric, it has allowed a number of changes in the pattern of crops, methods of farming and inputs. The various aspects of the agricultural economy are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The principal crops in this district are groundnut, cotton, jowar, bajri, wheat and chillis. Though jowar (*dadar*) and wheat are grown in the *rabi* season, *kharif* is the principal season. Of the total cultivated area in the district, irrigation facilities are available only to 3·5 per cent. Wheat, chillis, *Deviraj* cotton (CO^2) and sugarcane are grown in irrigated land. There has been a growing tendency in this district to bring more and more land under irrigation and double cropping. For example, an area of 2,23,975 acres was sown more than once in 1961-62, whereas the corresponding area in 1959-60 was 2,04,515 acres.

There have been remarkable changes in the pattern of crops. Cash crops have attracted the keen attention of the farmer who takes the cultivation of chillis, *Deviraj* cotton, groundnut and sugarcane as more profitable. Consequently there has been a diversion of land from food crops to these crops. The area under groundnut increased from 225295 acres in 1952-53 to 322007 acres in 1961-62; while the acreage under cotton increased from 155622 to 209455 during the same period. The acreage under jowar decreased from 445606 in 1952-53 to 437714 in 1961-62. The production of these crops, however, does not reflect consistent trend because of the failure of monsoons during 1952-53. The production of groundnut was 22,516 tons in 1952-53 and 10,599

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tons in 1961-62; that of cotton was 13,400 tons in 1952-53 and 32,837 tons in 1961-62, that of jowar was 40,724 tons in 1952-53 and 84,659 in 1961-62.

The *Deviraj* cotton campaign which aims at propagating the cultivation of this long staple fine variety has shown very good results. It commanded an area of 4200 acres in 1960-61, and its production has been quite encouraging. The production of sugarcane was very much limited in the past, but now it occupied an area of more than 6500 acres. The improved method of sugarcane cultivation, *viz.*, Padegaon method, has replaced the old method which yielded smaller production. Sugarcane cultivation has received good encouragement from the government in the form of supply of chemical fertilisers and pesticides. Efforts to establish a sugar factory in the district are afoot.

The *rabi* jowar experimental scheme over an area of about 5000 acres near Shirpur has demonstrated the potentiality of jowar production under ideal conditions. The cultivators in the district are expected to adopt the method of cultivation expounded by the scheme. The *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns which were launched by the Agriculture department in 1958-59 have yielded good results, in the sense that the production has increased and that the cultivator has become conscious of improved methods of cultivation.

It is a very remarkable trend that barring the *Adivasi* population, the majority of the cultivators have become conscious of the essentiality and profitability of the improved methods of cultivation. There is a widespread awareness that ploughing with the iron plough, sowing with a coultered drill and interculturing with a hoe lead to higher yield. There is greater awareness of the potentiality of green as well as chemical fertilisers. In fact, the demand for manures has much outstripped their supply from all sources. The use of pesticides, insecticides and fungicides which was virtually unknown in the past has become quite popular. The peasant wants to use them but sometimes finds it difficult to get them.

Persistent efforts of the officials of the Agriculture department to persuade the farmer to adopt improved methods of farming have brought about salient results. Crop competitions and demonstration activities have encouraged the farmer to use the available chemical fertilisers and hybrid seeds. The hybrid movement launched since 1964-65 has went a long way in evolving pest resistant and high yielding strains of foodgrains. There are eight seed multiplication centres in the district. These centres evolved improved seeds of jowar, bajri, groundnut and wheat sufficient for sowing 9748 acres of land in 1960-61.* The Agriculture department supplied 3565 tons of ammonium sulphate and 1804 tons of super phosphate during the

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same year.* This supply was, however, very much meagre in relation to the demand. It should be noted that the use of chemical fertilisers became popular during the last about 25 years.

The programme of bunding and soil conservation which was launched in Dhulia district in 1948 has started bearing fruits only recently. In the initial stages there was no proper response to this programme. The programme is claimed to have covered about 2,09,777 acres of land up to 1960-61.* Bunding helps to retain the fertility of soil by preventing erosion and by retaining moisture. It also helps to maintain the level of sub-soil water.

The progress evaluated above has, however, been discouraging in the areas of *Adivasi* and backward population. The average Adivasi farmer, overwhelmed by his ignorance and poverty, is more conservative to change and less amenable to progress.

Agricultural research and education are of primary importance for scientific agriculture. Dhulia district has not lagged behind in this respect. There is an agricultural research centre which undertakes research to evolve hybrid strains and recommends pesticides and insecticides. There is an Agricultural College as well as an Agricultural School providing facilities for training the necessary personnel. The Agricultural College at Dhulia, established in 1960, possesses a research laboratory and experimental farms which serve as model to the farmers.

After the enactment of the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act in 1947, fragmentation and subdivision of holdings was prohibited. The consolidation of holdings, however, has not yielded any spectacular results. The programme has been implemented to some extent in Dhulia, Sindkheda and Sakri talukas.

The progressive land legislation in the post-independence period has assured security of tenure to the tenant cultivator who was formerly at the mercy of the landlord. This, in turn, has given him an incentive to adopt intensive methods of cultivation and to bring about land improvement. The legislative provisions are however circumvented by a number of malpractices which result into eviction of the tenant under one pretext or the other. The legislation on ceilings, beneficial as it is, has not met with success because of bogus partitions. A large number of tenants are being deprived of the expected gains by the landlords. The state of affairs in the *Adivasi* areas is distressing. The progressive land legislation has not brought about good results for them.

The regulation of trade in agricultural produce which found its beginning in 1930 in this district has a great impact on the economic condition of the agriculturists. As discussed in the Chapter on 'Trade', sale and purchase of agricultural produce were fraught with malpractices and irregularities which were harmful to the agriculturists in the past. The regulated markets have eliminated these malpractices, and protected the agriculturists interests.

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Land Utilisation.

The pattern of land utilisation throws an important sidelight on the agricultural prosperity of a district. The average percentage distribution of the geographical area during the period 1957-58 to 1959-60 is given below :—

		Per cent.
1.	Total Geographical area	100
2.	Forests	35·92
3.	Barren and unculturable land	10·60
4.	Land put to non-agricultural uses.	1·21
5.	Culturable waste	1·96
6.	Permanent pastures	3·82
7.	Miscellaneous tree crops and groves	0·02
8.	Current fallows	1·09
9.	Other fallows	0·89
10.	Net area sown	44·49
11.	Gross cropped area	50·54

The pattern of land utilisation during 1961-62 is given below :—

		Area in acres.
1.	Total Geographical area	35,31,135
2.	Forests	13,34,485
3.	Barren and unculturable land	1,90,387
4.	Land put to non-agricultural uses.	34,166
5.	Culturable waste	92,612
6.	Permanent pastures	1,65,254
7.	Land under miscellaneous tree crops	1,573
8.	Current fallows	8,754
9.	Other fallows	45,000
10.	Net area sown	16,58,904
11.	Area sown more than once	2,23,975
12.	Total cropped area	18,82,879
13.	Total uncultivated area	18,72,231

The net area sown in Dhulia district is about 44·49 per cent of the geographical area against the average of 57·69 per cent for the State. The low proportion of the area sown is due to the high proportion of forests, and barren and unculturable land. It is a noteworthy fact that a large acreage of land, *viz.*, about 1,46,366 acres, classified above as culturable waste, current fallows and other fallows, can be brought under cultivation. There is sufficient scope for extensive cultivation in respect of the land left idle at present.

Irrigation.

The valleys in this district are open and level, and the smaller rivers, rising in the Sahyadri hills, flow in shallow beds blocked here and there by rocky ledges of much service in making masonry weirs

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Irrigation.

(*bandharas*) while from their flatness or very gentle cross slope large areas of land are easily commanded. This irrigation from weirs is chiefly practised near the hills on the upper parts of the river courses in the sub-divisions of Pimpalner, Dhulia, Nandurbar, and Amalner. As the rivers grow larger and draw near the Tapi, their beds are too deep sunk to be easily dammed. And the Tapi itself, flowing more than 100 feet below the level of the plain, is not suited for irrigation works.*

The Lower Panjhra water work was by far the only irrigation scheme in the district in 1880. The Lower Panjhra work consisted of the Mukti reservoir, ten dams across the Panjhra, and water courses from these dams. The outlay on these works up to 1879-80 amounted to Rs. 4,56,534 and irrigated an area of 3798 acres in that year. Besides this, there were a number of wells which catered to the needs of irrigation. But the irrigation potential of these wells was very insignificant.

However, during the last eighty years or so since 1880, the irrigation potential increased considerably. In 1961-62, the net area brought under irrigation was 73,494 acres. Of this, 23,278 acres of land were irrigated through government canals, 1302 acres through private canals, 2206 acres through tanks and 46,708 acres through wells.

This progress cannot be said to have achieved the maximum results. Every season of short rainfall greatly encourages irrigation. In many places water is now used for the growth even of the inferior grains. However the existing irrigation facilities do not meet the demand for them. Recently a few minor irrigation works, *viz. bandharas* and lift irrigation works have been started. The agriculturists are given certain incentive benefits to dig wells.

Soil conservation which is so very important for preventing the erosion of soil and for retaining the fertility of land has received the attention of the government since the beginning of five year plans. The soil conservation measures undertaken in this district comprise bunding, trenching, terracing and planting trees. These measures will save agricultural land from any reduction in its fertility.

Co-operative Movement.

The co-operative movement has contributed considerably to agricultural progress since the last about 20 years. The movement has been helping the agricultural economy to do away with the evils of, (1) poverty of the cultivator, (2) money-lending business, (3) shortage of improved aids to agriculture, and (4) low productivity of land. The co-operatives cater to the needs of rural credit, supply of improved seeds, fertilizers, implements and pesticides, and marketing of agricultural produce. All these have a definite impact on improving agricultural conditions. Co-operative farming which has just found an humble beginning in this district aims at reducing the ills of increasing pressure of population on

*Khandesh District Gazetteer, 1880.

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land, equitable distribution of land, and doing away with uneconomic size of holding, sub-division and fragmentation of land, low productivity of agricultural land, primitive methods of farming, and illiteracy of the farmer.

The co-operative complex comprises an institutional framework consisting of co-operative credit societies, multipurpose societies, service co-operatives, purchase and sale societies, co-operative farming societies and consumers co-operative societies. In fact the co-operatives are expected to take a lead in the programme of rural emancipation.

Regulated Markets.

Development of regulated markets has been very much remarkable in Dhulia district. The history of regulation of agricultural marketing in Dhulia dates back to September 1930 in which year the Dhulia market was brought under the purview of the Bombay Cotton Markets Act of 1927. Subsequently the important markets at Dondaicha, Shirpur, Nandurbar, Shahada, Nawapur, Taloda, and Sakri were brought under regulation. Besides these principal markets, the below mentioned sub-markets have also been regulated under the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. They are: Shirud, Sindkheda, Nardana, Betawad, Hol Nanthe, Vikharan, Dhanore, Prakashe, Mandana, Chinchpada, Khandbara, Visarwadi and Akkalkuwa. A few such markets are also proposed to be regulated. Thus, the network of regulated markets in the district will be complete.

Industrialisation.

Cotton processing and oil extraction were the only organised industries in the district at the end of the 19th century. The economic boom generated during the World War I, World War II and the post-war period gave an impetus to the growth of a number of industries, such as, cotton ginning and pressing, cotton textiles, oil crushing, auto workshops, *dal mills*, bidi making, *gul* manufacturing, stone crushing and tanning. Most of the industrial development was, however, based on the availability of agro-industrial raw materials. The agriculture based raw materials, such as, cotton, groundnut, cotton seed, pulses, etc., have a large production in this district.

Though Dhulia district cannot be rated as advanced industrially, incidental to the planning schemes, the government has been encouraging the development of small-scale industries in the district. The State Government prepared a Master Plan for Industrialisation in 1960, and accordingly industries are given enough encouragement. The Small Industries Service Institute, Bombay provides technical assistance to small factories on such matters as the preparation of industrial schemes, factory plans, testing of raw materials, demonstration of modern machines, training, dissemination of economic information and industrial intelligence. The Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation, and the Maharashtra Small Scale Industries Corporation, both undertakings of the Maharashtra government, are doing a pioneering work in the expansion of small scale industries. The State Financial Corporation and the National Small Industries Corporation also give financial assistance on liberalised terms

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for the purposes of factory sites, worksheds, machinery and working capital. The industrial estate at Dhulia is another noteworthy achievement in the industrial field. It has enabled small industrial undertakings to get the benefits of common service, and facilities of location, power supply, transport and water supply.

The Master Plan for Industrialisation of Bombay State, prepared in 1960, made valuable recommendations regarding the development of industries in Dhulia district. The Master Plan has recommended the establishment of a plant for solvent extraction of oil-cake to recover residual oil contents, in the district. It is also visualised that Dhulia would be a suitable place for locating a factory for extraction of cotton seed oil. As cotton seed is available in abundance in the district 'a composite unit for recovering linters, decorticating seeds for expression or extraction of oil and refining will be desirable.'

'Some of the agricultural and forest resources in this area are sufficient to support economic units of small industries. Besides establishment of large-scale industries would stimulate setting up of small-scale ancillary units ..... In the West Khandesh district about 31·00 acres are under sugarcane. It should be possible, therefore, to take up production of Khandsari at a suitable place, preferably in the Sakri and Shahada talukas.'

In view of the availability of good timber and railway transport facilities, Nawapur and Nandurbar are considered suitable for locating wood seasoning and preservation industry in this district.

Price Trends.

The study of the general level of prices is of importance because it helps to understand the economic condition of the people. Fluctuations in the level of prices is one of the most significant phenomena of our times. Hence it is of immense interest to study the salient trends in the price level.

The *Khandesh District Gazetteer* published in 1880 gave very valuable information about the trends of prices during the period 1788 to 1879, which is reproduced below.

"The returns of produce prices stretch over an unusually long series of years. They belong to two main sets, one for the thirty-three years ending 1820, prepared for the Amalner, Erandol and Nandurbar sub-divisions in 1820 under Captain Briggs' orders, and the other for the forty-six years ending 1878, compiled by the Dhulia mamlatdar from records and grain dealers' accounts. Between the two sets of returns is break of three years (1821 to 1823).

"The first set of thirty-three years includes three periods, one of ten years 1788 to 1797, one of twenty years 1798 to 1817, and one of three years 1818 to 1820. The first period, from 1788 to 1797, was a time of very cheap grain, with the rupee price of Indian millet, *Jvari*, ranging from 210 pounds in Erandol to 280 pounds in Amalner, and averaging 245 pounds. The second period, from 1798 to 1817, was, apart from the great 1802-3 famine when millet rose to about four

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pounds the rupee, a time of dearer grain, with millet prices ranging from 129 pounds in Amalner to 140 in Nandurbar and averaging 135 pounds. In the three years ending 1820, produce prices rose most markedly, Indian millet, *jvari*, varying from sixty-three pounds in Amalner to ninety-four pounds in Erandol and averaging seventy-six pounds. The following statement gives the chief available details.

KHANDESH PRODUCE PRICES (POUNDS THE RUPEE) 1788-1820.

Article	First Period 1788—1797				Second Period 1798—1817				Third Period 1818—1820			
	Amalner	Erandol	Nandurbar	Average	Amalner	Erandol	Nandurbar	Average	Amalner	Erandol	Nandurbar	Average
Indian Millet ..	280	210	245	245	129	136	140	135	63	94	73	76
Millet ..	227	245	210	227	105	122	133	120	56	73	70	66
Wheat ..	210	140	175	175	66	66	80	70	45	45	56	48
Rice ..	122	105	87	101	42	38	38	39	28	32	24	28

1821–1879 :–"The years 1821, 1822 and 1823, for which no returns are available, are spoken of as a period of tillage and lower prices than had been known for thirty years. Then followed one or two seasons (1824-1826) of scarcity nearly amounting to famine, with Indian millet ruling at from seventy-four to seventy-nine pounds, or about as high as in 1817. The fifty three years since 1826 may be divided into five periods. Six years of cheap grain (1827-1832) with Indian millet ranging from ninety to 144 pounds and averaging about 117; four years of scarcity (1833-1836) with Indian millet varying from sixty-two to seventy-three pounds and averaging sixty-six; eighteen years (1837-1854), excluding the scarcity years of 1838-39 and 1845-46, of low prices with Indian millet ranging from eighty to 168 and averaging about 116 pounds; and thirteen years (1855-1867) of high prices, partly owing to several seasons of short crops and partly to the American war and the introduction of railways and public works, with prices varying from thirty-two to eighty-four and averaging fifty-four pounds. In the twelve years that have since passed (1868-1879), Indian millet prices have varied from seventy to 24½ and averaged about forty-six pounds. The tendency in these years has been to a fall in prices. But this tendency has been more than met by four bad harvests followed by almost famine prices, in 1868, 1871, 1876, and 1877. The following statement shows the available details of the prices of the chief cereals and pulses, and of cotton, between 1824 and 1879.

Captain Briggs* returns for the first set of thirty-three years (1788-1820) include some interesting particulars of the prices of fowls,

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Khandesh District, 1880, pp. 202-04.

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KHANDESH PRODUCE PRICES (POUNDS THE RUPEE), 1824-1879

Article		Years of Scarcity			First Period					
		1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832
Indian millet	..	74	76	79	90	115	144	93½	118	144
Wheat	1st sort ..	56	52	49	52½	47	44	62½	64	66½
	2nd sort ..	58	56	50	53	48	59½	63	66	67
Rice	1st sort ..	22½	18	15½	17½	21	19½	19½	23	27
	2nd sort ..	26	24	17	28	23	23	21	28	31
Pulse, *tur*	..	42	39	37	45	63	48	37	41	45
Raw cotton	.	10	10	10	14	18	14	10	11	12

Article		Second Period				Third Period					
		1833	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	1842
Indian millet	..	67	73	62	62	102	121½	80½	102½	109½	94½
Wheat	1st sort ..	51½	45	43	56½	62	79	49½	49	60	60½
	2nd sort ..	53	48	46	58½	70	88	56	56	68	64½
Rice	1st sort ..	22½	18	20	22	24	32	20	24	24	26
	2nd sort ..	23½	21	24	24	26	36	22	26	26	28
Pulse, *tur*	..	39½	28	33½	45	46½	41	30	37½	49½	44
Raw cotton	..	10	8	6	8	8	16	10	16	12	12

Article		Third Period							
		1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850
Indian millet	..	88	103½	91½	38	114½	171	134	85½
Wheat	1st sort ..	60	82	68	33	35	72½	63½	58
	2nd sort ..	64	83	70	34	39	78	65	60½
Rice	1st sort ..	24	26½	33	24½	22½	21½	27½	27½
	2nd sort ..	30	28½	35	26½	24½	24½	31	31
Pulse, *tur*	..	44	56½	32	21½	35½	46	51	35
Raw cotton	..	12	10	8	13	13	16	16	10

Article		Third period				Fourth period						
		1851	1852	1853	1854	1855	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861
Indian millet	..	130	154	124	168	76	84	72	56	56	48	32
Wheat	1st sort ..	62	66	62	66½	60	56	36	38	32	30	28
	2nd sort ..	62½	68	63	68½	62	58	38	40	34	32	32
Rice	1st sort ..	28	30	28	30	28	28	24	16	12	14	17½
	2nd sort ..	29	32	29	34	32	32	30	18	16	16	19
Pulse, *tur*	..	38	52	48	48	46	48	32	22	24	22	24
Raw cotton	..	10	12	10	12	8	8	8	8	9	9	8

Article		Fourth Period—*contd.*						Fifth Period	
		1862	1863	1864	1865	1866	1867	1868	1869
Indian millet	..	52	48	35	42	56	42	70	24½
Wheat	1st sort ..	30	28	26	20	26	28	32	17½
	2nd sort ..	33	30	28	28	30	29	34	18
Rice	1st sort ..	16	10½	14	10½	11	11	17½	12
	2nd sort ..	19	13	15	13	13	14	20	13
Pulse, *tur*	..	18	24½	17½	14½	14½	16½	28	17½
Raw cotton	..	6	4	4	5	5	5	3	2

Article		Fifth Period—*contd.*									
		1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879
Indian millet	..	44	37	50	60½	63½	61	47	27	28⅜	31½
Wheat	1st sort ..	20	29	26½	47	39½	34½	34½	22	17	19½
	2nd sort ..	22	30	28	48	40	36	36	23	17 1/8	21½
Rice	1st sort ..	15	13	15½	17	16 7/16	16 7/16	16	14½	11½	14½
	2nd sort ..	20	18	18	21	21	21	21	20	15⅜	17½
Pulse, *tur*	..	16½	22½	19½	24½	24½	32	29	19½	14⅜	16½
Raw cotton	..	4½	4	4½	6	6	5	5	5	5	5

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chickens and eggs. From these returns it would seem that on an average during the first of his three periods (1788-1797), fowls sold at 3*d.* (2 *annas*) a piece, chickens at 2½*d.* (1 2/3 *annas*), and eggs at about seven for a penny (8 pies). In the second period (1798-1817) the average price of fowls rose to about 5¼*d.* (3½ *annas*), of chickens to about 3¼*d.* (2 1/6 *annas*), and of eggs to five for a penny (8 *pies*). The current (1880) prices of these three articles in the three subdivisions, Amalner, Erandol and Nandurbar, to which the old returns refer, are for a fowl from 3*d.* to 1*s.* (2-8 *annas*), for a chicken from 1½*d.* to 4½*d.* (1-3 *annas*), and for eggs about three for a penny (8 *pies*)."*

Apart from temporary and seasonal fluctuations in prices there have been strikingly permanent changes in the purchasing power of the Indian rupee since the onset of this century. The purchasing power of the rupee has been on the decline since the commencement of hostilities during the First World War. Prices of all goods were very high during the War, and the same trend continued till the Great Depression of 1930. The Depression which slumped down the economies of the U. S. A., the U. K., France and Germany had an adverse effect on the prices of primary commodities in the international markets. The slump in the prices led to a momentous fall in the prices as well as demand for Indian goods. This had an inevitable effect on the Indian economy. The downward trend of prices continued till 1933, after which the trend was reverted. The Second World War brought about a sharp rise in prices from 1939. The shortage of consumers goods and increase in the supply of money in circulation permitted the prices to rise continuously. The cessation of hostilities in 1945 brought down the level of commodity prices slightly. This was however a temporary phase. The Korean War boom caused the rise in prices of all commodities in the international markets. These international fluctuations in prices were clearly reflected in the Indian economy which in turn affected the economy of Dhulia district from time to time.

After the Korean boom there was a slight recession in prices, but it was only short lived. The year 1952-53 witnessed a rise of agricultural prices because of scarcity conditions in the district.

The period between 1952 and 1958 did not show a consistent trend of prices. The harvest conditions during 1953-54, 1954-55 and 1955-56 were quite satisfactory. This kept the prices of agricultural commodities well under control. Prices however started rising from the year 1956-57 and registered a high level in 1959-60. The good harvest conditions during 1960-61 and 1961-62 brought down the prices below the 1959-60 level.

Table No. 1 gives the trend of wholesale prices of principal agricultural commodities at Nandurbar market during the period between 1948-49 and 1960-61.

Table No. 2 gives the monthly trend of wholesale prices of agricultural commodities at Dhulia market during 1958-59, 1961-62 and 1962-63.

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TABLE No. 1

AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES AT NANDURBAR MARKET DURING 1948-61

(Prices in Rs. per maund)

	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
1. Cotton ..	37.00	39.50	40.00	35.00	34.00	32.00	23.00	30.50	31.00	34.00	33.20	39.00	38.00
2. Groundnut seed	29.50	35.00	33.50	26.56	23.00	..	18.50	22.00	27.25	30.00	27.69	39.00	38.00
3. Groundnut ..	20.00	22.50	23.75	18.50	22.00	18.12	11.50	18.50	19.50	18.50	20.12	24.00	27.00
4. *Tur* ..	17.50	15.00	19.70	19.19	16.50	11.12	9.25	13.50	15.50	16.50	21.00	17.50	16.60
5. Gram ..	20.25	19.00	15.60	16.25	22.50	16.50	10.00	13.00	14.00	14.00	19.20	16.00	17.25
6. *Mug* ..	....	....	20.25	21.50	19.50	13.50	9.50	15.50	15.50	17.50	20.70	17.00	20.00
7. *Udid* ..	....	....	21.00	18.25	20.25	14.50	8.25	17.50	17.00	16.00	15.50	16.00	18.00
8. *Math* ..	....	....	20.00	18.19	17.50	10.50	7.50	9.50	10.50	13.50	15.75	14.00	18.00
9. °Chilli (wet) ..	....	....	12.30	15.37	14.50	31.50	16.50	21.00	22.50	17.50	26.07	31.00	22.00
10. Chilli (dry) ..	....	....	60.75	27.69	48.50	72.00	25.00	38.50	45.00	38.50	60.20	70.00	40.00
11. Gul ..	....	....	21.00	14.19	18.50	19.50	12.50	12.50	14.00	14.00	19.65	20.50	14.00
12. Wheat ..	....	....	....	....	....	16.00	14.25	16.50	17.75	16.50	24.40	22.25	18.00
13. Jowar ..	....	....	....	....	....	10.50	7.50	13.25	16.25	13.00	13.38	15.50	13.50
14. Bajri ..	....	....	....	....	....	12.00	9.50	12.75	18.50	14.00	15.30	17.00	17.00

TABLE

AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF IMPORTANT COMMODITIES AT DHULIA

Month	Cotton			Groundnut		
	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
September ..	..	..	..	21·44	..	17·60
October ..	23·19	42·00	54·60	14·19	17·60	18·00
November ..	30·87	44·00	51·00	16·75	21·00	21·60
December ..	33·00	44·60	46·00	15·00	27·80	24·80
January ..	31·75	45·60	46·80	19·56	28·40	24·00
February ..	28·87	45·20	47·40	20·75	30·00	25·00
March ..	28·81	44·00	46·20	21·56	30·00	25·20
April ..	27·44	39·20	41·20	22·44	29·60	26·40
May ..	29·44	39·20	46·00	24·00	28·00	28·60
June ..	20·25	42·00	40·00	22·73	27·20	30·40
July ..	....	....	....	21·35	28·00	30·40
August ..	....	....	....	21·20	30·80	30·40

TABLE

Month	Mug			Sesamum		
	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
September ..	20·94	15·40	21·20	32·75	38·10	40·60
October ..	15·44	16·00	21·00	33·75	40·00	41·60
November ..	20·75	17·00	22·80	30·94	41·00	41·00
December ..	18·69	18·60	22·00	32·00	45·60	37·60
January ..	18·56	18·00	24·20	32·00	48·00	36·00
February ..	19·50	20·00	22·00	31·50	47·00	31·00
March ..	20·12	19·60	19·40	31·94	47·60	34·00
April ..	18·44	22·00	17·80	31·44	48·00	36·00
May ..	21·94	23·60	23·40	33·56	47·20	34·40
June ..	22·64	21·20	27·60	34·03	46·20	35·00
July ..	15·45	20·40	21·00	32·70	46·00	38·00
August ..	19·40	20·40	19·60	31·60	46·00	38·20

TABLE

Month	Bajra			Gur		
	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
September ..	13·87	18·70	19·60	18·87	14·50	26·00
October ..	14·37	18·00	18·80	14·44	13·50	26·80
November ..	15·00	18·50	18·80	17·37	15·00	25·80
December ..	16·00	19·60	17·60	17·25	17·20	25·60
January ..	15·06	19·00	17·60	17·00	16·00	22·80
February ..	15·56	18·40	17·00	19·56	15·00	24·00
March ..	15·50	19·20	16·40	19·37	16·00	25·00
April ..	14·75	18·80	16·20	21·75	18·00	27.20
May ..	16·44	18·40	16·20	24·69	20·00	33·00
June ..	15·50	18·00	16·80	24·15	21·60	37·60
July ..	17·00	20·00	16·60	24·45	25·50	39·40
August ..	16·10	20·00	16·00	24·65	28·80	40·60

No. 2

MARKET IN 1958-59, 1961-62 AND 1962-63.

(Prices in Rs. per maund)

Udid			Math		
1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
17·31	20·30	30·60	18·50	24·80	16·00
17·25	20·00	27·80	....	....	14·00
16·50	21·00	27·20	16·62	22·00	15·00
16·69	20·60	23·60	15·00	19·20	14·60
16·31	22·00	24·80	14·50	17·60	16·00
17·00	23·20	25·00	15·31	17·00	18·00
16·25	22·00	23·40	15·37	17·20	16·40
16·00	22·00	27·40	15·12	16·00	16·60
16·19	25·60	27.40	15·31	16·00	17·40
16·22	27·20	27·40	16·70	16·80	17·20
16·75	28·40	24·00	16·00	16·40	15·00
16·35	30·40	26·60	14·45	16·00	14·20

No. 2—*contd.*

Wheat			Jowar		
1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
22·37	19·00	20·60	12·87	12·80	17·60
33·75	20·00	20·80	11·37	11·40	17·20
21·12	21·00	20·20	11·00	14·00	14·80
27·37	21·60	19·60	12·06	12·00	14·20
26·25	22·00	20·00	12·50	13·60	13·60
24·69	23·00	20·00	12·50	15·00	12·00
23·50	22·00	20·00	12·37	14·80	12·00
21·50	21·00	19·20	12·19	14·80	12·20
23·81	20·40	20·20	13·12	15·60	12·80
23·87	20·00	20·00	13·89	16·00	13·20
25·20	20·40	20·00	14·00	17·20	12·40
24·85	20·80	20·00	13·95	17·60	11·80

No. 2—*contd.*

Wet Chilli			Dry Chilli		
1958-59	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1961-62	1962-63
....	....	....	61·50	35·60	84·80
....	10.20	....	72·62	36·40	106·00
....	10·00	26·40	81·75	37·00	112·00
18·25	10·40	17·20	68·50	44·00	92·00
15·87	14·80	20·40	80·25	55·40	92·80
18·91	17·00	17·00	82·00	67·00	81·00
16·31	15·20	18·00	71·19	64·00	75·00
21·25	....	....	82·50	75·20	97·00
....	....	....	81·44	72·80	103·40
....	....	....	97·78	83·00	112·00
....	....	....	103·30	79·20	105·00
....	....	....	95·95	80·20	90·00

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Table No. 3 gives the most common wholesale prices of agricultural produce at the Dhulia, Dondaicha, Nandurbar, Shirpur and Nawapur markets during 1963-64.

TABLE No. 3

MOST COMMON WHOLESALE PRICES AT PRINCIPAL MARKETS IN DHULIA DISTRICT DURING 1963-64.

Serial No.	Name of the Commodity	Name of the Market Committee				
		Dhulia*	Dondaicha	Nandurbar	Shirpur	Nawapur
1	Cotton 197.3 ..	48.27	109.97	121.89	45.07*	133.34
	Cotton Co 2 ..	62.40	....	....	....	....
3	Groundnut ..	31.45	75.38	75.25	31.74*	69.74
4	Gram ..	22.46	57.68	59.67	55.87	61.98
5	*Mug* ..	27.36	59.73	65.36	71.39	....
6	*Udid* ..	25.23	57.75	58.83	60.93	56.29
7	*Math* ..	20.88	47.45	50.12	51.07	....
8	Chilli (wet) ..	20.40	68.03	79.85	....	....
9	Chilli (dry) ..	82.75	133.90	134.18	71.70*	....
10	*Gul* ..	37.88	89.15	91.90	41.45	....
11	Wheat ..	29.37	77.02	72.75	73.50	64.06
12	Jowar ..	16.19	42.90	45.08	46.18	40.49
13	Bajri ..	19.44	46.28	47.33	47.00	....
14	*Tur* ..	....	63.69	67.83	58.87	67.22

Prices in Rs. per maund for all commodities in Dhulia and those marked in Shirpur. Rest of the prices are in Rs. per quintal.

The prices of all commodities started rising from the middle of 1964, and continued to do so upto the harvest season, when they registered a slight fall. After a short interval the prices again rose steadily. The Indo-Pakistan War of September 1965 also contributed immensely towards the subsequent inflationary pressure. The shortage of consumers goods, scarcity and famine conditions in several parts of the country and rising wages of the organised working class led to a considerable rise in prices. As a matter of fact the inflationary situation developed into a crisis. Devaluation of the Indian rupee in June 1966 added considerably to the inflationary pressure. The cost of manufactured goods and imports increased to a great extent. This had an adverse effect on the prices of producers as well as consumers goods which rose sharply. The increasing level of commodity taxation also added to the price spurt from time to time.

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

Wage Trends.

Agriculture is the main occupation of the people in the district. The class of landless labourers comprises a large number of workers *viz.* 2,32,913. This necessitates a careful study of wage trends in agricultural pursuits and allied occupations.

In the nature of things, level of wages of different categories of labour underwent changes and fluctuations alongwith the changes that took place in the general economic pattern. The *Khandesh District Gazetteer* of 1880 gave a very valuable information showing the trend of wage rates from 1788 to 1880, which is furnished below.

"According to returns prepared in 1820 under Captain Briggs' orders, from 1788 to 1797, in Amalner, Erandol, and Nasirabad, the average daily wage of a carpenter, a blacksmith, a weaver, and a tailor was 6*d.* (4 *annas*); of a bricklayer and bearer 5½*d.* (3 2/3 *annas*); and of a labourer 3*d* (2 *annas*). Bullock hire was 6*d.* (4 *annas*) a day; cart hire was from 1*s.* to 2*s.* (*as.* 8-*Re.* 1), according as there was one or two pairs of bullocks; and pony hire was 7½*d.* (5 *annas*). Between 1798 and 1817, there was a considerable increase in the earnings of skilled and unskilled workers. In 1817 the daily wage of a carpenter was 9¾*d.* (6½ *annas*); of a blacksmith 7½*d.* (5 *annas*); of a bricklayer 8¼*d.* (5½ *annas*); of a weaver 6*d.* (4 *annas*); of a tailor 7½*d.* (5 *annas*); of a basket maker 5¼*d.* (3½ *annas*); of a bearer 7½*d.* (5 *annas*); and of a labourer 4½*d.* (3 *annas*); bullock hire was 9*d.* (6 annas) a day; cart hire from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 3d. (as. 12-Re. 1 5/8) and pony hire was 11¼*d.* (7½ *annas*). Between 1818 and 1820 wages changed but little. Cart hire was from 2*s.* to 4*s.* (Re. 1-Rs 2), and pony hire was 1*s.* (8 annas).

"In 1828, ten years after the introduction of British rule, the daily wage of unskilled labour was for a man 3*d.* to 4½*d.* (2-3 *annas*), for a woman 2½*d.* to 3*d.* (1½-2 *annas*), and for children under fourteen 2¼*d.* (1½ *annas*). At the same time, besides the daily present of a handful of ears of grain at harvest time, the wages of field labour were 3*d.* (2 *annas*) for a man, 2¼*d.* (1½ *annas*) for a woman, and 1½ (1 *anna*) for a child. In field work men used also to be engaged by the month, without food at 8*s.* (Rs. 4), and with food at from 2*s.* to 4*s.* (Re. 1–Rs. 2). 1828.

These engagements generally lasted from two to four months and ended with harvest. Of skilled labourers, ordinary bricklayers and carpenters were paid 1*s.* (8 *annas*), and clever workers 1*s.* 3*d.* (10 *annas*) a day. Of personal servants, the monthly wage of a tailor was £ 1 (Rs. 10), and of a groom 16*s.* (Rs. 8). Pony and cart hire was ¾*d.* and 1½*d.* a mile (1 and 2 *annas* a *kos*). Payment used to be made in copper coins called *dhabhus* and *shivrais* worth ¾*d.* and 3/8*d.* (½ and ¼ *anna*).

"In 1842, the daily wage of unskilled labour was 3*d.* (2 *annas*). Far from large towns field workers were usually paid in grain, with, perhaps at *Divali*, the present of a turban and a pair of shoes. The value of the grain was about 1½*d.* (1 *anna*) a day. This rate of wage lasted till about 1850, when the making of railways and other 1842.

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

Wage Trends.

public works began to affect the labour market. From that time labour has, except in 1877-78, steadily risen in value. In 1863, the daily wage of unskilled labour was for men from 6*d.* to 10½*d.* (4-7 *annas*), for women from 4½*d.* to 6*d.* (3-4 *annas*) and for children from 2¼*d.* to 3*d.* (1½–2 *annas*). At the same time, among skilled labourers the daily wage was, for stone masons and bricklayers from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* (8–12 *annas*), for carpenters from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* (*annas* 12–*Re.* 1¼), and for tailors from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* (8–10 *annas*). Cart hire was 1*s.* 6*d.* (12 *annas*) a day, or 2½*d.* (1 2/3 *annas*) a mile in the fair months, and 3*d.* (2 *annas*) in the rains. Pony hire was ¾*d.* (½ *anna*) a mile.

1870-80. "Between 1870 and 1880, the daily wage of unskilled labour has remained pretty constant at 6*d.* (4 *annas*) for a man, 3¾*d.* (2½ *annas*) for a woman, and from 1½*d.* to 3*d.* (1–2 *annas*) for a child. During the 1876-77 famine, so great was the supply of labour seeking employment that in spite of the rise in produce prices, the wages of unskilled labour fell to 2½*d.* (1½ *anna*) for men and 1½ *d.* (1 *anna*) for women.

"A special class of unskilled carriers, or *hamals*, work in gangs of six to thirty, and, except that the headman has an extra quarter, divide their daily earnings in equal shares. They are paid 1½*d.* (1 *anna*) for unloading from 660 to 704 pounds of grain, and ¾*d.* (½ *anna*) for carrying a bale of unpacked cotton from the warehouses to the cotton presses. In the busy season, from February to May, their average daily earnings amount to about 6*d.* (4 *annas*).

"Town workers and craftsmen are paid in coin, and field workers partly in grain and partly in coin. The custom varies in different parts of the district and with different crops.....Day labourers are, as a rule, paid at intervals of four or five days when their wages generally amount to about 2*s.* (Re. 1). Town labourers go to work at daybreak, come home at noon for dinner and after resting for two hours, work till sunset. Field workers, beginning at daybreak, and taking their millet bread, onions and pickle or chutney with them, eat them at noon, and, after resting for about two hours work on till dark. Cotton picking is paid for at 1*d.* for nine pounds (about 1 pie a pound). A good worker will earn from 1½*d.* to 3*d.* (1–2 *annas*) a day. The people employed in this work are chiefly women. During most of the rains and far into the cold weather (June-February), field workers find employment in helping husbandmen to weed, watch, reap, and harvest their crops. From February to March they are usually employed in bringing headloads of grass for sale. During the rest of the year they help bricklayers and carpenters, and repair roads, dig ponds, gin cotton, and carry loads. House servants, whether in towns or villages, are paid from 8s. to 12*s.* (Rs. 4–Rs. 6) a month. Wages, when work is unbroken, are paid every week on market days, otherwise they are paid daily. In a labourer's household the wife generally earns enough to provide the family with salt, oil, chillies, and spices, perhaps about one-sixth of the family funds. Children earn enough to keep themselves in clothes, and may be said to contribute nearly one-twelfth of the family funds."*

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

Wage Trends.

During the past few decades wages of all classes of labour showed an upward trend. The wage rates of field labour engaged in sowing, ploughing, threshing of grains, digging wells, etc., have increased considerably. Skilled jobs in agriculture are paid at a daily wage rate ranging from Rs. 2·50 to Rs. 4. Agricultural labourers are also paid at rates ranging from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3. Women engaged in weeding, cutting and harvesting operations are paid at the rate of Rs. 1·25 to Rs. 2. For harvesting of groundnut and cotton women workers are paid on the basis of turnover of work done. A woman worker earns about Rs. 2 to Rs. 2·50 per day during the harvesting season of groundnut and cotton.

The old system of employing annual servants (*saldars*) for full time agricultural work is still prevalent in Dhulia district. A *saldar* who is a full time servant is given daily food and a few clothes. Besides food, he is paid Rs. 350 to Rs. 700 by way of his annual wages, depending upon the amount of work he is required to put in.

The *baluta* system which was the basis of the self-sufficient village economy of the past has still survived though on a limited scale. It does not enjoy the same importance as it did in the past. The *balutedars* (village artisans) consist of barber, potter, shoe-maker, carpenter, black-smith, washerman, sweeper, etc. They get their annual wages in kind for the services rendered to the peasants. The agriculturist now, prefers to pay the artisans in cash according to the services rendered by them due perhaps to the rising prices of agricultural commodities. This has affected the economic position of some categories of the artisans, and they have been compelled to search for other avenues of employment.

Wages of almost all categories of casual labour decline during the months of February, March, April and July because of the fall in demand for their services. Wages are at their peak during September, October, November and June.

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Khandesh District, 1880, pp. 200-02.

CHAPTER 10 — GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of 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, a 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 scope of "nation building" activities 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 the World War II and the attainment of Independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve this cherished ideal 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 descriptions that follow in this chapter and in chapters 11-17 the departments of the State and the Central Governments operating in the district have been grouped as follows :—

Chapter 10—General Administration.

Chapter 11—Revenue Administration.

Chapter 12—Law and Order and Justice.

Chapter 13—Other Departments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

Chapter 14—Local Self-Government.

Chapter 15—Education and Culture.

Chapter 16—Medical and Public Health Services.

Chapter 17—Other Social Services.

Dhulia district is divided into two sub-divisions composed of ten talukas. Akrani, Nawapur and Akkalkuwa talukas are classified as scheduled areas under the Constitution. After the formation of Maharashtra State in 1960 a few villages from each of the western talukas bordering Gujarat State *viz*; Nawapur, Nandurbar, Taloda and Akkalkuwa were transferred to that State. The district now covers an area of 12,562 km² (4,850·3 sq. miles) and has, according to 1961 Census, a total population of 13,51,236. The administrative divisions, as they stand at present, are as shown below :—

—	Area in Sq. miles	Area in Km²	Population (1961 census)
1	2	3	4
I. *Dhulia sub-division*—			
(1) Dhulia Taluka ..	751·6	1,946·7	299,535
(2) Shirpur Taluka ..	756·0	1,958·0	123,780
(3) Sindkheda Taluka ..	494·3	1,280·2	172,333
(4) Sakri Taluka	926·2	2,398·9	185,417
II. *Nandurbar sub-division*—			
(1) Nandurbar Taluka ..	424·7	1,100·0	152,927
(2) Nawapur Taluka ..	355·1	919·7	105,728
(3) Taloda Taluka ..	143·8	372·4	63,720
(4) Akkalkuwa Taluka ..	320·0	828·8	57,357
(5) Shahada Taluka ..	446·6	1,156·7	155,472
(6) Akrani Mahal ..	232·0	600·5	34,967
Total ..	4,850·3	12,562·3	1,351,236

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

With the passing of the Bombay Commissioners Act, 1957, Government have created with effect from March 3, 1958 the posts of Commissioners in place of Divisional Officers. The State of Maharashtra consists of four divisions. Dhulia district falls under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner, Bombay Division. The office of the Commissioner assumes a place of prime importance in the State administration and also in the administration of the division.

Subject to the general or special orders of the State Government, the Commissioner is the chief controlling authority in all matters

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

connected with the land revenue. The District Collectors in exercise of the powers conferred upon them under the Land Revenue Code or other Acts are subordinate to the Commissioner. Of the powers delegated to him and conferred upon him by law in land revenue matters, the following are important :—

(1) to revise the limits of the sub-divisions of the districts;

(2) to pass final orders regarding extinction of rights of public and individual in or over any public road, lane or path not required for use of the public;

(3) to sanction reduction of assessment consequent upon reclassification of agricultural lands up to Rs. 200 per annum when classification operation is confined to a single village and Rs. 400 per annum when it extends to more than one village in a taluka;

(4) to decide disputes regarding rights to lands between municipalities and Government;

(5) to sanction remission in cases of total loss of crop due to local calamities up to Rs. 1,000; and

(6) to fix priority or scarcity relief works.

The Commissioner has to—

(*a*) supervise the working of revenue offices,

(*b*) exercise executive and administrative powers delegated by Government or conferred on him by law from time to time,

(*c*) undertake general inspection of offices of all departments within his division,

(*d*) inspect local bodies,

(*e*) co-ordinate and supervise the activities of all divisional heads of departments with particular reference to planning and development, and

(*f*) integrate the administrative set-up in the incoming areas.

In order to assist the Commissioner in matters relating to village panchayats there is an independent Assistant Commissioner appointed under him. There is also a Divisional Council constituted, of which the Commissioner is an *ex-officio* chairman. The chief functions of the Divisional Council in relation to panchayats are—

(*a*) to develop and foster the growth of village panchayats,

(*b*) to suggest ways and means to remove difficulties experienced by the village panchayats and to assist them in their proper administration,

(*c*) to supervise and co-ordinate the activities of the village panchayats, and

(*d*) to supply information that may be required by the State Council and to give effect to the recommendations that may be sponsored by it.

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DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

There is also a Divisional Development Council consisting of officials and non-officials and the Commissioner is its *ex-officio* Chairman.

The chief functions of the council are :—

(1) to advise Government on policy in respect of all development matters ;

(2) to co-ordinate development activities of various departments with a view to avoid overlapping and wasteful expenditure and to maintain liaison with the agency, functioning in the Division, for the Community Development Projects ;

(3) to suggest ways and means to remove bottle-necks in work schemes and to effect speedy implementation of the Five-Year Plans ; and

(4) to devise measures for eliciting maximum public participation in the departmental activity and for promotion of voluntary efforts through *shramdan, bhoodan, sampathidan,* small savings etc.

In respect of Community Development Blocks, the Commissioner is invested with the powers of the Head of the Department.

Of the powers delegated to the Commissioner in development matters, the following are important :—

(1) to accord administrative approval to programmes (financial estimates and working plans) for the project period and to make subsequent modifications and variations in respect of all the categories of development blocks within his division,

(2) to sanction individual schemes costing up to Rs. 50,000 (in certain cases up to rupees one lakh) subject to certain conditions,

(3) to accord administrative approval for all works costing up to Rs. 50,000 subject to certain conditions,

(4) to create and continue temporary non-gazetted technical and class IV posts according to actual requirements for the project period but subject to annual review. The Commissioner is to visit at least 12 blocks in a year and carry out one detailed inspection and the Assistant Commissioner (Development) has to visit at least 30 blocks and to conduct detailed inspection of 12 blocks in a year.

With a view to intensify the movement of small savings and to mobilise active support of public for it, there is an officer under the Commissioner who is designated as Assistant Director of Small Savings Organisation. There is also a Divisional Small Savings Advisory Committee consisting of officials and non-officials with the Commissioner as its *ex-officio* chairman. The chief functions of the committee are :—

(*a*) to watch the monthly progress of net collections as against the target,

(*b*) to organise and assist small savings publicity,

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER.

(*c*) to render active co-operation in mobilising public support for the scheme,

(*d*) to assist in recruitment of agents,

(*e*) to make suitable recommendations or suggestions to the State Advisory Council on the problems placed before it by the District Advisory Committees, and

(*f*) to implement the recommendations of the State Advisory Council.

COLLECTOR.

The Collector plays a pivotal role in the administration of the district. Not only is he at the head of the Revenue Department in the district, but, in so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of the officers of other departments as well.

(*i*) *Revenue.*—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water), wherever situated and at the same time the guardian of the interests of the members of the public in land in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue, except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (*vide* section 45, Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds : (i) agricultural assessment, (ii) non-agricultural assessment, and (iii) miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection, and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. This assessment is revised every thirty years taluka by taluka. A revision on 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 reports with great care. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for period of thirty years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons and the determination of the amount of these suspensions is decided by the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, section 48 of the Code provides for alterations of the agricultural assessment when agriculturally assessed land is used for a non-agricultural purpose. In the same way, unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is assessed to non-agricultural rates. These functions rest with the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Land Revenue Code. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances in each case, when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by the sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees etc., in Government land.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for.

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts, such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court Fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923) and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue, and the Collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues when necessary.

In regard to the administration of 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 Sub-Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for that purpose, 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 and recover the assessment fees from shops permitted to sell liquor and drugs.

The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act.

(*ii*) *Public Utility.*—The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1887), regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government and in the event of bad season to make further demands for as much money as can be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the scarcity. 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.

The Collector of Dhulia is the Court of Wards for the estates taken over under the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905). Most of the estates which were under the charge of the Collector have now been released.

(*iii*) *Accounts.*—The Collector is in charge of the treasury and is personally responsible to the Government for its general administration, the due accounting of all the amounts received and disbursed, the correctness of the treasury returns and the safe custody of the valuables which it contains. In matters of accounts and audit, the Collector (with the Treasury Officer under him) is responsible to the Accountant General, whose instructions he has to obey. He does not, however, take part in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work his delegate and representative is the Treasury Officer.

(*iv*) *Quasi-Judicial functions in revenue matters.*—Among the Quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeals from the decisions of the Prant Officers under the Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, may be mentioned :—(i) the revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Mamlatdars' orders under the Act (this power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector), (ii) appellate powers under sections 53 and 67 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), (iii) the work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of Civil Courts' decrees, and (iv) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

(*v*) *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 to the municipalities and 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 give them advice.

(*vi*) *Officers of Other Departments.*—The officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters can be divided into two groups, *viz.*, (A) (1) the District Judge, (2) the District Superintendent of Police, (3) the Executive Engineer and (4) the Civil Surgeon and (B) (1) the District Prohibition Officer, (2) the District Agricultural Officer, (3) the District Health Officer and (4) the Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies.

The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all judicial magistrates in the district. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1961) was enacted to meet a long standing and widespread public desire for the separation of judicial functions from executive officers. It has separated the magistracy into "judicial magistrates" who are subordinates to the Sessions Judge, and "executive magistrates", who are subordinates to the District Magistrate. It has withdrawn from executive magistrates practically all powers of trial of criminal cases, and only in certain cases the Sessions Judge has to hear appeals from the decisions of the executive magistrates. Before the enactment of this legislation, the Sessions Judge used to exercise appellate powers over the decisions in criminal cases of the District Magistrate and other First Class Magistrates.

The District Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district are under the control of the District Magistrate in so far as their functions regarding maintenance of law and order are concerned. As regards discipline, training and other administrative matters they are under the control of the Range Deputy Inspector-General of Police.

The position of the Executive Engineer is slightly different. Since his work is of a technical nature, he is not directly subordinate to the Collector though in a sense he plays a part subsidiary to the general administration of the district, of which the Collector is the head, and he is expected to help the Collector whenever he is required to do so. The Collector can ask him to investigate the utility of minor irrigation works likely to be agriculturally useful in the district. At the time of actual execution of any work, the Collector can requisition the services of the Executive Engineer for making immediate arrangements for procuring the necessary establishment, tools, plant, building material, etc. (Famine Relief Code, section 81).

The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but must place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of general district administration whenever required.

The officers in B group are all of subordinate status. Their services in their particular sphere can be requisitioned by the Collector either directly in case of necessity if the matter is urgent, or through their official superiors. The District Prohibition Officer is subordinate to the Collector except in technical matters.

The following are some of the other Officers of the district who have more or less intimate contact in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions :—

(1) The Backward Class Welfare Officer, (2) the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (3) the Animal Husbandry Officer, (4) The District Inspector of Land Records, (5) The District Officer, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, and (6) the Superintendent of Fisheries.

(*vii*) *As District Magistrate.*—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is the head of all executive magistrates in the district. He exercises the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and Indian Penal Code.

When authorized 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 maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations so as to gain insight into the state of crime in the limits of 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 (VII 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.

(*viii*) *As District Registrar.*—As District Registrar, the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

(*ix*) *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 daily sanitary administration of the municipalities and other sanitary authorities; and (*c*) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary conditions of the area under their jurisdiction in so far as the funds at their disposal permit. He can freely requisition the advise and technical assistance of the District Health Officer in this regard.

(*x*) *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.*—The Collector in his capacity as President of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board exercises overall control of the Board with the assistance of a paid Secretary duly appointed from the retired military officers cadre. He maintains liaison between the ex-servicemen and their dependents. The constitution of the Board is as under :—

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board is composed of members, who are ex-servicemen. It has a vice-president and a President. The Collector is the *ex-officio* President of the Board while a retired military officer acts as the vice-president. The Board meets periodically and considers problems, connected with the welfare of the ex-servicemen and their dependents.

(*xi*) *Control of essential articles.*—The supply of essential articles such as foodgrains, sugar, etc. is controlled by the Collector and the distribution made according to the policies laid down in this behalf. The distribution is made in the district through 465 fair price shops which are managed by the co-operative societies, village panchayats and private bodies.

PRANT OFFICERS.

Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (Indian Administrative Service Officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are two *prants*, viz. Dhulia and Nandurbar in the district. In addition to two Prant Officers there is one Resident Deputy Collector.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Mamlatdars or Mahalkaris and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Land Revenue Code and by any other law in force or by executive orders, in regard to the talukas and mahals in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

The Mamlatdar is the officer in executive charge of a taluka and the Mahalkari has executive charge of a mahal. There is practically no difference between the functions and duties of a Mamlatdar and those of a Mahalkari. Each taluka or mahal has two or three *Aval Karkuns*, 8 or 10 Clerks, 50 Talathis, two Circle Officers and three Circle Inspectors. The duties of Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris fall under various heads,[1]—

(*i*) *Revenue.*—The Mamlatdar's revenue duties are to prepare the ground work for the Prant Officer and the Collector to pass their orders upon. His report is called in almost all revenue matters. When these orders are passed he has to execute them.

In regard to annual demand and collection of land revenue he has to prepare the *jamabandi* of the taluka. The *jamabandi* is an audit of previous year's accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue 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 Mamlatdar 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 and sand etc. when individuals apply for them.

The brunt of the work of collection of revenue lies on the Mamlatdar. He can issue notices under section 152 of the Land Revenue Code; inflict fines for delay in payment under section 148 of the Land Revenue Code; distrain and sell immovable property and issue notices of forfeiture of the land, though he has to take the Prant Officers' or the Collector's orders for actual forfeiture.

He has to collect, in addition to land revenue, *tagai* loans, *pot hissa* measurement fees, boundary marks advances and irrigation revenue, the dues of other departments like Sales Tax, Income Tax and Forest when there is default in their payment, at the request of these departments. These dues are recovered as arrears of land revenue.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions under which *inams* are held and, whenever there is any such breach, to bring it to the notice of the Collector through the Prant Officer.

He has to make enquiries and get ready the material on which the Prant Officer has to pass his own orders under the Bombay Hereditary Offices Act (III of 1874). He can himself pass orders in regard to the appointment, remuneration, period of service, suspension and fining of inferior village servants, the grant of leave of absence to them and the like.

[1] In the following paragraphs whatever is said of the Mamlatdar applies also to the Mahalkari.

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General Administration.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

Applications for grant of *tagai* are generally received by the Mamlatdar, who makes enquiries into them through the Circle Officer and Circle Inspector, inspects the sites for the improvement of which *tagai* is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines the instalments for repayment etc. He can himself grant *tagai* loan upto Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 200 under the Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists Loans Act respectively. In other cases he has to obtain orders from the Prant Officer or the Collector.

The Mamlatdar's duties regarding *tagai* do not end with the granting of it; he has to see that it is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken with it, watch the payments and effect recoveries from defaulters. The Mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the areas under his charge. Some of his powers under the Act have been delegated to *Aval Karkuns*.

(*ii*) *Quasi-judicial.*—The quasi-judicial duties which the Mamlatdar performs include—(1) enquiries and orders under the Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906); (2) execution of Civil Court decrees; (3) the disposal of applications from superior holders for assistance in recovering land revenue from inferior holders; and (4) enquiry in respect of disputed cases in connection with the Record of Rights in each village. The last two are summary enquiries under the Land Revenue Code.

(*iii*) *Magisterial.*—Every Mamlatdar is the *ex-officio* Magistrate of his taluka. They are to hear chapter cases under the Criminal Procedure Code from various police stations allotted to them. They are also in charge of the management of the sub-jails under their respective jurisdictions. They have to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrates informed of all the happenings in their charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in their jurisdiction with the aid of police.

(*iv*) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As a sub-treasury officer, the Mamlatdar is in charge of taluka treasury which is called sub-treasury. All moneys due to Government in the taluka from land revenue, forest, excise, public works, sales tax and income tax and other receipts are paid into this treasury and credited to the receipt heads and drawn from it under cheques and bills. The taluka 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 the sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the State Bank of India for remittance of funds.

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The Mamlatdar 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 various heads, has to be submitted by the Mamlatdar to the Treasury Officer, Dhulia. The sub-treasuries are annually inspected either by the Collector or the Prant Officer.

(*v*) *Other administrative duties.*—In addition to the duties mentioned above, the Mamlatdar is responsible to the Collector and the Prant Officer whom he has to keep 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 taluka is concerned. He is responsible for the cattle census. The Mamlatdar is also expected to propagate co-operative principles in his taluka. The Mamlatdar's position in relation to the taluka officers of other departments is not definable. Though they are not sub-ordinate to him, they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their respective spheres.

Though the Mamlatdar is not expected to work directly for local bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them.

CIRCLE OFFICERS AND CIRCLE INSPECTORS.

In order to assist the Mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants, Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors are appointed. There are about 30 to 50 villages in charge of a Circle Officer or a Circle Inspector. They form a link between the Mamlatdar and the village officers. There are generally two Circle Officers and three Circle Inspectors in each taluka. Their duties relate to—

(*1*) boundary marks inspection, inspection of crops including the estimating of the *annewari*, inspection of *tagai* works and detection of illegal occupation of Government land;

(*2*) preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, *viz.*, crop statistics, cattle census, and water supply;

(*3*) supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the Record of Rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register;

(*4*) examination of land revenue receipts and supervision of revenue collection; and

(*5*) such other miscellaneous work as the Mamlatdar may, from time to time, entrust them with, *e.g.*, enquiry into alleged encroachments, etc.

PATILS.

The *Patil* or village headman is the principal village official. Prior to 1st January 1963, there were revenue and police *Patils* functioning in the villages. These posts were, however, abolished from that date

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PATILS.

and stipendiary police *Patils* were appointed instead. These *Patils* do the police duties prescribed in the Bombay Village Police Act, 1867.

TALATHIS.

The office of *Talathi* or village accountant generally used to be held by hereditary *Kulkarnis* who were allowed, subject to certain conditions, to commute the right of service attached to the *Kulkarni watan*. But very few people took advantage of the commutation of *watan*. By the enactment of the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act all the *Kulkarni watans* along with the right of service were abolished from May 1st 1961 and *Talathis* were appointed in place of these *Kulkarnis*. If the villages are small one *Talathi* is appointed for two or more villages, which are called his charge. The *Talathi* receives monthly salary in a time scale of pay. His main duties are: (1) to maintain the village accounts relating to demand, collection and arrears of land revenue etc., the Records of Rights and all other village forms prescribed by Government; (2) to inspect crop and boundary marks and to prepare agricultural statistics; and (3) to help the *Patil* in collection of land revenue, write the combined day and receipt books and other accounts and do other clerical work. The *talathi* functions as the Assistant *Gram Sevak* where community development projects or National Extension Service Blocks have been opened.

KOTWALS.

In addition to the village officers mentioned above, there are village servants or *Kotwals*. They are of two kinds, *viz.*, (1) those useful to the community, and (2) those useful to the Government.

They are appointed on fixed remuneration. They assist the village officers to collect land revenue, summon villagers to *chavdi*, carry the land revenue to taluka office, help the *Patil* in the detection of offences and apprehension of known criminals. They also assist the *Patil* in the maintenance of law and order in the village.

CHAPTER 11—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Department of Land Records.

Land Records.

Introduction.

The Land Revenue System prevalent in Dhulia District is *rayatwari* and is based on complete survey, classification and settlement of assessment of every field.

The original survey settlements were introduced in the district, except Akkalkuwa taluka and Akrani mahal, between 1858 and 1871. The first revision settlements were completed between 1892 and 1905. The second revision settlements which are now in force were introduced between 1911 and 1925 except in Sakri taluka. The original survey settlements in 67 villages of Akrani mahal were introduced in 1928. The remaining 73 villages from this mahal have yet to be surveyed and settled. The lands in Akkalkuwa taluka which were *inam* lands of the merged areas, were surveyed and classified in 1955-56.

Survey.

The original survey was done by chain and cross-staff. The unit of area is English acre with its sub-division, the *gunthas* (121 Sq. Yards *i.e.* square formed by one chain of 11 yards), 40 *gunthas* making one acre. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the land records under an indicative number and that of a sub-division too is so entered under the indicative number subordinate to that of survey number of which it forms a part. The survey of unsurveyed villages which was done recently was, however, done by plane table method.

Village, taluka and district maps for surveyed villages.

Accurate village maps have been prepared (generally on a scale of 1"–20 chains) for all surveyed villages showing the survey number and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, *nallas*, forests, etc. From these village maps, taluka and district maps were prepared on a scale of 1"–2 miles.

Classification.

There are two main classes of lands : (1) dry crop and (2) garden, further subdivided into (i) *motasthal* and (ii) *patasthal*. Each field was classified with reference to the texture of the soil, depth, deteriorating factors and extra advantages. In the case of garden lands in addition to the soil factors, the water factor was also classified in consideration of the duration of water-supply, and kind of crop grown. The classification value was expressed in terms of annas.

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LAND RECORDS.

Classification.

16 annas representing the standard. The soil classification as originally confirmed or made during the revision survey is final and no general reclassification of soil is made again at further revision settlements (Section 106, Land Revenue Code). The holder is, however, entitled to reclassification and reduction of assessment of his land on account of physical deterioration of the soil. All improvements made are exempt from taxation for a period of 30 years immediately preceding the year in which the settlement is introduced. Thereafter they are liable to taxation.

Settlement and Assessment.

Prior to 1939, the settlement procedure was prescribed by administrative orders of Government under the Land Revenue Code Amendment Act (XX of 1939). Under the L. R. C. Amendment Act XXVIII of 1956, certain changes have been made in the procedure. The changes in brief involve a shift in emphasis from the general economic conditions of the area and rental values to the prevalent prices and yields of principal crops. The various provisions governing the settlement procedure are contained in chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code and chapter III-A of the Land Revenue Rules. The prescribed procedure is in brief, as under :—

"Settlement" is defined as a result of operations conducted in a zone in order to determine the land revenue assessment [section 117(*c*)(*1*)].

"Zone" is defined as a local area comprising a taluka or a group of talukas or portions thereof of one or more districts, which is contiguous and homogenous in respect of physical configuration, climate and rainfall, principal crops grown in the area and soil characteristics.

The settlement officer (appointed by the State Government under section 18 of the Land Revenue Code) examines fully the past revenue history of the zone with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on the economic condition of the zone. He then proceeds to divide the lands to be settled into groups and fix the standard rates for each class of land in such groups.

The groups are formed on consideration of physical configuration, climate and rainfall, prices and yield of principal crops.

If the settlement officer thinks it necessary to do so, he may also take into account the factors specified in clauses (*a*)(*i*) of the provision to the sub-section (2) of section 117-G (Land Revenue Code), *viz.* :—

(*a*) markets;
(*b*) communications;
(*c*) standard of husbandry;
(*d*) population and supply of labour;
(*e*) agricultural resources;
(*f*) variations in the area of occupied and cultivated lands during the last 30 years;
(*g*) wages;

(*h*) ordinary expenses of cultivating principal crops including the wages of the cultivator for his labour in cultivating the land;
(*i*) sale of lands used for agriculture.

"Standard rate" is the normal assessment per acre on land in the respective class of 16 annas classification value.

Improvements made at the cost of the holders are exempted from the enhancement for a period of 30 years immediately preceding the date on which the settlement expires (section 117-H).

The settlement officer formulates his proposals of settlement on the above basis in the form of a comprehensive report which contains the various statistical data collected by him in the prescribed forms and a statement showing the effect of his proposals as compared to that of previous settlement in force [L. R. R. 19-B(1)].

The settlement report is published in the regional language in each village in the prescribed manner, together with a notice stating the existing standard rates for each class of land and the extent of increase or decrease proposed by the settlement officer. A period of three months from the date of notice is allowed for any objections to the settlement proposals (section 117-J).

Provision is made for referring settlement proposals to the revenue tribunal by the State Government at the instance of aggrieved persons (who have to deposit the prescribed amount of cost) within two months from the date of the notice (section 117-K).

After taking into account the objections, the Collector forwards the report of the settlement officer to the State Government through the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records with his remarks (section 117-K).

The settlement report together with the objections and the recommendations of the Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal is placed on the table of each chamber of the Legislature and the proposals can be discussed in the Legislature (section 117-C).

Thereupon the State Government passes final orders on the settlement report (sec. 117-L), and after a notice of the order is given in prescribed manner, the settlement is deemed to have been introduced (section 117-O).

The assessment to be imposed on each holding in the case of an original settlement is determined by the application of standard rates to the classification value of lands through the medium of the *Jantris* (table of calculation) prepared by the superintendent of land records and in case of a revision settlement it is worked out by increasing or decreasing the old assessment in the same proportion as there is increase or decrease in the new standard rates over the old ones (L. R. R. 19-H).

A settlement ordinarily remains in force for 30 years (sec. 117-E).

Additional water charges accrued at the cost of government can be assessed during the currency of the settlement (sec. 117-O).

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LAND RECORDS.

Record of Rights.

The Record of Rights Law (contained in chapter X of the Land Revenue Code) was enacted in 1913. The Record of Rights has been introduced in all the talukas except Akkalkuwa taluka. Survey for record of rights purposes has been undertaken in the Akkalkuwa taluka and record of rights for all the villages in the taluka is being introduced. According to section 135-B(*1*) of the Land Revenue Code, the record of rights contains the following particulars :—

(*a*) the names of all persons who are holders, occupants, owners or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the rent or revenue thereof ;

(*b*) the nature and extent of the respective interest of such persons and the conditions or liabilities attached thereto ;

(*c*) the rent or revenue (if any) payable by or to any of such persons ; and

(*d*) such other particulars as the State Government may prescribe under the rules made in this behalf.

The State Government has now applied the law to all tenancies also under section 135-B(2). Any acquisition of a right in land is to be reported to the village officers by the person acquiring it, unless it is registered (Land Revenue Code, section 135-C). Failure to carry out this obligation is liable to fine by way of late fees.

Functions.

The Land Records Department was created in 1884 when the revision survey and settlement operations were nearing completion and old "Survey Settlement Department" was brought to a close. The department is an adjunct to the Revenue Department. Its functions are :—

(1) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping very careful notes of all changes and for this purpose to carry out operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records ;

(2) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters concerned with the land ;

(3) to help to reduce, simplify and cheapen litigations in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records ;

(4) to supervise preparation and maintenance of Record of Rights and of the periodical inspection of the boundary marks ;

(5) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations ;

(6) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance ;

(7) to undertake special surveys for private individuals or for public bodies, surveys in connection with railways, municipal and Zilla Parishad projects, town planning schemes and survey for defence and other government departments ;

(8) to maintain up-to-date all village maps, and to reprint them and arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to the public ; and

(9) to train the revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

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Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

District Inspector of Land Records.

The District Inspector of Land Records, Dhulia, is the principal officer incharge of the Land Records department in the district. He is a class II gazetted officer (of mamlatdar's rank) appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and is directly subordinate to the Superintendent of Land Records, Nasik Circle, Nasik, in all technical matters. He is also subordinate to the Collector of Dhulia and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector in the matter of survey and records.

The District Inspector of Land Records is assisted by the district surveyor, six cadastral surveyors, five maintenance surveyors and other ministerial staff.

Being both a revenue and a survey officer, the duties of the District Inspector of Land Records are :—

(*a*) to supervise and take field tests of measurement and classification work done by the district, cadastral and maintenance surveyors ;

(*b*) to exercise check over the prompt and proper disposal of all measurement cases and other works done by the survey staff and the district survey office establishment, by scrutinizing their diaries and monthly statements (*Mahewars*) ;

(*c*) to take a test of the work of as many circle inspectors and village officers as possible with a view to ensure that they understand their duties in respect of (i) the Record of Rights, (ii) the tenancy and crop registers and (iii) the boundary marks repairs work, etc., during his village inspection. The District Inspector ensures that government waste lands are not being unauthorizedly used (his test is meant to be qualitative and not merely quantitative) ;

(*d*) to be responsible for the maintenance of the theodolite stones in the villages on the minor triangulation method and to arrange for regular inspection and replacement where necessary ;

(*e*) to compile the *huzur* statistics (Agricultural forms No. I, II and III) with the clerical aid placed at his disposal by the Collector ;

(*f*) to maintain the accounts and watch the recovery of the city survey and other dues ;

(*g*) to inspect the city survey offices every year and to send the inspection memoranda (in triplicate) to the Superintendent of Land Records, who forwards one copy to the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, and one to the city survey officer through the Collector with his own remarks thereon ;

(*h*) to arrange in consultation with the Collector concerned for training of the fresh Indian Administrative Service officers, the district deputy collectors, the mamlatdars and other staff in survey and settlement matters ; and

(*i*) to advice the revenue officers in the district in all technical matters concerned with the maintenance of the survey

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Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

District and Cadastral Surveyors.

records, and Record of Rights and to refer all doubtful cases to the Superintendent of Land Records.

The staff of the district and cadastral surveyors deals with the routine measurement and classification work whether done for government (*i.e.* in land acquisition cases, etc.) or on private applications, civil court decrees, etc. In the case of private work, prescribed fees are recovered from the parties in advance. The district surveyor deals with such measurement cases as cannot be entrusted to the cadastral surveyors on account of the difficulties such as their size, importance and urgency. The staff does the work of effecting necessary changes in the survey records by preparing *kami jasti patraks* during monsoon.

Maintenance Surveyors.

The staff of the maintenance surveyors is responsible for the maintenance of city surveys (these are introduced under section 131 of Land Revenue Code) and the records including the record of rights and the maps connected therewith and assist the revenue administration of the city survey area. They, therefore, work under the immediate control of the revenue officers incharge of the city survey, but the technical and administrative control of the staff vests with the District Inspector of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records. Such surveys have been introduced in the following important towns in Dhulia district in the years noted against each :—

Name of the city or town.	Year of Introduction.	Staff in charge of Maintenance.
1. Dhulia ...	1918	2 Maintenance Surveyors. 2 C. T. S. Clerks. 2 Attendants.
2. Shirpur ...	1933	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
3. Nawapur ...	1926	1 Attendant.
4. Dondaicha ...	1954	1 Maintenance Surveyor. 1 Attendant.
5. Nandurbar ...	1918	1 Maintenance Surveyor. 1 Attendant.
6. Shahada ...	1954	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
7. Taloda ...	1954	1 Attendant.

The cost of the maintenance of the city surveys is usually borne by the government and recovered from the property holders by way of *sanad* fees. The city survey of Akkalkuwa was under maintenance upto 1956. It was discontinued for administrative reasons. No village site survey has been undertaken in the district.

Pot-Hissa Surveyors.

The staff of *pot-hissa* surveyors in the district is working under the control of the survey mamlatdar, Nasik. The staff does the measurement work of the sub-divisions of the survey number for keeping the record of rights up-to-date. During monsoon the staff works out *hissavar assessments* and preparations of duplicate sketches and *akarphod* statements for the use of the village officers (the cost of the sub-division measurement is recovered from the landholders under section 135-G (b), Land Revenue Code).

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LAND RECORDS.

Circle Inspectors.

The circle inspectors are primarily expected to assist the revenue officers in the up-to-date maintenance of the village records and the land records kept at the villages and assist the revenue administration and are, therefore, under the control of the collector. They supervise the work of village officers and their work of maintenance of land records at the village is supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records.

Post-War Reconstruction Schemes.

In addition to the normal duties of the department referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, the Land Records department is entrusted with the execution of the following post-war reconstruction schemes.

Scheme No.	Description.
Land Development Scheme. No. 1.	Consolidation of holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.
75 × 77-A ..	Survey and settlement of unsurveyed *inam* villages.
61 ..	Survey and settlement of unsurveyed merged state villages.

There are four assistant consolidation officers working in the district with the consolidation officer, Dhulia, as their head. The assistant consolidation officers are in the cadre of the district inspector of land records and the consolidation officer in the cadre of prant officer.

The assistant consolidation officer is assisted by a *nimtandar* consolidation circle inspector and six surveyors in the measurement of sub-divisions, bringing record of rights up-to-date and preparation of the schemes of consolidation. The consolidation circle inspector assists the assistant consolidation officer in the execution of the scheme of consolidation after confirmation of the scheme by the Settlement Commissioner or government as the case may be. They have started work in Dhulia, Nandurbar, Sindkheda, Sakri, and Shahada talukas of the district. The work is carried out at government cost.

The consolidation of holdings scheme is an important land reform scheme implemented with a view to prohibit further fragmentation of lands and to put some restriction on the slip-shod way of the sale of lands to bring together the scattered holdings for better and economical cultivation. The blocks are formed in consultation with the village committee. The benefit of the scheme would thus be fully realised by the agriculturists who are sure to extend full co-operation in drafting of the scheme.

REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

REGISTRATION. Organisation.

The department is headed by the Inspector General of Registration, assisted by a District Registrar for each district who supervises the

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REGISTRATION.

Organisation.

registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as an *ex-officio* District Registrar. Under the District Registrar, there are sub-registrars. In 1964, there were five sub-registrars in the district with their headquarters at Dhulia, Shirpur, Sindkheda, Shahada and Nandurbar.

The appointments of the ministerial and other necessary staff at the sub-registry offices are made by the District Registrar. The sub-registrars are appointed by the Inspector General of Registration.

Functions.

The main functions performed by the Registration department are :—

(*a*) registration of documents under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908);

(*b*) registration of marriages under (i) the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act (V of 1954); the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act (III of 1936); and the Special Marriages Act, (XLIII of 1954); and

(*c*) registration of births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act (VI of 1886).

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector General of Registration in all departmental matters. If the District Registrar has any suggestions to make for introducing any particular system consistent with the Act, he submits them to the Inspector General of Registration. The District Registrar gives guidance to the sub-registrars in their day to day work. He visits the sub-registry offices in his district atleast once in every two years and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector General of Registration. He hears appeals and applications referred to him under sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act, 1908 against refusals to register documents by the sub-registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34 of the same Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct registration of the documents concerned on payment of fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in cases of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil can be deposited with him in a sealed cover and it can be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the death of the depositor.

Registration of Documents.

Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. A record of such registered documents is kept and extracts of documents affecting immoveable property in respect of which record of rights is maintained are sent to the officers concerned for making mutations. Certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents are also issued to the parties who apply for them.

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Revenue Administration.

REGISTRATION.

Registration of Documents.

In 1963, 10,726 documents were registered in the district. Out of these 9,987 falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 14,282,822 and 739 documents falling under optional registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,052,782.

Fees for registration are levied according to prescribed scale, but the State Government have exempted fully or partially levy of registration fees in respect of documents pertaining to societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act. Certain types of societies, such as urban credit societies, central financial agencies and housing societies (formed of persons belonging to the classes other than agriculturists or backward communities) enjoy restricted exemptions in respect of documents where the consideration does not exceed the specified limits, while all other co-operative societies enjoy unrestricted exemption.* Similarly copies of award under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XXVIII of 1947) are also exempted from registration fees.

Registration of Marriages.

All sub-registrars in the district are appointed as registrars of marriages under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1954 as well as under the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act, 1936. The headquarters sub-registrar, Dhulia is in addition vested with powers to solemnise marriages under the Special Marriages Act, 1954. He is also vested with powers under the Muslim Personal (*shariat*) Application Act (XXVI of 1937). The District Registrar and the headquarters sub-registrars are also the registrars of births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act, 1886.

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT

SALES TAX.

The sales tax is the most important source of revenue to the State as it contributes to the exchequer more than any other head of revenue.

Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959.

The Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959 (Bom. LI of 1959), which governs the levy and collection of sales tax replaced on January 1, 1960 the earlier Act which was in operation till then. Different systems of sales tax were in operation in different component parts of the State under the earlier Acts. Under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, a system which combined the two point levy in respect of certain goods with a single point levy at the first stage in respect of goods and single point levy at the penultimate stage of sale by the licensed dealer to a dealer without a licence, was introduced. For the ordinary registered dealer holding neither authorisation nor licence, recognition or permit and who obtained his requirements on payment of tax to other registered dealers, retail sales tax on sales of certain goods at 1/4 per cent. on the turnover of sales of such goods was introduced.

Dealers liable to pay Tax.

The turnover in the case of manufacturer or importer of goods into the State of Maharashtra for liability to register and pay tax is

* For details see Government Notification, Co-operation and Rural Development Department, No. CAS-1061/27508-J dated 16th August 1961.

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SALES TAX.

Dealers liable to pay Tax.

fixed at Rs. 10,000 while the turnover for other dealers is fixed at Rs. 30,000. Dealers dealing purely in non-taxable goods are not liable to pay tax and are not required to obtain certificates of registration.

Besides registration certificate, the Act provides for the issue of other privileged documents *viz.*, licence, authorisation, recognition and permit. A dealer holding a licence can purchase goods free of general sales tax for resale subject to certain conditions. An authorisation enables a dealer holding it to purchase goods free of both the sales tax and the general sales tax for sale in the course of inter-State trade and commerce or in the course of export subject to prescribed conditions. A recognition enables a manufacturer to purchase free of both the sales tax and the general tax, certain goods required by him for use in the manufacture of goods for sale and for use in the packing of goods so manufactured. A permit enables a registered dealer who buys for an agreed commission on behalf of a principal mentioned in his books of account, to purchase such goods free of tax under prescribed conditions.

A dealer registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, but who is not liable to pay tax under section 3 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, shall nevertheless be liable to pay tax—

(*a*) on sale of goods in respect of the purchase of which he has furnished a declaration under sub-section (*4*) of section 8 of the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, and

(*b*) on sale of goods so purchased have been used; and accordingly, the provisions of sections 7 to 12 shall apply to such sales, as they apply to the sales made by a dealer liable to pay tax under section 3 of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959.

Every dealer who is liable to pay tax under sub-section (*1*) shall, for the purposes of sections 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 46, 47 and 48 be deemed to a registered dealer.

The Act contains 5 schedules detailing various classes of goods subjected to sales tax and general sales tax.

The sale of a large number of goods consisting mostly of articles of consumption of comparatively poorer sections of the community is exempted from tax altogether. The rates of tax on sales of goods liable to tax, vary according to the cost of goods, the economic conditions of the section of the population which mainly consumes the goods and other factors such as imposition of duty in some other States on goods like cloth, sugar, etc.

Administrative Organisation.

For the purpose of the administration of the Sales Tax Act in Dhulia district, two Sales Tax Officers have been appointed with headquarters at Dhulia. The Sales Tax Officers exercise the powers delegated to them under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959. They register the dealer liable to pay tax and grant documents such as licence, authorisation, recognition and permit to those who are

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SALES TAX.

Administrative Organisation.

eligible for the same. The Sales Tax Officers receive periodical returns from the dealers showing the turnover during the period and the tax payable by them. They verify the returns and pass orders of assessment. They issue notices for demand, if any, after assessment and take necessary steps to recover the tax assessed. The Sales Tax Officers are primarily responsible for the administration of the office.

The Sales Tax Officers at Dhulia are subordinate to the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration-*cum*-Appeals), Central Division, Range I, Nasik. The Sales Tax Officers seek clarification and advice from the Assistant Commissioner who hears appeals filed by the assessees aggrieved against the assessment orders passed by the Sales Tax Officers.

The officer next above the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax (Administration-*cum*-Appeals), Nasik, is the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax, Central Division, Poona. He enjoys administrative as well as appellate authority over the Assistant Commissioner.

The Commissioner of Sales Tax, Maharashtra State, with headquarters at Bombay is the chief controlling, inspecting, co-ordinating, executive and administrative authority in the sales tax matters and is directly responsible to the government.

The Maharashtra State Sales Tax Tribunal hears appeals/revisions from the assessees aggrieved against the orders of the Commissioner of Sales Tax, the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax and the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax.

Reference application can be filed to the High Court on a question of law arising out of the orders of the Maharashtra Sales Tax Tribunal.

Statistics of Collection.

The following statement shows the number of registered dealers and net revenue derived from sales tax during the years from 1960-61 to 1963-64 :—

Year		No. of Regd dealers	Tax Collected
			Rs.
1960-61	...	1,181	2,119,049
1961-62	...	1,285	2,762,052
1962-63	...	1,429	2,638,103
1963-64	...	1,461	2,761,529

STAMPS DEPARTMENT

STAMPS.

Organisation.

The Superintendent of Stamps, Maharashtra, is the authority that controls the supply and sale of stamps in the State. In Dhulia district, the Collector of Dhulia as the administrative head of the district holds the general charge of the stamps department. No officer in the district is specially in charge of stamps. The work is looked after by the stamps head clerk under the supervision of treasury

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STAMPS.

Organization.

officer, Dhulia. The local depot at Dhulia is under the charge of the treasury officer who is responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to branch depots and their sale to the public.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold at local and branch depots as also at various other centres by vendors authorised to sell stamps. There are 17 licensed stamp vendors in the district.

The total income realised from stamp duty in the district during the year 1963-64 was Rs. 361,060·21 for judicial stamps and Rs. 617,204·80 for non-judicial stamps. The commission allowed to vendors during the same year amounted to Rs. 5,192·64 on judicial stamps and Rs. 10,111·26 on non-judicial stamps.

MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT

MOTOR VEHICLES. Motor Vehicles Act.

The Motor Vehicles Department deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Tax and the Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act (XV of 1956), the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act (LXV of 1958), Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passenger) Act, 1958 and the Maharashtra Tax on Goods (Carried by Road) Act, 1962. Under the Motor Vehicles Act all motor vehicles have to be registered, all drivers have to obtain a licence, which is given only on their passing the prescribed test of competence; the hours of work of drivers of transport vehicles are to be restricted and third party insurance of all vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. It gives powers to State Government to subject vehicles to strict mechanical tests and to control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, specifying their routes and also the freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and for issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

There is a State Transport Authority for each State and Regional Transport Authorities have been setup for convenient regions of the State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Transport Authorities. The Regional Transport Authority controls the motor transport in the region and deals with the issue of permits to different categories of transport vehicles according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, taking departmental action against those permit holders who contravene any condition of the permit etc., and prescribing policy in certain important matters relating to motor transport in the region.

Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Authority for the Thana region with headquarters at Thana has jurisdiction over the Dhulia district as also over the districts of Thana, Kolaba, Ratnagiri, Nasik and Jalgaon. It consists of four official and two non-official members nominated by government under sub-section (*1*) of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

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Regional Transport Officer.

The Regional Transport Officer functions as the secretary and executive officer of the Regional Transport Authority. In his capacity as the Regional Transport Officer he is the authority for licensing drivers and registering vehicles and also for prosecuting in cases of offences committed under the Motor Vehicles Act. Acting under the Regional Transport Authority, he is responsible for all the duties connected with the issue of and countersignature of authorisation to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, and with the grant, revocation, suspension and cancellation of permits for public carriers, private carriers, stage carriages and taxi cabs.

Other Staff.

The immediate subordinates to the Regional Transport Officer at the headquarters are the assistant regional transport officer for goods tax work and the regional supervisor for other items of work. They assist the Regional Transport Officer in executing his duties and look after the office administration. Whenever the Regional Transport Officer is out of headquarters, the assistant regional transport officer acts for him. The regional supervisor supervises the work of inspector and assistant inspectors of motor vehicles. The motor vehicles inspectors look after the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, testing of motor drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. They are assisted by the assistant motor vehicles inspectors in these duties.

Liaison with Police Department.

This department has liaison with the police department. The police department carries out periodical checks of motor vehicles and detects offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to references from the motor vehicles department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicles authorisations, conductor's licences, taxi cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of non-use of vehicles and recoveries of arrears of taxes and specifying particular places for bus stops, etc.

The District Magistrate is concerned with this department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits, and location of motor stands at various places, etc.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designated and used solely for carrying out agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are based on the type of vehicles (*e.g.*, motor cycles and cars, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.) and their laden or unladen weight. The act has removed all municipal and state tolls on motor vehicles. The rules made under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (*i.e.*, the Regional Transport Officer) shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (*e.g.*, the make of the vehicle, its capacity) and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax determined. In

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MOTOR VEHICLES.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

respect of transport vehicle the limits within which the vehicle will be plied (whether only within the limits of particular municipality or cantonment, or throughout the State) has also to be stated. 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 in a public place.

Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958.

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 the rate of 15 per cent. of the amount of the fares payable to the operator 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.

Maharashtra Tax on Goods (carried by road) Act, 1962.

The Maharashtra Tax on Goods (carried by road) Act, 1962 came into force from October 1, 1962. The tax in accordance with the provisions of the Act and the rules made thereunder is leviable on goods carried in public goods vehicles at the rate of 3 per cent. of the freight charged for the carriage of the goods. The Act also provides for the payment of tax on goods by lump-sum payment. The rates of lump-sum payment are fixed on the basis of carrying capacity of the vehicle.

CHAPTER 12—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT ARE MANIFOLD and those relating to maintenance of law and order, 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.

POLICE DEPARTMENT

POLICE.

Functions.

The primary functions of the police are the prevention and detection of crime, the maintenance of law and order, the apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or private or public property of which they may be placed in charge, and the prosecution of criminals. They have, however, various other duties to perform, such as control and regulation of traffic, service of summonses and warrants in criminal cases, inspection of explosive and poison shops and extinguishing fires and others such as giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, passports 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 to watch over the recruitment, education, housing and equipment of the police force, to regulate the internal organisation and method of its working and to look after its welfare. He is assisted in his office by three Assistant Inspectors General of Police (who are officers of the rank of 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, besides three Commissionerates, *viz.* Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police, who is second in the Police hierarchy is in charge of the

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Organisation.

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 Criminal Investigation Department is divided into two bronches, viz. (i) Intelligence, (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 Superintendent of Police and a number of Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables. There are Criminal Investigation Department 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; 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 the charge of a Range Deputy Inspector-General is divided into districts, each corresponding to the revenue district, and is in the 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 a district in matters of policy and administration of law within the district, but he does not interfere with the 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 is divided into two or three sub-divisions. Each sub-division is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer, who is of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police and is responsible for the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his charge. Subject to the general orders of the Superintendent, he is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division. He has to hold detailed inspections 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 detection of crime and supervision of bad characters and gangs in their circles. The supervision and co-ordination of the detection work of the different police stations in the circles is also entrusted to the Circle Inspectors.

At the district headquarters, the Superintendent of Police is assisted by an Inspector who is called the Home Inspector. He is in the

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nature of a Personal Assistant to the Superintendent of Police and supervises the work of the Superintendent's office at the headquarters during the absence of the Superintendent of Police and the Sub-Divisional Officer. In the bigger districts there are Inspectors in charge of Local Intelligence Branches (District Special Branches) and Local Crime Branches.

Each district is divided into a number of police stations. A Sub-Inspector of Police is in charge of a police station. He is responsible for the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his charge and has to see 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 crime. 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 a Police Station, some of them hold the charge 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-Inspector 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 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 evil of corruption and for a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of 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 his headquarters at Bombay. The Bureau has its offices in all 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 providing the Armed Forces which may be required at any place in the State to deal with any serious disturbance or 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 is an officer of the rank of Superintendent of Police) assisted by the necessary staff of officers of different ranks. The groups are provided with wireless and motor transport sections. The training institutions at different places have been described below.

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Training Institutions.

(*i*) The Police Training College, Nasik, provides the initial training for officers of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector and for the refresher training of qualified Head Constables in the duties of Police Sub-Inspector. It is in the charge of a Principal, who is of the rank of Superintendent of Police. He is assisted by a Deputy Superintendent of Police designated as Vice-Principal and by Police Inspectors, Police Prosecutors, Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables who are employed as Instructors.

(*ii*) Regional Police Training Schools, Khandala, Jalna and Nagpur provide training for un-armed Constables for the police force and are in the charge of Principals, who are of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police. The principals are assisted by the necessary staff of Inspectors, Police Prosecutors, etc.

(*iii*) 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 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 inquests on dead bodies of women, whenever required.

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 (i) 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.

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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 the State and also with those in other States. The grid consists of W. T. (Wireless Telegraphy Circuits) of H. F. (High Frequency) and R. T. (Radio Telephony Circuits) of V. H. F. (Very High 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 Units and in the three Commissionerates of Greater Bombay, Poona and Nagpur cities. 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.

The Dhulia district which has its headquarters at Dhulia is divided into two sub-divisions—Dhulia division and Nandurbar division, with headquarters at Dhulia and Nandurbar respectively, each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer. There are 17 regular police stations, 26 out-posts and two road patrolling stations. Out of these 17 police stations, two are town police stations, *viz.* Dhulia city and Nandurbar town, nine taluka police stations, one mahal police station and five other police stations. The Armed Police headquarters at Dhulia includes an Inspector-General's reserve consisting of 216 policemen.

Strength.

The strength of the district police was 45 officers and 1,315 men in 1962. It was raised to 46 officers and 1,343 men in 1963. In 1963, the composition of the force was as follows :—

(*a*) *Permanent*—

District Superintendent	..	..	1
Deputy Superintendent	..	..	1
Inspectors	..	..	3
Sub-Inspectors	..	..	32
Unarmed Head Constables	..	..	146
Armed Head Constables	..	..	101
Unarmed Constables	..	..	386
Armed Constables	..	..	454
Head Wireless Operator	..	..	1
Wireless Operators	..	..	2

(*b*) *Temporary*—

Serial No.	Duties	Dy. S. P. Dhulia	P. I. Dhulia City	S. Is.	Hd. Cons. Armed	Hd. Cons. Un-Armed	Constables Armed	Constables Un-armed	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	For Dhulia Division ...	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
2	For Dhulia City ...	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
3	Excise and Prohibition work. ...	..	..	2	..	3	..	17	22
4	Gadhi and Hadamba Taluka Range Forest.	..	..	1	3	..	24	..	28

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Strength.

Serial No.	Duties	Dy. S. P. Dhulia	P. I. Dhulia City	S. Is.	Hd. Cons. Armed	Hd. Cons. Un-Armed	Contables Armed	Contables Un-armed	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	For increase in work as a result of the amendment to Sections 103 and 173 of Criminal Procedure Code.	..	..	..	..	4	..	20	24
6	Security duty ..	..	..	..	..	3	..	2	5
7	For Thalner P. Station.	..	..	..	..	..	3	3	6
8	Orderlies for Deputy S.P. Dhulia Division.	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	3
9	Motor Drivers for Excise and Prohibition work.	..	..	..	..	..	6	..	6
10	Drivers for D. V. Car ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
11	For Dhulia Treasury Guard.	..	..	..	2	..	6	..	8
12	For Kothar O. P. under Taloda Police Station.	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2
13	Radio Mechanic ..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
14	Reorganisation G. R. H. Department, No. PRS. 5359/57-V of 23rd January 1960 and I. G. P.'s No. J/82/83/ 19th September 1961.	..	..	4	14	13	29	86	146
15	For Dhadgaon Sub-Treasury.	..	..	..	2	..	6	..	8
	Total ..	1	1	7	22	23	80	128	262

The total strength of the police force, both permanent and temporary was 46 officers and 1,343 men at the end of the year 1963 and 46 officers and 1,355 men during the year 1971-72.

Expenditure.

The expenditure on the establishment of the district for the year 1963 was Rs. 23,04,002. The ratio of the police to area and population came to one policeman to 9·08 km.^{2} and 975 persons.

Recruitment.

Recruitment to the cadre of Assistant Superintendent of Police, who belongs to the Indian Police Service, is made by the Government of India on the recommendation of the Union Public Service Commission. On their appointment, they are attached to the National Police Academy, Abu for training for a period of one year and after successful completion of the training they are sent to the States concerned for further training. On arrival in the State, the I.P.S. probationers are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for three months and in districts for practical training for nine months before they are appointed to hold independent charges as Sub-Divisional Police Officers. Assistant Superintendents of Police are considered eligible for promotion to a senior post in the Indian Police Service cadre after their confirmation in the I.P.S. in vacancies 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

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POLICE.

Recruitment.

recruitment are attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a period of two years and three months. During the first two years of their probationary period, they are required to pass departmental examinations prescribed by Government.

After a year's training at the Police Training College they are required to undergo military training for 5 weeks and thereafter practical training in districts for the remaining period of probation. They are considered for promotion to Indian Police Service cadre after they put in eight years service as Deputy Superintendent of Police.

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 of the I. G. P. as the Chairman and Commissioner of Police/Deputy Inspectors-General of Police as members. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made.

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. Fifty 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 Central 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 Commisioner 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 upto one-third of the vacancies.

Literacy.

Among the actual strength of 46 officers and 1,343 men of the Dhulia district at the close of the year 1963, none was illiterate.

Armament.

The armament of the district police in 1963 consisted of 5 carbine machine guns, 461 rifles of ·303 bore, 21 rifles of EY (Italian rifles), 616 muskets of ·410 bore, 36 revolvers of ·455 bore, 22 revolvers of ·38 bore for the use of police and 5 rifles of ·22 bore for imparting training to the public in rifle shootings. Besides these arms, there were 149 muskets of ·410 bore and 24 revolvers of ·455 bore for use of the Home Guards.

An Emergency Company of 48 (8 Head Constables and 40 Constables) armed men is maintained and given practice with the

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Armament.

rifles of ·303 bore. Some Head Constables are also trained in the working of carbine machine guns. A Tear Smoke Squad of 5 Head Constables and 25 Constables is formed for the district.

The District had a fleet of 12 motor vehicles in 1963.

In 1963, the district had a static wireless station with full equipment and one R. T. Control Station with two taluka stations at Nandurbar and Thalner. Each station is provided with the required equipment.

Crime.

The following statement shows the crime reported to the Dhulia police during the year 1963 and the preceding four years :—

	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
(a) Cognizable cases (Classes I to VI)	72,10	7,251	6,747	6,137	6,469
(b) Non-cognizable cases ..	7,914	11,959	15,364	4,763	6,286

The important crime reported during the year 1963 and the preceding four years was as under :—

	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
(1) Murders and cognate crime ..	48	70	50	59	64
(2) Dacoities ..	11	15	16	24	25
(3) Robberies ..	45	63	56	54	84
(4) Attempted murders ..	5	7	9	4	8
(5) House breaking and thefts ..	316	278	273	289	331
(6) Thefts and cattle thefts ..	447	560	488	498	483
(7) Cheating ..	15	18	11	14	8
(8) Receiving stolen property ..	8	5	4	1	1
(9) Riots ..	46	67	57	62	206
Total ..	941	1,083	964	1,005	1,210

The incidence of the reported cognizable crime per thousand population of the district during the year 1963 and the preceding four years was as under :—

1963	..	4·93
1962	..	5·37
1961	..	4·99
1960	..	5·34
1959	..	5·64

Prosecuting Staff and Prosecutions.

In 1963, there were 9 Police Prosecutors of whom one was appointed as Senior Police Prosecutor in the district. The total number of cases conducted by the Prosecutors in 1963 was 1,072. The prosecuting Jamadars conduct minor cases.

Police Welfare.

Officers of and below the rank of Police Inspectors are entitled to rent-free quarters. In 1963, out of 46 officers and 1,343 men, 27 officers and 1,001 men were housed in Government quarters. The remaining officers and men lived in private buildings on hire.

The district police have its own welfare fund. The fund is financed by subscription from the members of the Police department of the district except the clerks, whose monthly emoluments are below Rs. 150 and class IV servants. Special performances of shows etc. are also held in aid of the welfare fund. Numerous facilities such as police dispensary, scholarships to school going children and monetary help for purchase of books, poultry farm, tailoring class for women and children park are made available to members of the police force.

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Police Welfare.

There is a Government mess and canteen. A branch of consumers co-operative credit stores has been opened during the year 1963. Besides, there is a co-operative credit society for the district police.

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 vests in the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate may, however, delegate any of his authority 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 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 1963, the number of the village police including the Police Patils was 1,328. The village police rendered assistance to the district police in 5 cases in 1963.

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 essentially 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 is headed by 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 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 a duty allowance, as admissible according to the orders of Government.

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Home Guards.

The Dhulia Home Guards Organisation was started in October 1947. In 1963, the organisation consisted of a District Commandant, a Second-in-Command, 4 Staff Officers, 9 Units each under an Officer Commanding, 4 Sub-Units each under an Officer-in-charge and 1,675 Home Guards (1,526 Males and 149 Females). The Units were at Dhulia, Nawapur, Nandurbar, Shirpur, Shahada, Sindkheda, Sakri, Taloda, Akkalkuwa and the Sub-Units at Khapar, Dondaicha, Pimpalner and Thalner.

Village Defence Parties.

With a view to providing an opportunity to the villagers to cultivate among themselves and also to cultivate among their villages a sense of civic duty, an organisation known as 'Village Defence party' has been formed in the district. These village defence parties are very useful for the defence of villages against depredations of dacoits and other types of criminals. It is a voluntary organisation of public spirited and able-bodied villagers between the age of 20 and 50 who enrol themselves as members of the parties.

There is a Joint Village Defence Officer who is from the public and works in an honorary capacity. There is also a Joint Assistant Village Defence Officer from the public in an honorary capacity for each taluka. Under the taluka officers, there is a Kotwal for each Village Defence Party, who is a villager. The Kotwal is in charge of the Village Defence Party. The Joint Village Defence Officer and the Joint Assistant Village Defence Officer get permanent travelling allowance. The Village Defence Organisation in the District is subordinate to the Superintendent of Police.

In order to encourage the village defence movement, a few selected members are given arms licences and they are expected to arm themselves with such guns as they might be able to procure on their own or with the help of the Superintendent of Police. Members of the village defence parties are trained together at a convenient place with such weapons including sticks, etc. as they possess to defend themselves in the best manner they can under the guidance and leadership of the Kotwals. In order that there should be some men who can handle fire arms in an emergency, the Superintendent of Police arranges to impart training in musketry to a few men of the village defence parties. However, this is only a civilian body of spirited volunteers and they do not enjoy the special privileges enjoyed by the police.

At the close of the year 1963, there were 1,377 village defence parties with 25,782 members of which 517 were gun licensees. Nine dozen whistles were supplied at Government cost. The members use their own arms and ammunition and *lathis* for night patrolling, etc.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

JUDICIAL.

District Judge.

The district judge, Dhulia, 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

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Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

District Judge.

of district judges[1] are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the high court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service[2] are made by the Governor in accordance with 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.

Civil Courts.

The district court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders upto the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The district judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishments and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

The district court consists of the court of the assistant judge also. The assistant judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction.

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 all 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 Dhulia, there are six courts of civil judges, one of senior division and five of junior division. Besides Dhulia, there are courts of civil judges (junior division) at Amalner, Nandurbar, Sakri, Shahada, Shirpur, Sindkheda and Taloda. All the civil judges (junior division) are also judicial magistrates, first class, within their respective jurisdiction.

Criminal Courts.

The district judge, Dhulia, 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 preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate magistrates. The sessions judge has also the jurisdiction to try criminal cases falling under section 198-B of the Criminal Procedure Code. The additional sessions judge is appointed by the State government as a special judge for disposing of cases under the Bombay Prevention of Corruption Act (Bombay Act III of 1947), read with Section 161

[1] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "district judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small causes court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

[2] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, 'judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil and judicial posts inferior to the post of district judge.

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Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Criminal Courts.

of the Indian Penal Code. The assistant judge also exercises the powers of an additional sessions judge on criminal side. The sessions judge and additional sessions judge can pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by them is subject to confirmation by the high court.

The separation of the judiciary from the executive was effected in the district from July 1, 1953. In 1964, there were in all 10 judicial magistrates of the first class in Dhulia district. Out of them, 3 at Dhulia and 1 at Nandurbar were exclusively judicial magistrates and the remaining at Shirpur, Nandurbar, Shahada, Taloda, Sakri and Sindkheda were civil judges and judicial magistrates of the first class.

All judicial magistrates are subordinate to the sessions judge who may from time to time, make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them.

There is a circuit court at Dhadgaon to dispose of criminal cases arising out of Akrani mahal. No independent magistrate is posted there. The civil judge (junior division) and judicial magistrate, first class, Taloda, deals with the criminal cases of that court by sitting at Taloda from 1st July to 15th October and by going on deputation to Dhadgaon for one week in a month from 16th October to 30th June every year. Similarly, no independent judicial magistrate is posted for the criminal court at Nawapur for disposal of criminal cases arising out of Nawapur taluka. One judicial magistrate from Dhulia goes on deputation to Nawapur, for two weeks in a month for disposal of criminal cases of that court.

Other Law Officers.

Besides, district government pleader, public prosecutor, and two assistant public prosecutors were functioning at Dhulia.

There is a sub-government pleader working at each taluka headquarters in the district.

Legal Practitioners.

In August 1965, there were 167 legal practitioners practising in various civil and criminal courts in the district.

Bar Associations.

There were seven associations of lawyers in the district located at Dhulia, Shirpur, Nandurbar, Shahada, Taloda, Sakri and Sindkheda. The objects of the associations are—

(*i*) to promote contacts among the members of the legal profession;

(*ii*) to guard the honour and status of the members, as members of the profession;

(*iii*) to send representatives and deputations to the authorities concerned in connection with legislative and other cognate matters affecting the public in general and legal profession in particular, and

(*iv*) to take steps to secure greater efficiency and public confidence in the administration of justice.

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Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, *Nyaya Panchayats* have been formed in the district. They are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. The constitution and powers of the *Nyaya Panchayats* are detailed in Chapter VI, Sections 37 to 58-A of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958. A revision lies with the district court against a decree passed by a *Nyaya Panchayat*, in any suit or with the sessions court against any order in any case.

Statistics of Civil Courts.

In various civil courts in Dhulia district, 1,728 suits were pending at the beginning of the year 1964. During that year, 3,119 suits were instituted, 2,948 suits were disposed of and 1,899 suits were pending at the end of the year.

Of 3,119 suits instituted, 95 suits were either for money or moveable property; 1,010 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 1,603 were above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 300 were above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 and 111 of the value above Rs. 5,000. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 63,44,375·07 paise.

Out of 2,948 suits disposed of, 453 were disposed of without trial; 597 *ex-parte*; 284 on admission of claims; 857 by compromise; 690 after full trial and 64 by transfer and 3 on reference to arbitration.

There were 359 appeals (including miscellaneous and B. A. D. R. appeals) pending at the beginning of the year 1964. During the same year 408 appeals were instituted and 371 disposed of. The number of appeals pending at the end of the year was 396.

Of 371 appeals disposed of, 53 were either dismissed or not prosecuted; 222 confirmed; 30 modified; 60 reversed and 6 remanded for trial.

Statistics of Criminal Courts.

In the year 1964, 19,709 offences were reported in the criminal courts of Dhulia district. Persons under trial numbered 34,177; persons discharged or acquitted, 7,215; persons convicted, 13,120; persons committed to Sessions Court, 203; persons died or escaped or transferred to other States, 16. Of 13,120 persons found guilty, 1968 were sentenced to imprisonment and 10,612 to fine. Of the remaining 540 persons, 143 were released on admonitions, 63 were given benefit under the Bombay Probation of Offenders' Act and 334 were ordered to give security.

Statistics of Sessions Court.

In the sessions court, 74 offences were reported during 1964. Persons under trial numbered 322; cases of 272 persons were disposed of during the year. Number of persons acquitted or discharged was 152; 120 persons were convicted of whom 22 were sentenced to imprisonment for life and 96 were sentenced to imprisonment. Of these 2 were ordered to furnish security.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The revenue and expenditure of the Judicial department in Dhulia district for the year 1964-65 were as follows :—

Revenue		Rs. P.
1. Sale proceeds of unclaimed and escheated property.		2,552·55
2. Fines by civil and sessions court	..	1,03,739·32
3. Cash receipts of record rooms	..	35,825·51
4. Miscellaneous receipts etc.	..	2,188·68
Total	..	1,44,306·06

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Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Revenue and Expenditure.

Expenditure

		Rs. P.
1.	Pay of officers	1,00,592·77
2.	Pay of the establishment	2,86,631·75
3.	Pay of process serving establishment ..	81,826·30
4.	Other expenditure	1,65,938·16
	Total ..	6,34,988·98

JAIL DEPARTMENT

JAILS. There is a district prison at Dhulia and seven magisterial lock-ups located at Nandurbar, Nawapur, Sakri, Shahada, Shirpur, Sindkheda and Taloda.

The district prison at Dhulia is classified as Class-I prison mainly for confinement of adolescent offenders from Bombay and Poona revenue divisions and local undertrial prisoners.

Organisation. The inspector-general of prisons exercises, subject to the orders of the State government, general control and superintendence over all prisons and jails in the State. He is assisted by the deputy inspector-general of prisons, superintendent of jail industries and other necessary staff.

The district prison at Dhulia 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 regional deputy inspector-general of prisons, western region and inspector-general of prisons. The superintendent, Dhulia district prison is assisted in his work by the executive, ministerial and technical staff. Prisoners promoted to the rank of convict overseers and night watchmen are utilised for prison services.

Training. The superintendents of prisons and jailors receive theoretical as well as practical training in jail officers' training school at Yeravda on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work. A separate training class of three months' duration for non-commissioned officers has been started at the jail officers' training school to impart the practical knowledge of the duties which are expected of a jail guard.

A physical training instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities both to the inmates of the jail and also to the jail guards.

Guarding Establishment. Part of the guarding establishment is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison 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".

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JAILS.

Prisoners are classified as Class-I or Class-II by the court. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, under trials, etc.

Work is arranged according to prisoner's health. On admission, a prisoner is examined by the medical officer, who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. Suitable work is assigned to prisoners after taking into account their health conditions, aptitude, etc.

Prisoners are engaged in prison maintenance services, prison farms and industries. Land measuring 6·880 hectares (17 acres) was under cultivation in 1965. 72 prisoners used to work daily at the prison. The prisoners are engaged in weaving, tailoring, carpentry and smithy. The number of prisoners engaged in these factories was 207 in 1965.

Wages. The prisoners who are engaged in various prison occupations are paid wages as per the rules.

Remission of Sentence. Prisoners are granted ordinary remission, 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 relation or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole does not count as part of sentence. If any prisoner is found to violate parole rules, he is liable to be punished. Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which is counted as a part of the sentence.

Advisory Board. The cases of long-term prisoners are initially reviewed by an advisory board. Deserving prisoners are released prematurally under the orders of government by remitting the unexpired portion of their sentences.

Board of Visitors. A board of visitors comprising official and non-official visitors is appointed for the prison as per the rules.

Two moral lecturers have been appointed to give moral lectures to the prisoners on Sundays and jail holidays.

Literacy classes are conducted for prisoners. School books are provided to prisoners at government cost. Prisoners who desire to prosecute higher studies are also extended necessary facilities.

Recreational and Cultural Activities. Documentary and full length films are exhibited to prisoners ordinarily once a month by the publicity department. Newspapers are supplied to prisoners at government cost as per the scale laid down under rules. A library has been organised for the benefit of prisoners. Cultural, musical and Kalapathak programmes are also organised for the prisoners. Facilities for playing various games have been provided for the prisoners.

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Law, Order and Justice.

JAILS.

Panchayat.

With a view to train the inmates to live in a co-operative, democratic and disciplined manner and to inculcate a sense of responsibility and self-reliance among them, a *panchayat* of convicted prisoners has been organised at the Dhulia district prison.

Welfare of Prisoners.

Matters pertaining to the welfare of prisoners are attended to by the prison officers as per the rules. A canteen is also conducted for their benefit.

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 attitude of the prisoners.

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE. Legislation.

The Bombay Children Act (LXXI of 1948), the Bombay Borstal Schools Act (XVIII of 1929), and the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act (XIX of 1938) are the enactments pertaining to social legislation, the aim of which is to protect children and to prevent juveniles, adolescents and young adults from becoming habitual criminals.

While the Children Act deals with children below sixteen years of age, the Borstal Schools Act is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21 and the Probation of Offenders Act provides for supervision of offenders of any age, especially those between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation of life. In addition there are two more pieces of social legislation, *viz.* the Bombay Beggars Act, 1945, for prevention of begging and the Bombay Habitual Offenders' Restriction Act (II of 1947), dealing with prevention of crime and treatment of offenders.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also for 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 in moral danger; (2) uncontrollable children who have been reported as such by their parents; (3) children who have been used for begging and such other purposes by mercenary persons and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of elderly persons or by themselves have committed 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 of safety where a child can be safely accommodated until its case is decided by the juvenile court. It is also a place of observation where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs fully provided for by wise

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE.

Legislation.

and careful consideration. After enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents have been 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 restoration to their parents, they are 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 persons institutions.".

"Fit person" includes any association established for the reception and protection of children. In all these schools or institutions the children receive training according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book-binding, tailoring, agriculture, weaving, poultry-farming, goat-rearing, gardening, etc. Youthful offenders, when implicated in any offence alongwith adult offenders, have to be tried separately in juvenile courts. The technique employed in juvenile courts is entirely different from that in adult courts. Juvenile courts are held in remand homes. Penal terms are avoided; even the word "punishment" has been dropped from the enactment in describing the treatment to be meted out to such children. The children are regarded only as victims of circumstances.

Adolescent criminals coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Kolhapur.

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 net-work 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 make enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of children and also to supervise the young persons released either directly by courts or on licence from certified schools and the Borstal school. As regards the offenders dealt with under the Probation of Offenders' Act, the work of the district association consists of only in making preliminary enquiries regarding the cases of alleged offenders referred to them and in carrying in selected areas supervision of offenders released on probation.

Official.

The official agency is now the correctional administration wing of the directorate of social welfare.

In 1957 government constituted the directorate of social welfare and set up a single organisation for looking after various social welfare activities of government at the executive level on a co-ordinated basis. The directorate of social welfare took over the activities of juvenile and beggars department and other social welfare activities *viz.*, the education of the blind, dumb and mentally retarded, youth welfare, recreation and leisure-time activities (including cultural activities), matters pertaining to the state homes, district

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE.

shelters, reception centres under the moral and social hygiene programme, training for and research in social work (including socio-economic surveys) and management of destitute homes. The directorate also issues licenses to institutions doing social welfare under the Women's and Children's Institutions (Licensing) Act, 1956.

Machinery to enforce Legislation. Official.

All this work is being executed by the directorate of social welfare through the divisional social welfare officers at, Poona, Bombay, Nagpur and Aurangabad who in turn implement the various schemes through the district social welfare officers, chief officers under the Bombay Probation of Offenders' Act, and probation officers of districts under them.

Beggars Act.

So far as this district is concerned, the Beggars Act, has not yet been applied to the district. There is a detention home for beggars at Nandurbar.

Children Act.

The Bombay Children Act has been made applicable to the municipal area of Dhulia since July, 1957.

There is a remand home at Dhulia run by the district probation and after care association. The association has its own building for the remand home. There is no certified school in the district but there are two 'fit person institutions' at Dhulia known as Victoria orphanage and Dr. Sumati Godbole Maternity home.

The Victoria orphanage admits 30 court committed educable children whereas the maternity home is used as a fit person institution for babies and toddlers below three years who are taken charge of under the Bombay Children Act.

Probation of Offenders Act.

The Bombay Probation of Offenders' Act, 1938 has been made applicable to the district since April, 1962 and a chief officer has been appointed for implementing the act in the district. This act provides for the release of certain type of offenders on probation and/or supervision instead of sending them to jails. The act provides for treatment as against undergoing the sentence, and gives an opportunity to certain offenders, especially first offenders, to improve their behaviour without the stigma of imprisonment.

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 the Major District Roads and the roads of the lower order, buildings required by the Animal Husbandry department and other departments at the taluka level, constructional activities under the block development schemes and the tanks that will irrigate less than 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 installation 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 the Chief Engineer are the Superintending Engineers of Buildings and Communications Circles and Electrical Engineer to the Government. Each circle comprising five or more divisions is controlled by a Superintending Engineer. The divisions are in charge of Executive Engineers and sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers. The Dhulia Division has three Sub-Divisions under it. These Sub-Divisions are further divided into sections each in charge of an overseer. There are 33 overseers in the Division.

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. He has to inspect the state of various works within his circle and to satisfy himself that the system of management prevailing is efficient and economic. He is required to ascertain the efficiency of subordinate officers and petty establishments and to report whether the staff employed in each division is actually necessary or adequate for the management. The Superintending Engineer is empowered to transfer and post the Deputy Engineers and overseers within his circle in the interest of administration. However, Executive Engineers of divisions are consulted before posting these officers to particular sub-divisional charges under

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

their control. It is also the duty of the Superintending Engineer to recommend removal and transfer of Executive Engineers from his circle.

Executive Engineer.

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 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 within the limits of his charge.

Of the total road mileage of 329·78, State Highways account for 243·38 and National Highways 86·40. Of these roads 223·04 miles are black topped, 94·49 miles, water bound macadam and 12·25 miles, *murum* surface.

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, and Electricity Duty Act.

The Electrical Circle is headed by Electrical Engineer to the Government whose jurisdiction extends over the whole State.

The Electrical Circle is divided into two wings, *viz.* Executive Wing and Inspection Wing at the divisional level. The Executive Wing has four Electrical Divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad respectively. Dhulia district falls under the jurisdiction of the Deputy Engineer, Electrical Sub-Division, Jalgaon, which is under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Aurangabad Electrical Division.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

The Irrigation and Power Department deals with major, medium, minor irrigation works and also public health works in Dhulia district.

"The oldest of Government irrigation works in the Deccan are the Panjhra River Works in Khandesh. They date from 1851-52 and were constructed at the cost of about five lakh rupees for the irrigation of about 13,000 acres." Dhulia district thus has irrigation works over a century old but still in use.

Organisation.

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.

Subject to adjustment, most of the major projects are executed by the Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Construction Circle (I), Nasik, while most of the medium and minor projects including Irrigation management is attended to by the Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Circle (North). In Dhulia district, the Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Construction Circle (I) is in charge of the Girna Canal System Project while Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Circle (North) attends to upper Panjhra and Karwand Projects.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Organisation.

The actual execution of irrigation work is carried out by the Executive Engineers. All the major and medium irrigation works in the district are administered by the Executive Engineer, Karwand-Malangaon Project Division. This Division with its headquarters at Dhulia has four Sub-Divisions at Shirpur and one Sub-Division at Sakri. Minor irrigation works in the district are supervised by the Executive Engineer, Khandesh Irrigation Division, Dhulia. Two of the three Sub-Divisions under the control of the Khandesh Irrigation Division, look after the works in the Dhulia district while the remaining Sub-Division is in-charge of the works in Jalgaon district.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general financial and technical control of the works in the charge of officers of the department 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.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his circle for execution and management of all works within his division. The Sub-Divisional Officers are responsible to the Executive Engineer in-charge of the Division for management and execution of works within jurisdiction of their sub-divisions. The overseers are in charge of the sections working under Sub-Divisional Officers.

Activities.

Major and medium irrigation works in progress

Serial No.	Name of the work	Location	Estimated Cost (Rs.)	Irrigation Potential on Completion (in acres)
1	Karwand Project ..	Shirpur Taluka ..	12,732,000	11,200
2	Malangaon Project ..	Sakri Taluka ..	6,175,000	6,670

The following eight minor irrigation projects are in progress in the district :—

Serial No.	Name of the Work	Location	Estimated Cost (Rs.)	Irrigation Potential on Completion (in acres)
1	Tank at Jampha	Sindkheda Taluka..	1,195,000	718
2	Tank at Kulthe	Dhulia Taluka ..	748,000	1,050
3	Remodelling Shanmadal tank including Asarabari *nalla* in the existing tank at Talwade.	Nandurbar Taluka	80,000	76 acres in addition to existing irrigation on Talwade tank.
4	Drainage scheme near Shahada town.	Shahada Taluka ..	271,000	634.
5	Construction of bandhara and canal at Walkheda.	Sindkheda Taluka	328,000	1,900.
6	Extensions and improvement to Bandhara and Canal at Dhanrat.	Nawapur Taluka ..	159,000	450.
7	Construction of tank at Chawadi	Sakri Taluka ..	1,058,000	1,287.
8	Percolation tank at Laling ..	Dhulia Taluka ..	125,000	Percolation tank hence no Irrigation potential.

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IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Public Health.

The Superintending Engineer, Bombay Public Health Circle is in charge of the public health organisation in the district so far as this department is concerned. Its main functions are :—

(*i*) preparation and execution of Government and municipal water supply and drainage schemes and also individual rural water supply schemes costing more than Rs. 500,000 net ; and

(*ii*) supervision of water supply and drainage schemes executed by local bodies through their own agencies.

The work of execution and supervision of water supply and drainage schemes in the district is looked after by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Public Health Works Sub-Division, Dhulia, who is responsible to the Executive Engineer, Public Health Works Division, Nasik. The major public health schemes are prepared by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Public Health Project Sub-Division, Nasik, under the control of the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Nasik.

Dhulia, Nandurbar, Songhir, Dighave and Ambapur in the district are provided with protected piped water supply. Improvements to Nandurbar water supply, Dhulia water supply scheme, stage III Distribution system, Dondaicha-Varwada water supply scheme, Shahada and Shirpur water supply schemes are in progress. Plans and estimates are under preparation for Dhulia underground drainage scheme and Shahada drainage scheme.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

AGRICULTURE. Organisation.

Agriculture department, like many other departments, was split into two sectors, *viz.* State and district with the formation of the Zilla Parishads. Schemes such as town compost, sugarcane development, cotton extension, taluka seed farms, experimental and research farms, soil conservation and *gram sevak* training centre have been retained under the State sector while those such as *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, paddy pilot-schemes, horticultural development, construction of taluka godowns, and compressor blasting and tractor ploughing, rural compost, fertilizer 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.

The department in the State sector is headed by the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona. The activities falling in the State sector at the district level are controlled and supervised by the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Bombay Division, Nasik.

The Parishad Agricultural Development Officer is placed in charge of the schemes falling within the sphere of the district sector. He is immediately responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad, and also works as the Secretary to the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by District Agricultural Officer and Campaign Officer and other necessary staff.

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AGRICULTURE.

Schemes.

A brief account of the schemes falling under the Zilla Parishad is given in chapter 14.

The following is a brief description of the schemes in the State Sector :—

Soil conservation activities in the district are in charge of the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Dhulia. He is assisted in his work by five Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officers and other necessary saff.

Soil Conservation.

Due to soil conservation activities in the district, the yields have increased from 15 to 20 per cent. At the same time the area under cultivation has also increased and additional cultivable land is made available due to *nalla* bunding. The castor plantation has been undertaken on the bunds. Improved seed of castor is distributed free of cost to the farmers.

Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms.

There are nine Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms in the district, located at Pimpri, Kalambu, Nampur, Taloda, Sindkheda, Sakri, Shirpur, Akkalkuwa and Dhadgaon. The object of the scheme is to produce seeds of improved strains of different crops for further distribution to the cultivators so as to cover areas under major food crops under improved seeds. These farms are under the charge of Agricultural Supervisors or Agricultural Assistants.

Agricultural College.

For the provision of agricultural education and training in advanced agricultural practices an Agricultural College was started in Dhulia in 1961. The Agricultural College farm covers an area of 182·109 hectares (450 acres) which is divided into eight blocks. Each block is managed by one Agricultural Assistant. The *kharif* and *rabi* crops are taken by rotation on the College farm. In addition to this a separate horticultural section is instituted covering about 40 acres of land under different orchards.

Compost Development Scheme.

There are 21 urban centres in the district which produce town compost. The work is looked after by the Compost Inspector. Under the technical guidance of this department, the municipalities and *grampanchayats* do the work of compost making with a view to increase the production of organic manures.

The target and achievement in the production of compost from 1961-62 to 1964-65 were as under—

Year	Target (in tons)	Achievements (in tons)
1961-62 ..	17,000	14,025
1962-63 ..	17,000	15,540
1963-64 ..	26,000	21,346
1964-65 ..	30,000	31,514

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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

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ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

Functions.

people in hygienic methods of animal management and for propaganda purposes participates in cattle and poultry fairs and shows held from time to time at various places in the State.

Activities concerning animal husbandry in Dhulia 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 ten veterinary dispensaries and 30 aid centres has been established throughout the district. The work of treating and vaccinating animals and poultry birds against various diseases is carried out by the veterinary officers and stockmen attached to these veterinary institutions. In 1963-64, 75,910 animals were treated for contagious and non-contagious diseases and 6,354 castrations were performed. Of the 221 out-breaks reported, 216 were attended and 329,974 vaccinations were carried out against various contagious diseases.

Artificial insemination is a new technique for improving live-stock in the quickest possible time. There is an artificial insemination centre at Dhulia and two sub-centres have been established at Shahada and Sakri. In 1963-64, 222 inseminations were performed in the district.

There is one Government Poultry Farm at Dhulia. The foreign improved exotic types of birds, *viz.* White Leghorn and Rhode Island Red, are maintained at this farm. These breeds of poultry are famous for better egg-yield. Interested poultry keepers are supplied good quality, hatching eggs and improved birds.

Introduction of various cattle development schemes such as premium bull scheme, supplementary cattle breeding centres, key village centres and artificial insemination, has brought improvement in local, non-descript cattle with regards to its milch qualities. 32 *Dangi* bulls and 80 *Dangi* cows were given to Adivasis of Akrani mahal for improvement of cattle in the hilly tract. There are three supplementary Cattle Breeding Centres functioning in the district.

FORESTS DEPARTMENT

FORESTS. Organisation.

Forest department is headed by Chief Conservator of Forests with his headquarters at Poona. For administrative purposes, the State is divided into seven circles as shown below :—

Name of the Circle		Headquarters
Nasik Circle	..	Nasik.
Poona Circle	..	Poona.
Nagpur Circle	..	Nagpur.
Aurangabad Circle	..	Aurangabad.
Amravati Circle	..	Amravati.
Chanda Circle	..	Nagpur.
Thana Circle	..	Thana.

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Organisation.

At the headquarters of each circle is the Conservator of Forests who has under him Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to look after the administration and management of Divisions and Sub-Divisions respectively. The divisions are divided into sub-divisions which are further divided into Ranges, each placed in charge of Range Forest Officer. Ranges are further sub-divided into Rounds and Rounds into Beats managed by Round Officers and Beat Guards respectively.

Dhulia district comprises two forest divisions, *viz.* (1) North Dhulia Division and (2) West Dhulia Division, which fall within the territorial jurisdiction of Nasik Circle.

Area under Forests.

The total extent of reserved and private forests in the district is as under—

Type		Area
Reserved Forests	..	3,618·66 Km² (1,397·16 Sq. miles).
Private Forests	..	794·76 Km² (306·86 Sq. miles).

The Revenue department has an area of 318·77 Km² (123·08 Sq. miles) of reserved forests under its charge.

Working Plans.

A working plan is a document which lays down the details of scientific management of forests for a prescribed period. Before the working plan of the area is drawn up, a detailed survey of the growing stock is conducted. On the basis of the data collected, plans are drawn up for felling, regeneration, silvicultural treatment and protection of forests with provision for due exercise of rights and privileges of people including grazing of cattle. The working plans which are in force are as under :—

Serial No.	Name of the working Plan	Period	Area covered (by Talukas)
1	Working Plan for the Satpuda forests ..	1952-64	Shirpur and Shahada
2	Working Plan for the Taloda Reserves ..	1952-77	Taloda
3	Interim working scheme for Akrani Mahal forests	1958-67	Akrani
4	Working Plan for all forests of West Dhulia Division	1965-84	Dhulia, Sakri, Nawapur and Nandurbar.

Regeneration and Maintenance.

The areas coming under exploitation every year are indicated in the working plan. Such areas after exploitation are either regenerated artificially or naturally depending on the prescription of the working plan. Great care, however, is necessary to prevent damage and injury to the crop through the agency of man, animal, insects, pests and adverse climatic and biotic influences. They are to be guarded against damage from fires, thefts, encroachments on forest lands, misuse of rights and privileges etc. For productive functions the department envisages management of forests in such a manner so as to provide for certain needs indispensable to the people and a variety of products of commercial importance.

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System of Management.

The area under the management of the Forest department in the district is worked under various silvicultural systems prescribed in the working plans. The forests of this tract are of the formation, tropical dry deciduous forests. Various sub-types of forests, which are chiefly due to climatic and edaphic variations, are met with in the formation. The broad description of the forests met with in the district is given in Chapter I.

Exploitation.

The forest areas are exploited mainly through the agency of Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies. The major forest produce obtained from the exploitation of forests in the district is mainly consumed locally. A part of the produce *e.g.*, timber, *rosha* oil, kadhai gum, etc., is exported to Bombay and Gujarat State. There are in all 45 Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies in the district and 96 coupes were worked in the year 1963-64. The major forest produce is timber and firewood.

The total income from major forest produce in both the forest divisions of the district in the year 1964-65 was Rs. 16,49,414 from timber and Rs. 554,450 from firewood. The income from the minor forest produce in the same year was Rs. 301,397.

The net revenue and expenditure of both the divisions for three years from 1962-63 to 1964-65 is given below :—

Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Surplus
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	23,13,725	12,62,129	10,51,496
1963-64	21,10,847	14,02,782	7,08,065
1964-65	19,81,703	16,28,430	3,52,273

Forest Settlements

With a view to facilitate procurement of labour for various forest works such as raising of plantation, marking and felling of coupes, construction of roads the department has established 79 settlements comprising an area of 25,210 acres. The inhabitants of these settlements are given land for cultivation and are also granted *tagai* advances for purchase of seeds, bullocks, etc. These inhabitants are also employed on various forestry operations.

Forest Roads.

The total length of forest roads in the district is 423·85 km. (263·3 miles).

Relations with the Public.

Under the provisions of Bombay Forest Manual III, people are granted rights and privileges to graze cattle in open forests, to remove small timber of miscellaneous species and firewood from the balance material of felled coupes for domestic use, to remove fallen leaves and dead material for burning *rab* and right of way to temples, water springs, etc. These privileges have also been extended to 71 non-forest villages of Akrani mahal and 14 non-forest villages of Shirpur taluka.

Vana-Mahotsava.

To promote a healthy attitude in the public for creation and protection of trees and forests, *Vana-Mahotsava* is annually

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organised by the department with the national tree planting programme. *Vana-Mahotsava* is usually celebrated at the onset of the monsoon and seedlings of useful tree species are supplied free of cost by the Forest department to various Government departments and institutions, schools and colleges.

Wild Life Preservation.

One of the important aspects of the forest management is Wild Life Preservation. The preservation and management of wild life in the State is made under the Bombay Wild Animals and Wild Birds Protection Act, 1951, and the rules made thereunder. Every year Wild Life Week is observed throughout the district by holding meetings and giving lectures to the villagers impressing upon them the necessity and importance of Wild Life Preservation.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRIES.

Organisation.

The work of the Directorate of Industries is mainly confined to the development and progress of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in the State. The Directorate of Industries, which in the early years worked in an advisory capacity is now having a more positive role in the matter of industrialisation. Consequently, the work has progressively become both extensive in scope and diverse in function.

Structure.

The Industries Commissioner, Bombay heads the Directorate of Industries. He is also the Central Stores Purchasing Officer and the Controller of Weights and Measures. The Deputy Director of Industries, Bombay Region, who is the Regional Head works directly under the Industries Commissioner. The Collectors of the districts have been declared as the *ex-officio* Deputy Commissioners of Industries and the Industries Officer of the district is attached to the collectorate. The Regional heads 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. The Industries Officer, Dhulia is assisted in his work by three Junior Industries Inspectors stationed at Dhulia, Dondaicha and Nandurbar.

Functions.

The main functions of the Directorate of Industries pertain to Large-scale Industries, Small-scale Industries and Cottage Industries. They are as under :—

(*a*) *Large-scale Industries.*—(*i*) to process applications for industrial licences under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, as amended and to make suitable recommendations to Government of India,

(*ii*) to advise parties on formalities and technical matters,

(*iii*) to assist parties in securing land, water, power, transport facilities, etc.,

(*iv*) to offer laboratory facilities for analysis of raw materials, finished products, etc., and

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Functions.

(*v*) to promote industrial research by means of research grants;

(*b*) *Small-scale Industries.*—(*i*) to assist parties in securing land, water, power and transport facilities, etc.,

(*ii*) to develop suitable sites in the industrial estates so as to offer to the small entrepreneurs ready-built work sheds with power and water arrangements and with community facilities like post office, canteens, etc. on co-operative basis in suitable cases,

(*iii*) to grant financial assistance by way of loans under the State-Aid to Industries Rules and subsidy on power supply and to sponsor grant of such assistance by institutions like State Bank of India, Maharashtra State Financial Corporation, the National Small Industries Corporation and Maharashtra State Small Industries Development Corporation for hire purchase of machinery,

(*iv*) to assist parties in securing imported raw materials and controlled indigenous materials,

(*v*) to assist parties in marketing products by registration with Central Stores Purchase Organisation, Director General of Supplies and Disposals, National Small Industries Corporation and by persuading them to join the Quality Marketing Scheme,

(*vi*) to collect quarterly statistics of production and labour, and

(*vii*) to advice parties on formalities and technical matters;

(*c*) *Cottage Industries.*—(*i*) to grant financial assistance exceeding Rs. 3,000 and upto Rs. 5,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961 to artisans and for formation of their industrial co-operatives, and

(*ii*) to encourage the industries by marginal preferences in State Purchase Programme.

The Directorate also performs certain miscellaneous functions such as (i) central purchase of stores required by Government departments and institutions and (ii) enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958. The Industries Officer of the district acts as the Inspector of Weights and Measures and as such pays surprise visits for ensuring the implementation of the Act.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad from 1st May 1962, the following functions of the Directorate have been transferred to that organisation :—

(*i*) to grant financial assistance upto Rs. 3,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961 and under *Bona fide* Craftsmen and Backward Class Artisans and Educated un-employed Schemes, and

(*ii*) to organise training-*cum*-production centres.

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INDUSTRIES.

Industries Inspectors.

The duties assigned to the former Inspectors of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Rules are now carried out by the Industries Inspectors. The main purpose of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act is to provide for the adoption and compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weights or measures or weighing or measuring instruments may be sold, or delivered or used for trade, unless they have been verified or re-verified in the manner prescribed by the rules made under the said Act and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. It is the duty of the Inspectors to carry out verification and stamping and to collect the fees.

Weights and Measures Acts.

The Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, has established the standard weights and measures based on metric system in India. The then Government of Bombay, enacted the complementary legislation, viz. the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 for the enforcement of the standard weights and measures based on metric system in the State and framed necessary rules thereunder.

Collection of Statistics.

The Industries Inspectors have to carry out duties in connection with the collection of statistics from scheduled industries coming under the First Schedule of Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, employing 10-49 workers. The Government of India have delegated the powers for collecting quarterly production statistics from such units under the Industrial Undertakings (Collection of Information and Statistics) Rules, 1959. The units are required to furnish quarterly statistical returns in the prescribed proforma. 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 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 correct picture of various small-scale industries in the State.

CO-OPERATION DEPARTMENT

CO-OPERATION.

An agro-industrial economy like that of India with her emphasis on socio-economic change has a vast scope for the organisation and development of co-operative activity. The lead in this behalf is provided by the Co-operative department of the Government. The activities of the Co-operative department extend to the fields of rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operatives and money-lending business in the district. All these activities are governed under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961.

Organisation.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad, Co-operation has come under the dual control of the Zilla Parishad and the State Government. The Co-operative department of the Zilla Parishad is

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Organisation.

responsible for the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc. of all types of co-operatives in rural areas, having authorised share capital upto Rs. 50,000 or working capital upto Rs. 5 lakhs. It has also to control and supervise all regulated markets. All other schemes are looked after by the department in the State sector.

The department at the State level is headed by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. At the divisional level is the Divisional Joint Registrar who is generally assisted by a Divisional Deputy Registrar and three Divisional Assistant Registrars. The Divisional Special Auditor is in charge of the audit section.

In the State Sector, Dhulia district is placed in charge of the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Dhulia, a class I officer of the Maharashtra Co-operative Service. He is assisted by two Assistant Registrars whose jurisdictions extend over areas specified by the District Deputy Registrar after taking into account the actual work load. Under the Assistant Registrars are the Co-operative Officers, Assistant Co-operative Officers, Supervisors and other ministerial staff who assist in the execution of field duties. The Assistant Registrars enjoy all the powers under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, except those under Sections 64 and 64-A of the former Act of 1925 which has been replaced by the Act of 1961. They also act as Assistant Registrars of Money Lenders within their respective jurisdictions.

The field staff consists of six Co-operative Officers, four Assistant Co-operative Officers and two Industrial Supervisors who are mainly responsible for organisation of co-operative societies, development of the co-operative movement and supervision over all types of co-operative societies in rural and semi-rural areas.

The co-ordination of the departmental activities at the district level is done by the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, who ensures the internal co-ordination of the field responsibilities performed by the Assistant Registrars and field staff.

The supervisory staff serves as the last link in the administrative machinery. Their main responsibility is confined to detailed supervision over the working of all agricultural credit, *sewa* and multi-purpose societies. They are expected to inspect every society under their charge at least once in three months. There are, at present, 24 Supervisors working in the district. They are under the control and direction of the District Supervising Committee.

District Supervising Committee.

The District Supervising Committee is an *ad hoc* body which has taken up the task of appointment and allotment of work to the supervising unions. It works as a link between the taluka (Block) supervising unions and the State Board of Supervision. The Committee recommends disciplinary action, whenever necessary, against the Supervisors and also takes periodical reviews on the working of the supervising unions and the Supervisors.

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District Co-operative Board.

Education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the spread of the co-operative movement are carried out by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union. The membership of the Board is of two classes, *viz.*, ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district, and associate consisting of individuals. A nominee of the financing agency (The Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Dhulia), the District Deputy Registrar and the Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are *ex-officio* members of the Board.

Audit.

Section 81 of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, provides for statutory audit of every society at least once in a year by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies or by persons authorised by him. The audit staff in the district works under the control of the Divisional Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies, Bombay Division.

The work of organisation of industrial co-operatives has, since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, been transferred to it and the Block Development Officers and the Extension Officers look after this work. The services of Industrial Supervisors and Stamping Inspectors are also placed at their disposal.

Money-lending.

The salient features of the Bombay Money-lenders Act (XXXI of 1946) are licensing of money-lenders, maintenance of accounts by money-lenders in prescribed forms and restrictions on rates of interest.

The Divisional Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay works as the Divisional Registrar of Money-lenders. The two Assistant Registrars of Co-operative Societies in the district work as Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders in their respective jurisdictions while the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies works as Registrar of Money-lenders in the district and issues licences to the money-lenders and is responsible for the administration of the Bombay Money-lenders Act. The Co-operative Officers have to work in dual capacity both as Co-operative Officers and Inspectors of Money-lenders.

Accomplishments.

The co-operative movement in Dhulia district is developed more or less on progressive lines. The Maharashtra State Co-operative Union which is recognised as the sole agency for imparting co-operative training to officials and non-officials throughout the State has established Regional Co-operative Schools at Poona, Jalgaon, Kolhapur, Nasik and Ahmadnagar. They impart training in co-operation to the employees of the Co-operative department and institutions, supervisors, bank inspectors and secretaries of multi-purpose and taluka purchase and sale unions.

Supervising Unions.

The supervising union is formed for every taluka by the societies registered in the area. All agricultural credit societies and other societies are eligible for membership of these unions. The main functions of the supervising unions are (i) to advise, guide, assist,

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Supervising Unions.

rectify and control the constituent societies by efficient and regular supervision and (ii) to provide means of assessing the credit of each of the constituent societies and to make recommendations in this behalf to the financing agency. The supervisors of the area act as secretaries of the unions. There are 10 such unions in the district with 901 agricultural credit, *seva* and multipurpose societies affiliated to them.

Co-operative Banks.

Banking and credit facilities to co-operatives in Dhulia district are provided mainly by the Dhulia District Central Co-operative Bank and Dhulia District Co-operative Land Development Bank. The District Central Co-operative Bank is the central financing agency of the district for all types of societies in respect of their short and medium term requirements. The Government have contributed Rs. 20 lakhs towards its share capital. In order to make co-operative credit cheap to the ultimate borrowers and to develop banking practices in rural areas, the bank has opened 32 branches in the district. The District Co-operative Land Development Bank makes long-term credit available to the agriculturists towards land improvement of permanent nature.

Dhulia District Co-operative Milk Union.

Another feature of the district in co-operative sector is the Dhulia District Co-operative Milk Union. The Union which was registered in 1959 had started with 11 primary feeder societies and 45 individuals as its members. The number of primary feeder societies has increased to 135 and that of individuals to 250. Inspite of favourable geographical condition of the district for promotion of dairy industry the Union could not make appreciable progress till the establishment of the Government Milk Scheme at Dhulia in 1962. This gave an impetus to the Union for developing the dairy industry. Although the area of the operation of the Union extends over the entire district, it has concentrated on the development of dairy activity in the villages around Dhulia town. Government have also loaned over Rs. 17 lakhs to the Union to enable the feeder societies to purchase milch animals for increasing milk supply to Government Milk Scheme. This financial assistance met with good response from the Union as the daily milk supply had increased to 10,000 litres in 1964-65. The organised dairy industry has provided a good subsidiary occupation to the agricultural community of the district.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

STATE TRANSPORT.

Historical Background.

Nationalisation of passenger transport was decided upon by the State Government in August 1947 and initially, the services were started departmentally in June 1948. The administration was subsequently handed over to a statutory corporation in December 1949 under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act (XXXII of 1948). Since then the corporation has been reconstituted under the Road Transport Act LXIV of 1950.

Organisation.

For administrative convenience of operating the services, the erstwhile Bombay State was originally divided into 16 viable units

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Organisation.

called divisions. After the States reorganisation in 1956, three units were transferred to Mysore State. With the bifurcation of the bilingual Bombay State on 1st May 1960, five northern divisions were transferred to the Gujarat State thus leaving eight divisions in Maharashtra. With the merger of Public Transport Services, Nagpur in the Vidarbha region and the State Transport Services in Marathwada region from 1st July 1961, two new divisions were created. Simultaneously, the name of the corporation was changed from "Bombay State Road Transport Corporation" to "Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation".

The officer in charge of each division is called the Divisional Controller who is a class I officer. He is immediately under the control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head. The General Manager is assisted by the following departments and branches, viz. (i) Administration, (ii) Accounts and Audit (iii) Traffic, (iv) Mechanical Engineering, (v) Statistics, (vi) Organisation and Methods, (vii) Security, (viii) Stores, (ix) Civil Engineering, (x) Secretarial, (xi) Legal and (xii) Central Workshops.

Nationalisation of services in Dhulia district, which forms part of Khandesh Division, was started in March 1952. The Divisional Controller is the head of the division and is responsible for the operations. He is assisted by 8 class II officers, who are charged with the following functional responsibilities.

Administration and Traffic.—There are two officers under these heads of activity. The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters relating to traffic and operations and the Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration. Matters pertaining to publicity 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 with the assistance of the Divisional Works Superintendent. 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 Dhulia district were started on 9 routes with 17 vehicles. The first depot at Dhulia was started in March 1952 with 11 vehicles. The process of expansion was very rapid and within a few years the operations were practically spread over the whole district. By 31st May 1964 there were in all five depots in the district situated at Dhulia, Sakri, Nandurbar, Shahada and Shirpur. The Khandesh Division[1] of which Dhulia district forms a part, had 295 buses plying on 325 routes. The buses put on the

[1] With formation of a separate division for Jalgaon District, Khandesh, Division is renamed as Dhulia Division.

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Organisation.

road have, on an average, a seating capacity of 44·5, exclusive of the seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily mileage covered by these buses during May 1964 was 37,833, carrying, on an average 118,275 passengers per day.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the Divisional Workshop which is situated at Dhulia. Further, after the operation of every 12,000 miles the vehicles are routed by depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, a number of depot workshops are situated at each of the following places in the district, *viz.* Dhulia (42), Sakri (14), Nandurbar (19), Shahada (28) and Shirpur (21)*. Regular, daily and weekly servicing, weekly and 4,000 miles docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

For the convenience of the travelling public the Corporation has been providing a number of amenities in the district. Bus stations have been constructed at Dhulia, Sakri, Navapur, Nardhana, Shahada, Nandurbar, Shirpur, Dondaicha, Sindkheda and Nizampur. In addition pick-up stands have been provided at Ranala, Vikhran, Dusane, Malpur, Indore, Korti, Ner, Akalpada, Prakasha, Shanimandal and Chhadvel. Besides these, refreshment rooms have been provided at 8 places, tea-stalls at 7 places and book-stalls at 3 places.

The Corporation also provides welfare facilities to its employees. A labour welfare centre which provides indoor games and recreational facilities is functioning at Dhulia. Welfare facilities for workers' families are also provided at this centre, such as sewing classes, cooking classes and montessori classes, etc. In addition to this, medical dispensaries for the workers and their families are provided at Dhulia, Shirpur and Shahada.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

FISHERIES.

Departmental Activities.

Although the district is traversed by nearly 770 kilometres of fluvial matter, the riverine fishery is poor since the majority of the catch comprises mainly catfishes, murrels and minor varieties of carps. In some of the streams connecting the Tapi river, good catches of *Tor tor*, the *Mahaseer* of India which is locally known as *vadis* are reported. From sandy beds loaches are also collected by Bhil women for sale to the public. The district is not richly endowed with impounded water resources and as such no separate officer has been provided within the district for undertaking the fisheries developmental activities. At present, the Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries, Nasik looks after the developmental activities of the district.

With a view to undertaking pisciculture in the district, the water resources are surveyed to determine the suitability for stocking with quick growing varieties of fish such as *Labeo rohit*, *Catla catla* and *Cirhina mrigala*. There has been considerable increase in the

*The number of vehicles attached to each of these depots as on 31st May 1964 is given in brackets.

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FISHERIES.

Departmental Activities.

stocking intensity in recent years in relation to the potentiality of water resources available in the district. Progressive efforts are made to bring as much waterspread under pisciculture as possible.

Fishermen in the district are organised to form co-operative societies. There are four co-operative societies with a total membership of 215 and share capital of Rs. 4,000. Societies are given financial assistance in the form of loan and subsidy for fishery requisites and stocking of tanks with carp-fry. They are also helped to secure tanks and ponds for purpose of pisciculture and leases of fishing rights are given on the basis of average of past three years thus avoiding unhealthy competition by private contractors.

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 degrees. The progress of these institutions could be marked in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitution from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which had gone on widening with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities, Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950), 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 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 26th January, 1960), for women, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes who more or less represented Harijans and Tribes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have gradually been conferred on the local bodies culminating in the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, for the administration of the areas under their charge. This has resulted in the participation of the people in the local Government creating facilities for training to shoulder higher responsibilities.

The Divisional Commissioner exercises control and authority over all institutions of Local Self-Government in the jurisdiction. The jurisdiction of the Commissioner, Bombay Division extends over Dhulia district. He exercises control and authority under the Bombay Village Sanitation Act (I of 1889); the Bombay District Vaccination Act (I of 1892); the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901); the Bombay Town Planning Act of 1954; the Bombay Local Fund

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Audit Act (XXV of 1930); the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933) and the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

The total area under the administration of municipalities in the district in 1961 was 136·80 km² (52·82 sq. miles) with a population of 204,351 according to the 1961 census. There are six municipalities in the district at Dhulia, Nandurbar, Dondaicha, Shahada, Shirpur and Taloda. Of these Dhulia and Nandurbar are borough municipalities and the rest are district municipalities. The following statement gives the area and population of the municipalities in the district along with the number of councillors, reserved seats, etc.

Municipality	Population 1961 Census	Area in km 2	Number of Wards	Number of Councillors			
				Total	General	Reserved	Nominated
Dhulia	98,893	26.75 (10.33)	12	45	35	10	....
Nandurbar	41,055	35.51 (13.71)	8	27	20	7	....
Dondaicha	15,578	24.06 (9.29)	5	17	13	4	....
Shahada	13,338	12.87 (4.97)	7	21	16	5	....
Shirpur	20,846	14.84 (5.73)	8	25	19	6	....
Taloda	14,641	22.77 (8.79)	7	20	13	7	....

*Figures in brackets denote area in sq. miles.

The borough municipalities of Dhulia and Nandurbar are governed under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925). The other municipalities in the district are all governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901). The State Government has power to declare by notification any local area to be a "Municipal district" and also to alter the limits of any existing municipal district. The term of office of a municipality is for four years, but it could be extended to an aggregate of five years by an order of the Commissioner. Under the Act, every municipality has to be presided over by a President selected from among the councillors. Each municipality will have a Vice President elected by the councillors from amongst themselves.

The government of a municipal district vests in the municipality. The President as the head of the municipality has to—

(*a*) preside over the meetings of the municipality,

(*b*) watch over the financial and executive functions as may be performed by the municipality, and

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

There is provision for the compulsory constitution of a managing committee in case of all municipalities and of a pilgrim committee in the case of those municipalities which have been specially notified by the State Government. Constitution of other executive or consultative committees is optional. The Act stipulates obligatory

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and optional duties, the municipality has to perform. The former include all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter cover those which, despite being legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential.

Municipalities may, at their discretion, provide out of their funds for the following among other works :—

(*a*) reclaiming unhealthy localities, laying out whether in areas previously built upon or not, new public streets, and acquiring land for the purpose;

(*b*) constructing, establishing and maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, lunatic asylums, public halls, *dharmashalas*, rest houses, homes for the disabled and destitute persons and other public buildings,

(*c*) extending educational activities besides establishment and maintenance of primary schools;

(*d*) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on of the offensive trades;

(*e*) maintaining a farm or a factory for the disposal of sewage;

(*f*) constructing sanitary dwellings for the poorer classes; and

(*g*) undertaking any measure likely to promote the public safety, health, convenience or education.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items :—

(*i*) a rate on buildings and lands;

(*ii*) a tax on all or any vehicles, boats or animals used for riding, draught or burden;

(*iii*) a toll on vehicles (other than motor vehicles or trailers) and animals used as aforesaid;

(*iv*) an octroi on animals and goods;

(*v*) a tax on dogs;

(*vi*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds, cleansed by the municipal agency;

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction and maintenance of public latrines, and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(*viii*) a general water-rate or a special water-rate or both;

(*ix*) a lighting tax;

(*x*) a tax on pilgrims;

(*xi*) a special educational tax; and

(*xii*) any other tax authorised by the State Government.

Instead of (*i*), (*vii*), (*viii*) and (*ix*), a consolidated tax assessed as a rate on buildings or lands may be imposed.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, who has been given powers, to subject the levy to such modifications as not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions as to application of a part or whole of the proceeds of the tax to any purpose.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence or obnoxious to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner, for the execution of any work or the performance of any duties which the municipality is under obligation to execute or perform but which it has failed to execute or perform.

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 the municipalities in the district is exercised by the Collector, Dhulia district, the Commissioner, Bombay Division and the State Government.* The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immovable property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for extracts from the proceedings of a meeting of the municipality or for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or any action on its part. These powers are delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or Deputy Collectors in charge of prants.

The Commissioner has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit, pending orders of the State Government the execution of any of its order or resolution, if in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Commissioner may provide for the execution of works, or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or do or the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Commissioner is also 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. On the recommendation of a municipality, he can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties.

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government may

*Since the passing of Maharashtra Municipalities Act, 1965, the powers are now exercised by the Director of Municipal Administration.

direct the Commissioner to fix a period for performance of that duty, and if that duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some other person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The president or vice-president of a municipality may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for neglect or incapacity in regard to the performance of their duties.

The audit of all local fund accounts is provided for under the Bombay Local Funds Act (XXV of 1930). The Commissioner, on receipt of report of the Chief Auditor, Local Fund Accounts, Bombay may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made either to the District Court or to the State Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Historical Background

The establishment of the Zilla Parishad could be regarded as the culmination point in the achievement of the goal of Local Self-Government. Prior to that, local autonomy was enjoyed in different degrees at the district, taluka and village levels. The local self-governing units were provided by the District Local Board and the village panchayats. These institutions made remarkable progress since the achievement of independence by India.

With the advent of independence, the principle of planning economic development was adopted and community projects and national extension service schemes were introduced to realise that objective. However, the experience gained indicated that the progress of rural development was not commensurate with the expectations of the Government and it was attributed to the non-participation of the rural folk in the implementation of such developmental schemes. The Central Government came to the conclusion that it was necessary for the Government to investigate the causes behind such state of affairs. It, therefore, appointed a committee called the Balwantrai Mehta Committee.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee undertook the study of the situation by visiting the developmental activities, by interviewing Government officials and social workers. The committee pointed out mainly, among other findings, that the Government could not succeed in appealing and attracting the leadership of the masses to participate in the community and national development schemes. Institutions of the type of local self-government had not taken any keen interest to participate in such developmental schemes. The part played by the village panchayats in such works was not very encouraging. The committee came to the conclusion that the urgent necessity of the day, to remedy this state of affairs, was the decentralisation of power and responsibility at the lower level. The committee,

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therefore, suggested that the responsibility for such regional and local development work should be assigned to such local institutions at the district level with the Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finances and so on.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee recommended the formation of local committees on par with the Block Development Committees to be named as Panchayat Samitis and at the district level a District Committee to be called Zilla Parishad instead of the earlier local self-government institutions in order to secure integration in the various developmental activities.

Thus, an act, to provide for the establishment of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis, to assign to them local government functions, to entrust the execution of certain works and development schemes and to provide for the decentralisation of powers and functions under certain enactments was passed in 1961, known as the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

The Dhulia Zilla Parishad started functioning on 1st March 1962. The Zilla Parishad consists of 51 elected councillors, two women councillors co-opted by the elected members of the Parishad and five chairmen of five co-operative societies in the district nominated by the Government. These associate councillors have no voting rights. The term of the office of the councillors is generally five years.

The Zilla Parishad has to make reasonable provision within the district in respect of all or any of the activities (subjects enumerated in the first schedule as amended from time to time under sub-section 2 under the Act), and has to maintain works or development schemes in the district. The Zilla Parishad has to undertake any other work or measure that would promote health, safety, education, convenience or social, economic or cultural well-being of the inhabitants of the district and also preparation of annual long-term plans in respect thereof. The following account briefly describes the organisation, powers and functions of the Zilla Parishad—

Organisation.

(1) the Zilla Parishad has to carry out the directions given or orders issued from time to time by the State Government and has to provide adequate funds for purposes or measures to be undertaken towards the amelioration of the conditions of the scheduled castes, the scheduled tribes and any socially and educationally backward classes, and in the removal of untouchability;

(2) the Zilla Parishad is authorised to incur any expenditure outside the district on any matter in relation to any of the purposes of this Act, such matters being of interest to the residents of the district;

(3) the Zilla Parishad has to make adequate arrangements and provisions for payment to its councillors, members of *Panchayat Samitis*, members of the subjects and standing committees and

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Organisation.

any other committees, all expenses incurred on travelling for the purpose of the business of the Zilla Parishad or as the case may be, of the Panchayat Samitis in accordance with the rules made by the State Government in this behalf;

(4) the Zilla Parishad may contribute to any fund sponsored by Government to meet any calamity affecting the public in any part of the country;

(5) subject to the provisions of this Act, the Zilla Parishad may exercise general supervision and control over the work of the Chief Executive Officer;

(6) the Zilla Parishad may compromise (*vide* section 105) in respect of any suit instituted by or against it or in respect of any claim or demand arising out of any contract entered into by or on behalf of it under this Act for such sum of money or other compensation as it shall deem sufficient;

(7) the Zilla Parishad may pay compensation out of District Fund to any person sustaining any damage by reason of the exercise, in good faith, of any of the powers vested in it, in its committees or in *Panchayat Samitis* or in the presiding authorities, officers and servants by or under this Act.

Duties during famine etc.—Where the State Government, during any year, has declared any area as famine stricken or an area of acute scarcity, and has granted suspension or remission of land revenue, according to the scale prescribed by the State Government in this behalf, under the relevant code or where distress is caused by floods or other natural calamities in any area, it shall be the duty of the Zilla Parishad having jurisdiction over the area, if so directed by the State Government, to undertake relief operations in such area either by the grant of gratuitous relief in the form of doles of money or through expenditure on such public works or such preventive or remedial measures as may be specified by the State Government in the direction (*vide* rule 107 of the Act).

The powers and functions of the non-official functionaries of the Zilla Parishad are detailed below :—

President.

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*.

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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 expenses of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the District Fund:

Provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this Section, and the full reasons thereof to the Zilla Parishad, the Standing Committee and the appropriate Subjects Committee at their next meetings and the Zilla Parishad, or the Committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

The President of the Zilla Parishad receives an honorarium of Rs. 500 per month with rent-free residential accommodation.

Vice-President.

The Vice-President shall—

(*a*) in the absence of the President, preside at the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(*b*) exercise such of the powers, and perform such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(*c*) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

The Vice-President who is the Chairman of two Subjects Committees gets consolidated honorarium of Rs. 300 per month along with rent-free residential accommodation.

Chairman of Standing Committee.

Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules made thereunder by the State Government, the Chairman of the Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee shall—

(*i*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Committee, and

(*ii*) have access to the records of the Committee.

The Chairman of any such Committee may, in relation to the 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 powers under this clause.

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Chairman of Standing Committee.

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, alongwith rent-free residential accommodation.

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. The Chief Executive Officer is of the rank of 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 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* (excluding *Panchayat Samiti*);

(*v*) shall draw and disburse money out of District Fund;

(*vi*) shall exercise supervision and control over the acts of the officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad;

(*vii*) shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any *Panchayat Samiti*);

(*viii*) any of the powers conferred or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Act, may also be exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such

*Sections 95 to 99 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

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Chief Executive Officer.

conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing. All such orders of the Chief Executive Officer shall, however, be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant subjects committees for information;

(*ix*) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of class I service and class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad; forward them to such authorities as may be prescribed by the State Government and lay down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of class III service and class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

Deputy Chief Executive Officer.

The Deputy Chief Executive Officer shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee.[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 Samiti*;[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 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 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 the officers of class II service working in his department and shall forward them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(*iii*) The head of the department, specified in this behalf, shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of such Subjects Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct.[3]

[1] Sections 9 and 79 of the Act.
[2] Section 57 of the Act.
[3] Section 80 of the Act.

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Heads of the Departments.

The Zilla Parishad has six Subjects Committees besides the Standing Committee. The Subjects Committees along with the department of the Zilla Parishad they control, are as under :—

Subjects Committee	*Department Controlled*
Standing Committee ..	General Administration Department.
Finance Committee ..	Finance Department.
Education Committee ..	Education Department.
Co-operative Committee ..	Co-operation and Industries Department.
Agriculture Committee ..	Agriculture Department.
Works Committee ..	Works Department.
Health Committee ..	Public Health Department.

In what follows is given in brief the functioning of the various departments of the Zilla Parishad.

General Administration Department.

The General Administration Department of the Zilla Parishad deals with matters such as establishment, planning, revenue, registry, *gram panchayat*, social welfare and publicity etc. The department is headed by the Deputy Chief Executive Officer who also acts as the Secretary of the Standing Committee.

Finance Department.

The Chief Accounts and Finance Officer of the Zilla Parishad is the Chief Administrative Officer of the department, who is also secretary to the Finance Committee. He is assisted by an Accounts Officer. Every Zilla Parishad has to prepare its annual budget. The Finance department is responsible for allocation of funds according to the budgetary grant and regulates the expenditure according to the rules prescribed in this behalf. The Finance department is divided into five sections, *viz.* accounts, audit, budget, inspection and stores.

The accounts of the Zilla Parishad are audited by the officer of the Local Fund Audit Department.

Education Department.

The Education department is one of the major and important departments of the Zilla Parishad. The Parishad Education Officer is the head of the Education department in the district. He acts as the Secretary of the Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad that controls the department. He is assisted in his work by two Deputy Education Officers and seven Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors.

In 1966, there were 1,447 primary schools and 94 secondary schools in the district. Besides these, there were 250 Basic Schools out of which 191 imparted education in spinning and weaving, 15 in wood work and 44 in agriculture. In addition there were eight *ashram* schools for the Scheduled Tribe pupils in the *Adivasi* areas of the district. These schools are special type of residential primary schools in which agriculture as the main craft and spinning and

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Education Department.

weaving as a subsidiary craft are taught. The pupils in these schools are paid stipends and get free medical aid and clothing. These *ashrams* are run by private institutions and get grant-in-aid to the extent of 90 per cent. of the approved recurring and non-recurring expenditure.

The district has 194 village libraries.

Co-operation and Industries Department.

The Co-operation and Industries Officer who is the Secretary of the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad heads the Co-operation and Industries department. The Co-operation and Industries Officer is assisted by one Co-operative Officer, one Assistant Co-operative Officer and other necessary staff.

The Co-operation and Industries department is entrusted with promotional and developmental activities with certain reservations in respect of municipal areas. The regulatory functions are still vested in the department in the State sector. Besides, the department in the district sector also exercises general supervision and control over the agricultural produce market committees in the district. During 1963-64, the department disbursed Rs. 16,000 as financial assistance to industrial co-operatives. Under the scheme of loans to individual artisans for small scale and cottage industries, the Zilla Parishad disbursed Rs. 41,950 to 157 individuals. In addition, Rs. 12,000 were sanctioned to 16 gold-smiths under the above scheme.

Agriculture Department.

The Parishad Agriculture Development Officer is the head of the department in the district and has to act as the Secretary to the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad which exercises control over the department. The animal husbandry activities in the district are also under the control of the Agriculture department. However, the actual control in these matters vests in the Animal Husbandry Officer of the Zilla Parishad. The Agriculture Development Officer is assisted in his wrok by the District Agricultural Officer and Campaign Officer.

The Zilla Parishad has taken up several schemes to increase the food production. The Zilla Parishad has set up one Agriculture School at Dhulia to train the farmers in agriculture and allied subjects. A farm admeasuring 100 acres is attached to the school where the trainees are given practical field work. Considerable area of the farm is under well irrigation and variety of crops are cultivated to acquaint the trainees with the cultivation.

With a view to giving incentive to agriculturists, crop competitions are held at village, taluka and district levels and prizes are awarded.

Similarly Crop Protection Campaigns are also organised to protect the crops from insects and diseases. During the year 1962-63 about 11,000 acres of area under various crops was treated by insecticides to control the attacks of pests. The department sold 245 Plant Protection appliances to the agriculturists at subsidised rates.

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Agriculture Department.

Since 1962-63, there has been tremendous demand from the cultivators for horticultural loans for growing fruit crops and in 1964-65 the department distributed Rs. 2,50,000 as loan under this scheme, covering an area of 1386 acres.

Distribution of sann-seed at subsidised rates is also one of the important activities of the department. During the last three years the department distributed 3,827 B. maunds of the sann-seed at 25 per cent. subsidy. Propaganda for preparing rural as well as urban town compost is also being made.

The Zilla Parishad also undertook distribution of fertilizers through the co-operative societies. The volume of fertilizers distributed is given below category-wise :—

Type of fertilizer		Volume distributed
Ammonium sulphate	..	18,661 tons.
Superphosphate	..	3,707 tons
Manure mixture	..	522 tons.
Other Nitrogenous fertilizers	..	1,283 tons.

Under vegetable development scheme, the department has advanced Rs. 13,300 as subsidy for *kachha* wells and 4,272 acres of land have been brought under vegetable cultivation. Under this scheme, the Sakri Taluka Co-operative Society has been sanctioned a loan of Rs. 36,000 for purchase of oil engines.

The department has also undertaken the work of contour bunding and till March, 1965, 400,098 acres of land had been bunded.

Due to strenuous efforts of the progressive cultivators, a sugarcane factory in Sakri taluka has been sanctioned, due to which area under the sugarcane crop is expected to increase to a considerable extent.

The department has started a mass training scheme in the district. Under this scheme, training classes of three days duration have been organised for farmers in 25 villages and 1100 farmers have been trained. Vocational courses of 15 days duration have been taken up at the College of Agriculture, Dhulia. Eight courses have been organised so far and 279 farmers have been trained.

Works Department.

The Works department of the Zilla Parishad is under the control of the Works Committee and is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who also acts as the Secretary to the Works Committee. The Parishad Executive Engineer is assisted in his work by the Deputy Engineer, Overseers, Sub-overseers and other necessary technical and ministerial staff.

The Works department deals with the works connected with major district roads, other district roads and village roads, the construction and maintenance of National Highways and State Highways being the responsibility of the Buildings and Communications department in the State sector.

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Works Department.

The Works department has undertaken many constructional activities in the district. In 1965, the department constructed 2 minor bridges and two submersible causeways at the cost of Rs. 4,31,038. The work on two major bridges on Amravati and Bhogawati rivers estimated to cost about Rs. 5,60,000 was in progress.

Public Health Department.

The health matters of the district which were formerly looked after by the Public Health Department and the Medical department of the State Government are with the formation of the Zilla Parishad looked after by the Public Health department of the Zilla Parishad. The department is headed by the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The main functions of the Public Health department relate to the control and eradication of epidemic diseases. There are 15 primary health centres in the district along with 5 allopathic and 27 ayurvedic dispensaries maintained by the Zilla Parishad. The department also maintains two maternity and child welfare centres which are located at Sakri and Pimpalner respectively. The Medical Officer at the primary health centre has both to attend the dispensary as also to supervise the working of the sub-centres. The responsibility for the development of maternal and child health services devolves on the health visitor or on the nurse-midwife attached to the centre.

There are 19 family planning centres in the district. These centres popularise modern ways and means of family planning and organise vasectomy and tubectomy operation camps. The family planning centres also undertake propaganda in respect of family planning.

Panchayat Samitis.

Under section 57 of the Act, a Panchayat Samiti has been provided for every block. Ten Panchayat Samitis have been established in Dhulia district with headquarters at Dhulia, Sindkheda, Shirpur, Sakri, Shahada, Nandurbar, Taloda, Nawapur, Akkalkuwa and Dhadgaon. Every Panchayat Samiti consists 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 councillors 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 the members of the village panchayats.

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Panchayat Samitis.

The term of office of the Chairman 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. The Deputy Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month.[2]

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

The last but not the least important ring in the chain of administration is provided for by the panchayats which form the basis of the Government at the district level. Under the Village Panchayats Act, 1958 (Bombay Act No. III of 1959), in every local area which has a population of not less than 500, a panchayat has to be established. It is also permissible for the State, if sufficient reasons exist, to direct the establishment of a panchayat in a local area having a poulation of 250 and above but less than 2000.

Constitution.

The maximum number of members for a panchayat is fifteen and the minimum is seven. The members are elected on the basis of adult franchise. The State Government have been empowered under the Constitution to reserve seats (in joint electorate) for the representation of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, unless Government are of the opinion that the reservation is not necessary having regard to the population in the village of such castes and tribes. The term of office of a panchayat is for four years which is extendable upto five years by the Collector if and when occasion demands such extension. Every panchayat has to elect a Sarpanch from amongst its members. The Sarpanch presides over the panchayat and is also the executive officer of the panchayat. Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the secretaries of the village panchayats have become Zilla Parishad servants and are at present designated as Assistant *Gram Sevaks*. They are full-time servants and their appointments are made on time-scale basis.

The State Government makes every year a grant to every panchayat equivalent to 30 per cent. of the ordinary land revenue realised in the preceding year within the limits of the village.

Section 45 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958 lays down that so far as the village fund at its disposal will allow and subject to the general control of the Zilla Parishad it shall be the duty of a panchayat to make reasonable provisions within the village in regard to the matters of public health, water supply, public works, agriculture, preservation of forests, education and promotion of cottage and village industries. In the sphere of land revenue every village panchayat has to undertake collection of land revenue under section 169 of the Act and has to maintain village records relating to land revenue in such manner and such forms as may be prescribed from time to time by or under any law relating to land revenue.

[1] Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.
[2] Section 69 of the Act.

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VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Constitution.

Under section 124 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, every panchayat is under obligation to levy a house tax and a tax on lands not subject to payment of agricultural assessment at such rates as may be decided by it (but subject to the minimum and maximum rates which may be fixed by the State Government) and in such manner and subject to such exemptions as may be prescribed.

Section 63 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958 prescribes the constitution of group *nyaya* panchayats for five or more villages with fairly wide judicial powers, both civil and criminal.

A District Village Panchayat Officer has been appointed to control the administration of village panchayats in Dhulia district.

Village panchayats have recently gained importance not only as administrative units but also as basic institutions for rural planning and all-round development of rural areas. Village panchayats have been made the sole non-official agency for executing development works in the Community Development Blocks with the democratic decentralization envisaged by the establishment of the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

The Maharashtra State has an independent Town Planning and Valuation department under the administrative control of the Urban Development and Public Health department. The department principally deals with two important subjects of 'Town Planning' and 'Valuation of Real property'. The duties and functions of this department are as under :—

Town Planning.

(1) Educating the municipalities regarding the advantages of town planning and preparation of development plans and town planning schemes under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954.

(2) Advising the municipalities in the selection of suitable areas for preparation of town planning schemes.

(3) Giving the required assistance to the municipalities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice as well as loan of services of technical assistants for the preparation of development plans, draft town planning schemes, etc.

(4) Performing the duties of the Town Planning Officers when so appointed by Government to scrutinise building permission cases tendering advice to the Board of Appeal and drawing up the final schemes.

(5) Issuing certificates of Tenure and Title to the owners of lands included in the town planning schemes.

(6) Advising Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation.

(7) Advising and preparing town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the Municipal Act.

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TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Town Planning.

(8) Preparing development schemes or layouts of land—

(*i*) belonging to Government, and

(*ii*) belonging to co-operative housing societies and private bodies with the sanction of Government.

(9) Tendering advice to officers concerned in respect of village planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc.

(10) Advising Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation.

(11) Preparing type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans.

(12) Scrutinising miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and to recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

Valuation.

The Director of Town Planning, is the chief expert adviser of Government on this subject and his duties under this heading include :—

(1) valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to Government and intended for the purpose of sale or lease ;

(2) valuation of Government properties for purposes of rating under the Municipal Acts ;

(3) valuation for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate or 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 (if and when received from Government) ;

(7) supplying trained technical assistants to act 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 Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act ; and

(9) undertaking valuation work on behalf of Railways and other departments of Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of State Government on payment of fees etc.

Miscellaneous.

(1) To advise various heads of departments of Government in the selection of sites required for public purpose.

(2) To see that all town planning schemes or layouts schemes sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods stipulated in the schemes.

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TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Organisation.

(3) To advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act, or rules thereunder.

The department was started in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Director of Town Planning) as its head who was later on assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Deputy Director of Town Planning), one Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government (now designated as Assistant Director of Town Planning), and two Senior Assistants (now designated as Town Planners) with the requisite staff. As the activities of this department increased, these Assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to meet the prime requisites of town and city planning. There has been tremendous increase in the activities of this department in recent years. Naturally there has been a consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of this department is at Poona with branch offices in Bombay, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Jalgaon, Kalyan, Sholapur and Satara. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as the Land Acquisition Officers and there are thus three full-time Special Land Acquisition Officers in Poona and one full-time Land Acquisition Officer in Bombay in addition to two part-time Land Acquisition Officers in Bombay and Poona.

The statutory powers regarding planning were embodied under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 which was in force so far in the State. This Act has been replaced by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. The new Act generally incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and in addition makes obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The development plan aims at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of the town and contains proposals in respect of the outlying open areas so as to guide the development on planned basis. The proposals of the development plan can be implemented by the preparation of statutory town planning schemes. In preparing town planning schemes, the planner can ignore to a great extent the existing plot boundaries. In designing this lay-out the existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plan, and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to the owners of lands ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of a scheme can be recovered from the owners benefited to the extent of 50 per cent. of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft town planning scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned, a Town Planning Officer is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or suggestions and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft scheme proposals, if found necessary.

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Most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare the development plans and it has been decided that this department should prepare the development plans on behalf of local authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly, a scheme for the preparation of development plans has been provided in the Five Year Plans and the additional staff has been sanctioned for this purpose.

There is no separate branch office of the Town Planning and Valuation Department in this district. Before creation of the Jalgaon branch office, jurisdiction of which extends over the three districts of Nasik, Dhulia and Jalgaon from October 1962, all work relating to the subjects of Town Planning and Valuation arising out of this district was being dealt with by the Bombay branch office.

Master plans, development schemes and town extension schemes for 4 towns, *viz.* Dhulia, Nandurbar, Shahada and Shirpur were prepared by the department before the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, became effective. According to this Act, it has become obligatory for every local authority as defined in the Act (*i.e.* a municipality or a corporation) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. There are six municipalities in Dhulia district *viz.*, Dhulia, Nandurbar (both borough municipalities) and Dondaicha-Varwade, Taloda, Shahada and Shirpur (district municipalities). Out of these six municipal towns, development plans in respect of Dhulia and Taloda were prepared and published as per the procedure laid down and they are at present with State Government for sanction. Development plans for Dondaicha-Varwade and Shahada municipal area as prepared by the department have been published by the respective local authorities for inviting suggestions and objections from the public and those plans are resting with the concerned municipalities for submission of final plans to Government for sanction. Work in respect of development plan of Nandurbar is in progress. Shirpur town was included in the Third Five-Year Plan Scheme UD2 for preparation of development plan.

Town Planning Scheme Dhulia No. I prepared and published under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and continued as per section 90 of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954 was finalised by the arbitrator. The scheme has since been finally sanctioned by State Government and brought into operation from 1st November 1964.

Several layouts in respect of Government lands covering an area of about 125 acres were prepared and necessary advice was extended to the concerned local authorities or the revenue authorities in respect of a number of layouts received from them. The acreage of lands covered by these layouts approximated to 150.

The officers of this department were from time to time appointed under section 74(2) of the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925 for fixing rateable values in respect of Government buildings situated within the borough municipal limits of Dhulia and Nandurbar.

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Organisation.

During the entire period under review this work was undertaken and completed.

Necessary advice was extended whenever required in respect of valuation of lands and buildings either for purchase or for sale by State Government. Fourteen such cases were dealt with and the total valuation involved was to the tune of Rs. 30 lakhs.

Draft awards framed under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894 by various Land Acquisition Officers were being referred to this department for expert opinion on matters relating to Valuation and 13 such cases arising out of this district were dealt with by this department during post-Independence period.

In addition to the above a number of building permission and N. A. permission cases, cases for grant of Government land, cases of approval of layouts arising out of various development plans and town planning schemes or otherwise, etc. were dealt with by offering remarks on references received from various local authorities and revenue authorities.

CHAPTER 15—EDUCATION AND CULTURE

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Education and Culture.

EARLY TIMES.

The Hindu System.

THE 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 Brahmins, 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 semi-filial 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 Rig-veda) 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 country side, 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 veranda 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.

The 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

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The Muhammedan System.

of repute. The course of study in a Muhammedan place of learning included grammar, rhetoric, logic, theology, metaphysics, literature, jurisprudence, and science. The classes of learned instructors were lately replaced by *mudrasas* 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 proportion 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 services 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.

MODERN TIMES.

In 1954-55 the Department of Education completed its hundred years of existence. The period witnessed tremendous changes in the field of education. "The number of educational institutions in the State increased from 2,875 in 1855-56 to 58,876 in 1954-55, the number of pupils, from 106,040 in 1855-56 to 4,887,314 in 1954-55, the State grant for education from Rs. 2 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 1,493·4 lakhs in 1954-55 and the total educational expenditure from about Rs. 7 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 2802·1 lakhs in 1954-55."*

"Qualitatively the traditional system of higher education which was narrow in concept and dominated exclusively by religious ideas has now been replaced by the modern system of secondary and university education, the limited scope of the indigenous elementary schools has been enlarged to include the concept of universal, compulsory and free primary education and revolutionary changes have been made in the status and education of women and the backward classes."*

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS.

The educational standards in Dhulia district are in keeping with the general education pattern in the country. This district is one of the educationally backward districts in Maharashtra State. However, the gradual increase in the number of literates from 206,084 in 1951 to 339,793 in 1961 is sufficient testimony to the fact that in the recent past conscious efforts were made by the State Government

*A Review of Education in Bombay State, 1855-1955, p. 46.

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LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS.

and some voluntary organisations for the spread of literacy and education. The percentage of literates to the total population came to 25·5 in 1961 as compared to 18·0 in 1951. However, as compared to some other districts of the State, Dhulia district had a comparatively less number of educational institutions. There were in 1961-62 the following educational institutions in the district: 66 for secondary education; 1,220 for primary education and 31 other educational institutions. The following chart shows the extent of literacy, prevailing in the district according to 1961 Census.

	Total	Males	Females
Dhulia—Urban			
(1) Literates (without educational level) ..	32,671	19,448	13,223
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	55,405	39,347	16,058
(3) Matriculation or Higher Secondary ..	6,480	5,605	875
(4) Technical diploma not equal to degree ..	113	105	8
(5) Non-technical diploma not equal to degree..	363	231	132
(6) University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.	685	603	82
(7) Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree—			
(a) Engineering	38	38	....
(b) Medicine	109	97	12
(c) Agriculture	21	21	....
(d) Veterinary and Dairying	7	7	....
(e) Technology	3	3	....
(f) Teaching	139	130	9
(g) Others	144	134	10
Dhulia—Rural			
(1) Literates (without Educational level) ..	128,840	95,397	33,443
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	112,194	93,490	18,704
(3) Matriculation and above	2,581	2,464	117

The *Gram Shikshan Mohim* launched by the State has to a very great extent helped in liquidating illiteracy among villagers in the age group of 14-50. As a result of willing co-operation of the social workers and village leaders at all levels, the *mohim* could be intensified so as to achieve rapid increase in the number of Social Education Classes and the neoliterates, which is well illustrated by the following statistics :—

Year	Social Education Classes	Neo-literates
1957-58	554	1,122
1963-64	7,798	51,882

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Administration.

Prior to the formation of the Zilla Parishad, primary and secondary education in the district was under the control of the District Educational Inspector who was a Class I Officer of Maharashtra Education Service and who was directly under the control of the

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GENERAL EDUCATION.

Administration.

Director of Education, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Educational Inspector was responsible for (i) the supervision of primary education; (ii) the administrative control of all Government primary schools, secondary schools and training colleges (institutions) under the control of the Education department; and (iii) the control and inspection of all secondary schools including English teaching schools, multi-purpose schools and training institutions of primary teachers and such special schools as were under the control of the Education department.

As regards girls' schools and institutions for women, the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Poona, performed the functions and duties in respect of (i) the inspection of girls' secondary schools and special schools in the district; and (ii) visiting girls' primary schools in the district and making suggestions for improvement.

The Educational Inspector was assisted by an inspecting staff consisting of one Deputy Educational Inspector (Maharashtra Education Service, Class II) and Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors who were directly responsible to him for the supervision and inspection of primary schools in the district. After the formation of the Zilla Parishad in May 1962, the Educational Inspector was designated as the Parishad Education Officer of the Zilla Parishad. The primary and secondary education in the district came under the dual control of the Education department of the Zilla Parishad and the Education department of the State Government. At the head of the educational set up in the district is the Parishad Education Officer who is to discharge his duties under the guidance of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by two Deputy Educational Officers, one dealing with primary education and the other assisting the Education Officer in the inspection of secondary schools.

As the district head for education, the Parishad Education Officer has powers to supervise, control and guide the work of his subordinates. He has also powers to inspect and release grants to primary and secondary schools in the district. Being the Secretary of the Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad in the new set up, he has to guide the Committee on educational matters.

The administrative control of primary training colleges, S.T.C. institutions and special institutions has now been transferred to the Deputy Director of Education, Bombay Region. All public examinations held in the district as per the directions of the State Government are organised and conducted by the Deputy Director.

There are separate inspectors, having jurisdiction over the entire 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 are directly under the control of the Director of Education. The technical institutions in the district are controlled by the Director of Technical Education, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

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GENERAL EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

In 1963-64, there were 1,353 primary schools, including 27 exclusively for girls under the control of the Zilla Parishad, Dhulia. During the same period there were in all 1,17,005 pupils learning in the schools. Out of them, 77,427 were boys and 39,578 girls.

During the same period these schools employed 4,123 teachers of whom 3,681 were men and 442 women. Of the male teachers, 3,269 were trained while the trained female teachers numbered 397.

The distribution of the schools according to medium of instruction was as under :—

1.	Marathi	..	1,301
2.	Urdu	..	29
3.	Gujarati	..	18
4.	Sindhi	.	3
5.	Hindi	..	2

These schools were housed in 1,859 buildings of which 488 were owned by the Zilla Parishad, 539 were rented and 832 were rent-free.

Of the 255 basic schools, 199 had spinning and weaving as basic craft, 41 had agriculture and 15 had wood work.

During the same year, the Zilla Parishad spent Rs. 63,30,554 on the primary schools under its jurisdiction. The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 42 per annum of which Government share was Rs. 40.

Of the 58 primary schools in Dhulia municipal area, one was a practising school for boys directly under the control of the State Government, seven were private schools for boys (1 aided and 6 unaided) and 50 schools (30 for boys and 20 for girls) were run by the Municipal School Board, Dhulia. Of these, 42 had Marathi as a medium of instruction, 13 had Urdu while the remaining three had English, Hindi and Gujarati as medium of instruction respectively. There were in all 16,586 pupils enrolled in these schools, of whom 9,292 were boys and 7,294 were girls. During the same period these schools employed 454 teachers of whom 241 were men and 213 women. Of the male teachers 213 were trained while the trained female teachers numbered 188.

The scheme of compulsory primary education was executed in the Dhulia municipal area as under :—

Category of pupils	Age-group	Total number under compulsion	Total enrolled	Percentage of enrolment
Boys ..	.. 6-11 ..	6,924	6,320	91·3
Girls ..	.. 7-11 ..	5,283	4,793	90·7

The expenditure on the primary schools in Dhulia municipal area came to Rs. 7,31,351 during the year 1963-64. The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 44·09 per annum.

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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 the high school course an examination is conducted by the Secondary School Certificate Examination 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.

In 1963-64, there were 77 secondary schools including four exclusively for girls, in the district. The total number of students attending these schools stood at 24,848 of which 4,428 were girls. Of the 921 teachers employed in these schools during that period, 618 were trained and 303 were untrained.

The following statement shows the number of schools under different managements and the number of pupils in them :—

Management.		No. of Schools.	No. of pupils.
Zilla Parishad	..	1	602
Local Authorities	..	3	2,389
Private Aided	..	69	21,698
Unaided	..	4	159
Total	..	77	24,848

These schools received maintenance grant of Rs. 9,82,496.

Economically Backward Concession Scheme.

The scheme of free-studentship to the pupils of other backward classes (i.e. economically backward) was introduced in the district in 1959-60. Since the introduction of this scheme many private agencies in the district have taken up the work of secondary education and many economically backward students have been benefited. The following figures show the gradual increase and the progress of the scheme :—

Year		No. of beneficiaries	Total Expenditure (Rs.)
1960-61	...	7,371	5,11,936·95
1961-62	...	11,319	7,69,850·96
1962-63	...	14,192	10,12,801·17
1963-64	...	14,984	10,78,497·73

Special Schools.

The number of different types of special schools was as follows :—

		No. of institutions	No. of pupils
(1) Nursery	...	2	73
(2) Commercial	...	5	72
(3) Agricultural	...	1	40
(4) Gymnasium	...	2	48
(5) Arts and Crafts	...	3	46
(6) Music and Dancing	...	1	13
(7) Oriental studies	...	3	22
(8) Reformatory	...	1	333
(9) Others	...	5	512

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Physical Education.

Special Features.

Physical education is controlled by the department at the State level. Under the National Discipline Scheme instructors are provided in some schools. In 1963-64 there were 50 troops for boys and 13 troops for girls in which 1,088 boy scouts and 153 girl guides participated. There were 22 Auxiliary Cadet Corps sections with 1,340 cadets working under qualified teachers.

Gata Sammelans of primary school teachers are held every month where current topics in education are discussed. The idea of community life is fully brought home through these *sammelans*. Sports, elocution competitions and dramas are also arranged.

The *Gram Shikshan Mohim* was introduced in the district in April 1961. The work of making illiterate adults literate is carried out through household classes run by pupils of upper standards and night classes run by teachers and social education workers. The literacy drive is maintained by providing free literature to all neo-literates through the students. Emphasis is also laid on social education. There are 10 social education centres and four *sanskar kendras* run by the Central Government.

To provide the schools with all possible amenities, the scheme of the 'School Improvement Programme' has been introduced in the district. Similarly with a view to raising the standard of education in primary schools, the scheme of *Shikshan Sahkar Yojana* was introduced in 1964-65.

College Education.

The following colleges in the district are affiliated to the Poona University for the degree courses shown against them—

(1) Shri Shivaji Vidya Prasarak Mandals' Arts, Science and Commerce College, Dhulia—B.A., B.Sc., B.Com., and M.A.

(2) Kisan Vidya Prasarak Sanstha's Arts College, Shirpur—upto B.A.

(3) Nandurbar Education Society's Arts College, Nandurbar—P. D. Arts.

Training Institutions.

There are four training institutions in the district which prepare students for S. T. C. examination. Besides there is one Pre-Primary Training College for women situated at Dhulia having two years' course for students who have passed P. S. C. examination and one year's course for S.S.C. students and also a school for painting and drawing run by S. S. V. P. Sanstha, Dhulia.

Oriental Sanskrit Pathshala.

The Sanskrit Pathshala at Dhulia imparts instructions in Sanskrit and Vedas. The institution aims at maintaining the traditional proficiency in *dharmashastra* and Sanskrit language. It provides free lodging and boarding to the students.

Samartha Vakdevata Mandir.

This institution has the collection of old manuscripts and books throwing light on the life and teachings of Ramdas Swami. It provides the research workers with the literature for research work.

Rajwade Sanshodhan Mandir.

The Rajwade Sanshodhan Mandir, Dhulia has very valuable and historical collection of manuscripts, books, monuments, etc. It provides these collections to the research workers of history.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Educational Facilities for Adiwasis.

Ashram Schools.

There are eight *ashram* schools at the following places in the district :—

	Name of Ashram School		Year of Establishment
1.	Varsus, Taluka Sakri.	..	1959-60
2.	Sonkhamb, Taluka Nawapur	..	1955-56
3.	Talawadi, Taluka Taloda	..	1958-59
4.	Kochara, Taluka Shahada	..	1959-60
5.	Holgi, Taluka Akkalkuwa	..	1955-56
6.	Survani, Akrani Mahal	..	1958-59
7.	Jamana, Taluka Akkalkuwa	..	1962-63
8.	Sangvi, Taluka Shirpur	..	1959-60

In 1963-64, these *ashram* schools received Government grant to the extent of Rs. 1,88,250 and had 728 inmates.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

District Publicity Officer.

The Directorate of Publicity, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay has a District Publicity Office, situated at Dhulia in charge of the District Publicity Officer. He gives wide publicity to the developmental activities and 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 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 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 libraries of documentary films produced or released by the Directorate. These films are loaned to the Block Development Officers, 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 various information charts, maps, models, exhibits, etc., serves as 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 the 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., at the Information Centre.

The number of villages in the district which have been provided with radio receiving sets under the contributory scheme of community listening is 276.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

Historical Background.

CONSCIOUSNESS OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL FACILITIES and consequent growth of them is a development of recent origin and could be attributed to western education which made its impact in the early decades of this century. The populace was not disease-conscious and rarely availed of medical facilities. A disease was, most of the time, ascribed to some evil influence rather than any physical disorder and the only way thought fit to propitiate the disease was by offering some sort of sacrifice. The field of the medical profession was dominated by the *vaidyas,* the *vaidus,* the *hakims* and such other persons. The *vaidyas* used to give treatment according to the ayurvedic system of medicine. Their knowledge represented a combination of what they inherited from their forefathers and the practical experience they acquired in course of their medical practice. Most of them used to diagnose the disease by *nadipariksha,* the feeling of the pulse. The *vaidyas* commanded great respect and practised mostly in the rural areas of the country. Their medicines were cheap and reliable. That the ayurvedic system of medicine prevailed throughout the ages in India is clearly evident from the fact that it was regarded as an integral part of the Indian culture. We find in Sanskrit literature voluminous treatises on the subject such as *Sushruta, Madhava Nidana, Vagbhata,* etc. The system of diagnosis by *vaidus* did not essentially differ from the ayurvedic system of medicine. However, the *vaidus* formed a class by themselves. They moved from place to place and had a good knowledge of rare herbs with rich medicinal properties. In the absence of specialised veterinary practitioners, they occasionally treated the live-stock.

The modern and up-to-date maternity facilities were conspicuous by their absence and pre-natal, post-natal and anti-natal care of the expectant mother was the sole responsibility of the elderly ladies in the joint families whose practical personal experience was of immense value for the purpose. The female nurse who acquired a sort of specialised knowledge about deliveries rendered extremely useful service.

During the last few decades, the allopathic system of medicine had made a great impact on the minds of the people. Relatively, the importance of the indigenous systems of medicine dwindled considerably. Due to the intrinsic value of the indigenous systems

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

of medicine, efforts are now made at Government level to revive them. Now-a-days, most of the practitioners in indigenous systems of medicine combine allopathy with the one followed by them. With the great strides made in the field of preventive inoculations and injections, the diseases like plague which once made life of the people miserable have been completely eradicated. With the progress made in obstetrics and gynaecology and due to the loss of faith in superstitious beliefs, consequent upon the spread of education, people have come to place more reliance upon medical care and cure.

Malaria, filaria, leprosy, tuberculosis, respiratory diseases, dysentery, diarrhoea and epidemic diseases like small-pox and cholera are noted to exist in the district. The Public Health department co-operates with the local bodies in the control of epidemic diseases through primary health centres, health assistants, sanitary inspectors and sanitary squads.

The following statement gives the number of deaths in Dhulia district due to different causes in 1961 :–

Cause	Deaths	Cause	Deaths
Cholera ..	77	Wound or Accident ..	104
Small-pox ..	49	Homicide ..	22
Fevers ..	8,935	Snake-bite ..	1
Dysentery and Diarrhoea ..	631	Wild beasts ..	42
Respiratory diseases ..	3,109	Rabies ..	13

The Public Health and Medical department has evolved various measures to check the spread of these diseases. More emphasis is now laid on preventive measures than curative measures. The schemes to check the incidence of epidemics are undertaken before the out-break of the epidemic. National Malaria Eradication Programme was started in 1950 and the entire area of the district has been covered by this scheme. The National Small-pox Eradication Scheme is also vigorously carried out.

The main epidemic diseases in Dhulia district are cholera and small-pox.

The main season of out-break of cholera is rainy season. The infection spreads along the river sides. The epidemic generally starts in the border villages of Tapi river and then spreads through the tributaries of Tapi in the district. Every year the badly affected talukas are Shirpur, Sindkheda, Shahada, Sakri, Dhulia and Nandurbar. The Public Health department carries out disinfection of water supplies and anti-cholera inoculations before the monsoon sets in. Temporary isolation hospitals for cholera patients are opened in the affected areas.

The small-pox epidemic prevails for some time in the district and is mainly fought by means of mass vaccination.

VITAL STATISTICS.

The following statement shows the number of births registered in Dhulia district during the year 1961 :–

	Males	Females	Total
Mid year estimated population for 1961 ..	6,91,908	6,69,009	13,60,917
Number of births ..	29,314	26,941	56,255
Ratio of births per 1,000 of population ..	....	....	41·3
Mean ratio of births per 1,000 during previous five years.	....	....	42·0

In Dhulia district 23,159 deaths were registered in 1961 giving the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous five years as follows :–

Male	..	19·2
Female	..	19·4
Total	..	19·4

The following statement shows the number of deaths due to certain diseases in the rural and urban areas of Dhulia district during 1961.

	Rural		Urban	
	Deaths	Ratio	Deaths	Ratio
Enteric Fevers	58	0·0	26	0·1
Measles	50	0·0	17	0·0
Malaria	860	0·8	52	0·2
Other fevers	7,967	5·4	665	2·4
Dysentery	48	0·0	29	0·1
Diarrhoea	583	0·5	85	0·3
Pneumonia	34	0·0	112	0·4
Phthisis	543	0·4	156	0·6
Whooping Cough	13	0·0	1	0·0
Other respiratory diseases ..	2,519	1·9	298	1·2
Diphtheria	3	0·0	....	....
Leprosy	49	0·0	3	0·0
Cancer	42	0·0	23	0·0
Deaths from child birth	174	....	33	....

The following statement shows the infant mortality in the district in 1961–

	Males	Females	Total
Within 24 hours	183	106	289
Above 24 hours to the end of first week ..	272	204	476
Above one week to the end of first month ..	237	168	405
Between one month and three months ..	389	371	760
Between three months and six months ..	419	292	711
Between six months and a year	767	675	1,442
Total ..	2,267	1,816	4,083

The infant mortality rate was placed at 82 per 1,000 births in rural areas and 55 per 1,000 in urban areas.

The district recorded 416 still-births in 1961 giving 7·9 as the percentage ratio to live-births.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

The public health of the district is looked after by the Public Health Department of the State and the local bodies such as the municipalities, the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis.

The head of the Public Health department at the State level is the Director of Public Health with headquarters at Poona. For public health purposes the State of Maharashtra is divided into four divisions, each division being in charge of a Deputy Director of Public Health Services. The jurisdiction of Bombay division extends over Dhulia district. The District Health Officer who is responsible for all public health matters in the district is the head of the Health department of the Zilla Parishad. Though technical control over him is exercised by the Director of Public Health, he has to work under the administrative control of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. The District Health Officer organises measures for general public sanitation and hygiene and sanitation at fairs and festivals; investigates the causes, origin and spread of diseases, both epidemic and endemic and adopts preventive measures to control diseases, like cholera, small-pox and enteric infections. He inspects and advises municipalities, panchayat samitis and other village authorities about health, sanitation, drainage and water-supply; inspects centres for child and maternity welfare, family planning and leprosy and looks to industrial and school hygiene; recommends the issue of licences for cinema theatres and other places of public amusement; inspects sites for school buildings, factories, burial grounds, village extensions, etc., and gives opinion on their suitability from the point of view of public health. He also carries out health education with the help of his subordinate staff. The District Health Officer is assisted by the necessary subordinate staff in the execution of various health schemes in the district.

Primary Health Centres.

The Medical Officers in charge of the primary health centres are responsible for rendering preventive as well as curative help to the population covered by the centre. The primary health centres in the district are located at Lamkani, Borkund, Dahiwel, Nizampur, Khandbara, Pratappur, Thalner, Ranala, Mulgi, Khapar, Mhasavad, Vadali, Nardhana, Malpur, and Dhadgaon.

Epidemic Medical Officer.

The main duty of the Epidemic Medical Officer is to control epidemics in case of their occurrence and to adopt measures for prevention of epidemics in non-epidemic times. He has also to render medical aid in rural areas.

Sanitary Inspector.

The Sanitary Inspector works under the general supervision of the Medical Officer. He assists the Medical Officer in carrying out health surveys of the villages and is responsible for the execution of the plans chalked out by the Medical Officer. He is in charge of the environmental sanitation programme. He is also responsible for collection and consolidation of vital statistics.

Family Planning.

There are in all 19 family planning centres in the district. The number of family planning centres attached to the Public Health

Centres is fifteen and the remaining four are attached to the Zilla Parishad dispensaries. A mobile vasectomy unit has also been created. The family planning programme in the district is looked after by the District Family Planning Officer and Medical Officer in charge of the Mobile Vasectomy Unit under the general supervision of the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

Family Planning.

Each Rural Family Planning Centre consists of the main centre attached to the Public Health Centre or the Zilla Parishad Dispensary and three sub-centres. Each centre is manned by one Extension Educator, two Male Field Workers, four Female Field Workers and other subordinate staff. The family planning programme consisting of survey, propaganda, registration of cases for sterilization, etc., is organised through these centres. Regular Orientation Training Camps in Family Planning are organised for the social workers and village panchayats.

Fairs.

Only three notified fairs *viz.*, Sarangkheda fair, Shirpur fair and Taloda fair are held in the district every year. The Sarangkheda fair is organised by the Sarangkheda *grampanchayat* while Shirpur and Taloda fairs are managed by the respective municipalities.

The Public Health Officer with his staff organises the sanitation at the fairs. Precautionary measures for preventing the outbreak of cholera and small-pox are also taken at the time of these fairs.

Health Propaganda.

Health propaganda is done by all the health staff by use of posters, pamphlets as also by giving lectures, arranging film shows and through group discussions on all subjects of public health such as epidemics, immunisation programme, nutrition, personal hygiene, anti-natal and post-natal care, family planinng, etc. Film shows are also arranged at the fair and exhibitions.

School Hygiene.

The medical officers in charge of public health centres and dispensaries, undertake medical examination of school children at the headquarters and sub-centre villages. Minor treatment and medical advice is given to the children. The public health centres make free distribution of vitamine tablets and UNICEF milk powder to the children.

National Malaria Eradication Scheme.

Dhulia district is an endemic area. The scheme came into operation in the district in 1950 and the entire district is now covered by the scheme. Two Malaria Officers who are in charge of the scheme are assisted by Malaria Supervisors and Malaria Inspectors and other subordinate staff. One of the main activities undertaken is indoor D. D. T. spraying throughout the district twice a year. From 1961, the organisation has switched over to spraying B. H. C. consequent upon the mosquitoes having been found to have developed increased tolerance to D. D. T. For the assessment of results, villages are surveyed and child/infant blood smears and blood smears from fever cases and passive cases are collected and examined from time to time. Surveillance operations were started

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

MEDICAL ORGANISATION.

in the district in 1961. Due to the successful implementation of the scheme, the incidence of malaria in the district has been considerably reduced.

The medical organisation of the State, as distinct from its public health organisation, is essentially a hospital organisation designed to render curative medical relief to the general populace with ancillary specialist sections providing medical relief, medical teaching, training of nurses and mid-wives, X-Ray and laboratory technicians, etc.

The Civil Hospital, Dhulia is the main Government hospital at the district headquarters. It is owned, staffed, financed and controlled by the Government. Besides there are two Mission Hospitals, one at Dhulia and the other at Chinchpada in Navapur taluka, and a number of Government aided dispensaries scattered throughout the district. The aided dispensaries are mostly owned and managed by the municipalities.

Civil Surgeon.

The Civil Surgeon, Dhulia, is the administrative head of the medical organisation in the district and is directly subordinate to the Deputy Director of Medical Services, Bombay Division, Bombay. He is in charge of the medical arrangements at the Civil Hospital. In addition, he is required to take active part in the public health matters affecting the district in collaboration with the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Prior to the implementation of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act of 1961, the supervision of taluka dispensaries, subsidised medical practitioner's centres, rural medical relief centres and public medical relief and sanction of grant-in-aid to private charitable institutions like hospitals, maternity homes, dispensaries, etc., vested in the Civil Surgeon. Such institutions and schemes with their staff and budgetary provision on their account have now been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The Civil Surgeon is, however, authorised (i) to inspect the concerned institutions periodically and (ii) to give such guidance, assistance or advice as the institutions may consider necessary. The technical control, so far as the medico-legal work in the district is concerned, vests in the Civil Surgeon.

Civil Hospital.

The Civil Hospital, Dhulia has provision for 132 beds and is well-equipped. It has an X-ray plant with screening arrangement of 100 milli ampere and has a fairly well-equipped laboratory. The Civil Hospital has a separate maternity ward and also wards for lunatic and tetanus patients and T. B. patients. The patients suffering from infectious diseases are admitted in the Isolation Hospital of Dhulia municipality. However, for emergency admissions there is a provision for two beds some distance away from the main hospital building.

The total number of indoor patients treated at the hospital in 1963 was 5,406 while that of outdoor patients was 32,169. The daily average was 143·6 and 250·8 respectively. The expenditure in 1963 on the Civil Hospital was Rs. 5,14,329.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

MEDICAL ORGANISATION.

Civil Hospital.

The Civil Hospital, Dhulia is advised by a Committee with the Civil Surgeon as its Chairman and ten other members. The functions of the Committee are to help the management of the hospital by keeping the authorities informed as to the needs of the hospital as viewed by the public for the welfare of the patients. The rules of the department provide for the nomination of a representative each of the Zilla Parishad, the municipality, the local branch of Indian Medical Association and the local branch of the Indian Red Cross Society.

The staff of the Civil Hospital, Dhulia consists of the Civil Surgeon who is a Class I Officer of the Maharashtra Medical Services and four Assistant Medical Officers who belong to Class II of the same service. Two Sister Tutors at the hospital provide training facilities to the student nurses undergoing general nursing course.

CHAPTER 17—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Department

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. The Commissioner of Labour has under him (*i*) Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, Nagpur and Poona; (*ii*) Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, Nagpur, Poona and Aurangabad; (*iii*) Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay with subordinate Inspectorates at different important centres of the State; (*iv*) Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay, with subordinate Inspectors and (*v*) Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay, with Government Labour Officers at important centres of the State. The Commissioner of Labour performs statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926; the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946; the Minimum Wages Act, 1948; the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955; and the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, which are the Central Acts and the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946; the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947; and the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 which are the State Acts.

Apart from the above, the Commissioner of Labour supervises and co-ordinates the working of all the offices under his control. In addition the office of the Commissioner of Labour has to compile and publish the consumer price index numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded; conduct socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour, compile and disseminate information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc. particularly; publish Labour Gazette and Industrial Court Reporter which are monthlies; supervise the working of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, wherever administered by the local authorities and to undertake Personnel Management Advisory Service.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

LABOUR.

Labour Unions.

One of the Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay has been notified as the Registrar of Trade Unions for the State of Maharashtra under section 3 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in addition to his duties as Deputy Commissioner of Labour.

The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes the registration of trade unions under the Act, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions, the registration of dissolution, amalgamation and cancellation of registration of trade unions under section 10(*a*) of the Act and preparation of the Annual Report on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by the registered trade unions under section 28 of the Act. In December 1964 there were 21 registered trade unions in Dhulia district. Of these, 11 unions were from 'Services' group, 5 from 'Manufacturing' group, two each from "Commerce, Electricity, Gas, Water and Sanitary Services" groups and one from 'Activities not adequately described' group.

One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay has been appointed as the Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and his jurisdiction extends over the whole State except the Marathwada and Vidarbha regions. He has one Assistant Registrar under him. The Registrar's work which is of quasi-judicial nature falls under the following heads, *viz.* (a) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (b) registration of unions: (c) maintenance of lists of approved unions; (d) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards; and (e) maintenance of a list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The following two unions were registered in Dhulia district under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 :—

Serial No.	Name of the Union	Membership	Industry	Local area
1	Rashtriya Mill Mazdoor Sangh, Dhulia ..	3,000	Cotton	Dhulia
2	Central Co-operative Bank Staff Union ..	130	Banking	Dhulia

Both the unions were entered in the approved list of unions. A joint committee constituted in the New Pratap Spinning, Weaving and Manufacturing Company Limited, Dhulia, was registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946.

There were 37 undertakings in the banking industry and one in the cotton textile industry recognised under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1948.

Minimum Wages.

The Government of Maharashtra has fixed the minimum rates of wages for different categories of workers (skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled) in the factories coming under the scheduled employments, *viz.* (i) rice mills, flour mills or dal mills; (ii) tobacco manufactory and bidi making; (iii) oil mills; (iv) employment under local authority; (v) road construction and building operation; (vi) stone-breaking and stone-crushing; (vii) public motor transport; (viii) tanneries and leather manufactory; (ix) cotton ginning or cotton pressing manufactory; (x) glass industry; (xi) rubber manufacturing industry and (xii) industry in which process of printing by letter press, lithography, photogravure or other similar works or work incidental to such process or book binding is carried on. The minimum rates of wages are published in the Government Gazette when fixed or revised.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

LABOUR.

Labour Officer.

A Government Labour Officer posted at Jalgaon has jurisdiction over Jalgaon and Dhulia districts. He is a class II Gazetted Officer and belongs to the General State Service. He works under the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Labour Officer is appointed primarily to implement the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, which is a State Act and is also notified as an Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, as also the Payment of Wages Act. In addition, he has been appointed as an Additional Inspector of Factories in respect of certain sections pertaining to welfare provisions under the Factories Act. The powers conferred and the duties imposed on a Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not restricted to any particular section under that Act, but are contained in various provisions of the Act.[1] For the purpose of exercising his powers and performing his duties a Labour Officer may enter any place used for any industry, any place used as the office of any union and any premises provided by an employer for the residence of his employees. He is entitled to call for and inspect all relevant documents which may be deemed necessary for the due discharge of his duties and powers under this Act. He is also empowered to convene meeting of the employees for any of the purposes of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, on the premises where the employees are employed and he may require the employer to affix a written notice of the meeting at such a conspicuous place as he may deem fit. A Labour Officer is charged with duties of safeguarding the interest of employees and promoting harmonious relations between the employers and the employees, of investigating grievances of employees who are not the members of the Approved Unions and of representing to the employees such grievances, of making recommendations to them in respect of the same and of reporting to the State Government the existence of any industrial dispute of which no notice of change has been given together with the names of the parties thereto. A Labour Officer, in certain contingencies, acts, as a representative of the employees if so authorised by them, and where a representative union does not exist and he is authorised also by the employees to act as their representative and where employees do not elect their representative from amongst them, then he becomes their representative *suo motu*. In short, a

[1] The powers and duties of the Labour Officer are mainly given in Chapter VI and Section 34 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

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Labour Officer.

Labour Officer has to work as a sort of residual representative of the employees. He has also to help the representative of the approved union. He has always to remain in touch with the changes in the labour situation in the undertakings in various industries covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and to report major and important incidents to his superior officers and Government. He intervenes wherever there is stoppage of work or strike and gives legal guidance and advice to the employees involved in such incidents and does likewise in respect of employers in connection with the closures and lock-outs which may not be legal. In short, he explains the correct position under the law to the parties concerned with a view to seeing that any illegal action on their part is rectified by them without any delay. A Labour Officer is probably the only executive officer envisaged under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act by virtue of powers conferred on him under section 82 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act who, except the person affected by any offence under the Act, can make a complaint to the Labour Court constituted under the Act. The Labour Court cannot take cognisance of any offence except on a report in writing from the Labour Officer of facts constituting such an offence. In addition to the above, a Labour Officer can also start proceedings in a Labour Court under section 79 read with section 78 of the said Act. In short, a Labour Officer has been assigned very heavy, onerous and heterogeneous duties and responsibilities. He also informally advises the trade unions whenever they seek his advice on labour matters. For the purposes of certification of standing orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, a Labour Officer helps the Commissioner of Labour who is the certifying officer under the Act in holding elections of the workmen concerned for the purposes of getting the names of their representatives who are to be associated with the discussion when the draft standing orders are to be certified.

The Government Labour Officer, Jalgaon, also administers in Jalgaon and Dhulia districts, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955 and the Payment of Wages Act, 1936. Besides, the Government Labour Officer, Jalgaon, is appointed as an Additional Inspector of Factories for certain provisions of the Factories Act, 1948 and an Inspector under section 48(2) of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 for exercising supervision over the administration of that Act in Dhulia Municipal Borough area. Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, he is appointed as a Conciliation Officer for investigation of and bringing about settlements in industrial disputes in both the districts under his jurisdiction. He is also appointed as an Inspector under the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961.

Industrial Arbitration.

The Court of Industrial Arbitration or the Industrial Court, Bombay, as constituted under Section 10 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, has jurisdiction over Dhulia district.[1] The Industrial Court

[1] The duties and powers of the Industrial Court are detailed in Chapter XIII of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

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LABOUR.

Industrial Arbitration.

acts as a Court of Arbitration in industrial disputes referred to it by the Government, the representative unions and jointly by parties to a dispute. In its appellate jurisdiction it decides appeals preferred to it from the decisions of the Labour Courts, Wage Boards and the Commissioner of Labour. The Government may also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lock-out, closure or stoppage would be illegal. It also hears appeals in criminal cases pertaining to offences under the Act, resulting from decisions of the Labour Courts.

Industrial disputes arising in industries not covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, are referred to Industrial Tribunals appointed under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947. The President and Members of the Industrial Court have been appointed as Industrial Tribunals under section 7-A of the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947. The Labour Courts at Bombay exercise jurisdiction over Dhulia district. These Courts are presided over by Labour Court Judges and enjoy such powers as are conferred upon them under sections 78 to 86 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Wage Boards.

There are three Wage Boards appointed for the State, one each for cotton textile industry, silk textile industry and sugar industry respectively. The Wage Boards are to decide such disputes as are referred to them by the State Government and the unions under sections 86-C and 86-CC of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. Government can also refer disputes on the recommendations from the Industrial Court under section 86-KK of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. From 1948 to 1964 the Wage Boards received nine references from Dhulia district.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 has been applied to the municipal areas of Dhulia, Nandurbar, Shirpur and Dondaicha in the district. The Act is administered by the respective municipalities through Inspectors appointed by them. The Government Labour Officer, Jalgaon, by virtue of his appointment as Inspector under section 48(2) of the said Act exercises supervision over the administration of the Act by the municipalities.

The Employees State Insurance Scheme has not been extended to the district.

Wages and Earnings.

The wage rates of workers employed in cotton textile mill at Dhulia are fixed by the Industrial Court. The Central Wage Board for cotton textile industry recommended an increase of Rs. 6 per month from January 1960 and further increase of Rs. 2 per month from January 1962. Accordingly an unskilled worker employed in the mill gets Rs. 34 per month. The dearness allowance for the cotton textile workers has been linked with the Consumer Price Index Number for Jalgaon.

Factory Department.

The Factory department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control of the technical side of the work of the

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LABOUR.

Factory Department.

department all over the State. Though the department is responsible mainly for the administration of the Factories Act (LXIII of 1948), it has to administer the Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936), the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925) (Section 9, regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories only); the Employment of Children Act, 1938; the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1829); the Minimum Wages Act (XI of 1948); and the Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act (XL of 1953).

The department has a sub-office at Dhulia in charge of a Junior Inspector of Factories. The main function of the Inspector is to ensure that the provisions of the Factories Act and the rules thereunder are observed by the managements of the factories. He also promotes activities securing labour welfare amenities such as education, recreation and sports, co-operative societies and housing. He is empowered to prosecute, conduct or defend before the competent courts cases under the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act and the Maternity Benefit Act.

Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

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 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.

The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Dhulia is the *ex-officio* Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation for Dhulia district. The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay jurisdiction all over the State is to enable him to settle 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 *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 notice and to receive applications from claimants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and

(*c*) to receive agreements for registration under section 28 whenever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8(*1*) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to the employers under section 10-A requiring statements regarding

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Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

fatal accidents in the district are issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner and reports of fatal accidents made under section 10-B are also received by him. After notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under section 10-A, the employer deposits the amount with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passes original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

Payment of Wages Act.

In Dhulia district, the Civil Judge, Senior Division, Dhulia has been appointed authority under the Payment of Wages Act, 1936.

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances.

The Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances who is responsible to the Commissioner has full control over the technical aspects of the department, *viz.*, the smooth working and the administration of the Indian Boilers Act, 1960 and the rules thereunder.

The work carried out by the department comprises mainly registration and inspection of steam boilers, economisers and steam pipes including mountings and other fittings. The registration and inspection work of the steam boilers in the district is carried out by the Inspector of Steam Boilers with headquarters at Bombay. The department carries out yearly inspection of steam boilers after they are registered in the State and grants working certificates thereof to ensure their safe working and also prevents emission of smoke from furnaces and chimneys in excess of legal limits. The department also conducts examinations for certificates of competency as boiler attendants and of proficiency as engineers.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE DEPARTMENT

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

The Director of Prohibition and Excise, who is the head of Prohibition and Excise department is responsible for the administration of the Excise and Prohibition laws in the 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 subordinate Prohibition and Excise Officers in the State.

Functions.

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.

The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 prohibits the production, manufacture, possession, exportation, importation, transportation, purchase, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants. However, these operations are lawful if they are permitted by rules, regula-

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Functions.

tions or orders. The Act also regulates the possession, sale, etc., of *mhowra* flowers and molasses.

The Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936, prohibits the smoking of opium.

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 the Government in the *Maharashtra Government Gazette*, as 'notified drugs'.

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 drugs or narcotics.

The Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955 regulates in public interest, the movement on the inter-State basis of certain spirituous medicinal and other preparations.

The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930, prohibits the manufacture, exportation, importation, sale, possession and transportation 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. Besides administration of the acts mentioned above, the Prohibition and Excise department attends to the work of prohibition propaganda and education. 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.

The control in excise matters is vested in the Director of Prohibition and Excise. He is also responsible for the general supervision of the prohibition propaganda work carried out by the departmental officers. The Collectors have certain functions under the aforesaid acts such as issue of licences and permits and in respect of such functions, they are subordinate to the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

For Dhulia district, there is a District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise at Dhulia who assists the Collector of Dhulia in all excise and prohibition matters. Under the District Inspector, there is one Sub-Inspector of Prohibition and Excise for executive work. The Sub-Inspector of Prohibition and Excise has also been vested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act, the Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act.

The main functions of this department are confined to licensing, inspection of licences and the enforcement of various controls

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Enforcement Work.

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 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 offences. The Excise staff is responsible for the supervision of bonded manufactories, ware-houses, neera centres and management of Government liquor and drug sales 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. Briefly, they are responsible for control, propaganda and ameliorative work. Though the officers of the Prohibition and Excise department of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been vested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on the information of commission of offences and hand over the cases, if any, detected by them to the Police for investigation. The Home Guards Organisation also assists the Police in this work. 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 provisions of the Act which may come to their knowledge and also to prevent the commission of the 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 of the Act, 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 drugs to a Magistrate, a Prohibition officer or a Police officer as soon as they come to know of it.

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-Inspector have been authorised under section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any article of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes or detains any articles, has to handover such person or articles without unnecessary delay to the officer incharge of the nearest Police station.

Permits.

Various permits[1] are granted for possession, use and consumption of foreign liquor. They are—

(1) *Emergency Permit.*—Emergency permit is granted for the use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person

[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 quantity of liquors or wines.

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Permits.

for medical use and emergent occasions. 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 health. Persons over the age of 40 years are granted health permits for the quantity as recommended by a Registered Medical Practitioner but not exceeding four units per month for a period not exceeding 2 years and persons between the age group of 30 and 40 years are granted three units per month for one year and persons below 30 years are granted two units per month for one year on the recommendation of the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board or a Registered Medical Practitioner. Persons under 30 years of age have to apply for renewal of their health permits through the Area Medical Board or the Civil Surgeon of the district.

(3) *Temporary Resident's Permit.*—A Temporary Resident's 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 two years from the date of its commencement.

(4) *Visitor's Permit.*—Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of one week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor is granted this permit which can be extended for a period not exceeding one month.

(5) *Special Permit for Privileged Personages.*—This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are nationals of a foreign country. It is also granted to the consorts and relatives of the above persons.

(6) *Interim Permit.*—Any person who is eligible for a Temporary Resident's Permit, Health Permit or Special Permit for the Privileged Personages and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor pending grant of any of the regular permits mentioned above is granted an Interim Permit.

(7) *Tourists Permit.*—A foreign tourist holding a tourists introduction card or tourist visa visiting the State of Maharashtra is issued free a tourist permit for a period not exceeding one month. An All-India Tourist permit is granted for period of three months by visa issuing officers of the Indian Overseas Missions and by Tourist Offices at Bombay, Delhi and Madras.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc., of Toddy is completely prohibited.

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 purposes is normally granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month.

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Denatured Spirit.

Provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reasons grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month.

Provided further that with the previous sanction of the Collector, a permit may be granted for a quantity exceeding three quart bottles per month.

The possession and use of denatured spirit for medicinal, scientific and educational purposes and for purpose of art, industry or profession is regulated by the system of licences prescribed in this behalf. Methylated industrial 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.

Authorisation for use of country liquor and wine for 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 *ganja, bhang* and opium is granted only on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by the Government or a Medical Officer appointed for the purpose.

Neera and Palm Product Scheme.

Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing *gur* from *Neera* are granted only to the co-operative societies organised by constructive social workers, other similarly organised institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, *ashrams,* organisations incharge of intensive area schemes and *sarvodaya* centres, etc., on the recommendation of Khadi and Village Industries Board for the State of Maharashtra. Licences are not granted to individuals.

Sanskar Kendras.

In order to provide facilities for recreation and to serve as counter attraction for the purpose of weaning away the addicts from the drink and drug habit, *Sanskar Kendras* or Cultural Centres are established in labour areas or areas notorious for prohibition offences. They are run either departmentally or by 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., are arranged. Government grants subsidy to the *Sanskar Kendras* run by social workers and institutions. In Dhulia district, there are two departmental *Sanskar Kendras* located at Ner and Visarwadi.

The Government have recently further liberalised rules regarding granting of permits and any person above the age of thirty years can get a permit on production of a medical certificate.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT

SOCIAL WELFARE.

At the ministerial level, the Department of Social Welfare was constituted immediately on reorganisation of States *i.e.,* from November, 1956. It, however, took shape at the Directorate level from September 15, 1957. The backward class welfare work done

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

Organisation.

previously by the Backward Class Department is now done by the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department. The other wing of the Social Welfare Department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare is now changed to Director of Social Welfare who is the head of the Social Welfare Department of the State. The Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions is redesignated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing) and he assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to Correctional Wing. There are three more Deputy Directors who look after the work relating to education and rehabilitation of the physically handicapped, research and statistics and sanitation and scavenging schemes.

There are divisional officers for each revenue division of the State. Besides there are Nomadic Tribes Welfare Officers and Vimukta Jati Welfare Officers attached to the divisions, who look after the work relating to the welfare of nomadic tribes and *vimukta jatis*. Since April 1965 a post of Special Officer has been attached to each of the divisions for the speedy implementation of the recommendations of the Scavengers Living Conditions Enquiry Committee. At the district level, the department has district officers termed as Social Welfare Officers.

All the schemes undertaken by the Social Welfare Department are implemented by the Social Welfare Officer in the district and it is part of his duties to see that the fullest benefit of all these schemes is received by the members of the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes. He is also expected to see that the backward classes derive the maximum of the concessions sanctioned by the Government in the field of education, health, housing, agricultural land, profession, etc.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad all the activities and schemes carried out by the department have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The Social Welfare Department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Social Welfare Officer who is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

Backward Classes.

The backward classes are classified into three broad categories, *viz.* (1) the scheduled castes or *harijans*, (2) the scheduled tribes or *adivasis* and (3) other backward classes who are neither scheduled castes nor scheduled tribes but are socially, economically and educationally as backward as the other two categories. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President for each of the States in the Indian Union. However, the classification as backward based on communities, has been abolished and now the classification is based on economic conditions (income). The new class of other backward classes is given the concession of free education at all the stages.

A number of other privileges have also been granted to backward classes and special grants are paid every year by the Government

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Backward Classes.

of India under Article 275 (i) of the Constitution for ameliorating conditions 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 which are being implemented vigorously.

It is the policy of the Government to ameliorate the conditions of backward classes so as to bring them on par with advanced sections of the community. With this object in view, the Government have taken three-fold measures covering education, economic rehabilitation and social welfare.

In the field of education the Government offers a large number of scholarships and concessions in fees to the students belonging to the backward classes at all stages of education—primary, secondary and collegiate. Special attention is paid to the education of population belonging to the scheduled tribes, the nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes and the *vimukta jatis*.

Towards economic rehabilitation of backward classes measures are taken to imbibe co-operative spirit in them, to provide vocational training and other facilities, to supply them with the capital and other tools and equipment required for small occupations and agricultural implements.

Towards social welfare the Government have undertaken to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of scheduled castes and assimilation of scheduled tribes in general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of ex-criminal tribes and nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes from among the category of other backward classes. Legislative measures as well as propaganda through voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this objective. Mention may be made here of the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Government of India to stop the observance of untouchability.

With the liberal financial assistance of the Central Government under Article 275(i) of the Constitution to the extent of 50 per cent. of the expenditure on the schemes other than education and 75 per cent. on the educational schemes, various measures are undertaken by the State Government for the uplift of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, *vimukta jatis* and other backward classes under the Five-Year Plans. Besides this, the Government of India has also sponsored on cent per cent. basis a special programme for the welfare of backward classes in the State which includes awarding of scholarships to scheduled caste and scheduled tribe students studying in post-S. S. C. courses, opening of 40 Tribal Development Blocks, assistance to Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies, maintenance of Tribal Research Unit, construction of houses for sweepers and scavengers and assistance to Local Bodies for purchase of wheel-barrows and hand-carts for the removal of night soil.

In the implementation of these backward class welfare measures, advice and co-operation is also sought from eminent social workers

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Backward Classes.

and voluntary organisations through the State Board for Harijan Welfare and the State Tribes Advisory Council. All these social, economic and educational measures taken by Government, are sure to go a long way in eradicating untouchability with the educational and economic uplift of the backward classes.

Administrative set-up.

In accordance with the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, welfare of backward classes has been entrusted to the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad acts as the Secretary of the Committee and the Social Welfare Officer as the Joint Secretary. The President of the Zilla Parishad acts as the Chairman of the Standing Committee. According to 1961 Census, out of the total district population of 13,51,236 the scheduled tribes alone numbered 5,13,334 while 48,054 were scheduled castes and 30,998 were *Nava* Buddhists. The population of *Vimukta Jatis* and nomadic tribes was about 34,000 and 8,200 respectively. The Dhulia district has the largest number of scheduled tribes in the State. Under sub-paragraph (i) of paragraph 6 of the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution of India, the President has declared Akrani Mahal and Navapur and Akkalkuwa talukas of the district as scheduled areas. The scheduled area in the district is spread over 2,349·389 km² (907·1 sq. miles) covering one town and 413 villages.

The Block Development Officers of the *Panchayat Samitis* receive the applications from backward classes in their respective talukas. The Block Development Officers, the Extension Officers of the blocks and the Social Welfare Officer carefully watch the follow-up programme regarding proper utilisation of help given to the backward classes.

Measures of Uplift.

In order to facilitate the educational uplift of backward classes in the district, special concessions are granted to the students of these communities such as grant of Scholarships, grant of tuition fees, examination fees etc., from the primary to the collegiate level. During the Third Five-Year Plan period, 43,815 backward class students studying in pre-S.S.C. courses availed of these concessions. In 1964-65 the department spent Rs. 4,00,556 towards grant of scholarships, tuition and examination fees to backward class students.

Hostels.

There are 72 hostels for backward classes with more than 2,300 inmates. Besides there are five cosmopolitan hostels in which backward class and non-backward class students are provided accommodation. In 1964-65 the department incurred an expenditure of Rs. 482,416 towards grant of hostel facilities to the backward class students.

Ashram Schools.

In addition, eight Ashram schools for scheduled tribes have been functioning in the district. Ashram schools are residential primary schools in which pupils are imparted basic education with agricultural bias. The object of these schools is to equip the tribal students to live necessarily within the resources available in the tribal areas and

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Backward Classes.

Ashram Schools.

also to create local leadership among the scheduled tribes so that more and more people from among themselves could come forward to occupy key positions in all walks of life.

There are also four *balwadis* and *sanskar kendras* in the district located at Nandurbar, Manjrod, Dhulia and Shahada.

The economic improvement of the backward classes is achieved through various means. The Government have sanctioned a scheme of grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, for cottage industries and professions, to supplement their agricultural income.

Economic Uplift.

Similarly, to improve the agricultural methods and to supplement the agricultural income of the backward classes, financial assistance is sanctioned for purchase of milch cattle, plough bullocks, poultry, implements, tractors, oil engines, etc. During the Third Five Year Plan period, assistance, was also sanctioned for construction of 85 irrigation wells. 136 individuals were given assistance for purchase of shares of co-operatives of agriculturists. Five Industrial Co-operative Societies of backward classes and three Forest Labourers' Co-operative Societies of scheduled tribes received assistance towards share capital and management expenses.

However, by far the most important programme for the all round development of the scheduled tribes is the opening of one Multi-purpose Development Block in Akrani Mahal under the Second Five-Year Plan and twelve Tribal Development Blocks usder the Third Five-Year Plan. In stage I of the Multi-purpose Block, Rs. 15 lakhs were allotted from the funds provided by the Ministry of Home Affairs in addition to the allotment of Rs. 12 lakhs by the Ministry of Community Development. Under the Third Five Year Plan, the ministries of Social Welfare and Community Development made a total allotment of Rs. 22 lakhs for stage I of the Tribal Development Blocks. These Blocks are located at Mulgi Chinchpada, Mandane, Taloda, Khandbara, Akkalkuwa, Dhanora, Kondaibari, Kudashi, Mhaswad, Nawapur and Ashte.

With the opening of these blocks all areas having concentration of 66·6 per cent. of tribal population in the district have been covered.

Improvement of means of communication in the tribal areas has been accorded top priority as inaccessibility of the area is the main cause for its continued backwardness. Under the Tribal Welfare Programme, bridges, causeways, culverts etc., are constructed on the approach roads constructed under the Community Development Programme. During the Third Five-Year Plan, 30 such works were completed at the cost of Rs. 3·34 lakhs.

Health, Housing and other schemes.

Provision of medical facilities, drinking water wells, housing, propaganda and publicity and removal of untouchability are the main programmes undertaken in this group.

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Backward Classes.

Health, Housing and Other Schemes.

During the Third Five-Year Plan period two voluntary agencies administering medical relief in Scheduled Areas were given financial assistance, 293 scheduled tribe persons were provided free aid and 48 patients belonging to scheduled tribes were given assistance to undertake journeys for treatment. Under the Tribal Welfare Programme special dispensaries have been opened at Kathi, Visarwadi, Singpur, Boradi and Borad.

During the Third Five-Year Plan period Rs. 1·96 lakhs were spent on construction of 137 drinking water wells in or near backward class localities. During the same period 975 houses for backward classes were constructed at a cost of Rs. 5·84 lakhs. Besides the Co-operative Housing Societies of backward classes were given grants to the extent of Rs. 8·47 lakhs for construction of 445 houses. During the year 1965-66, the State Government sanctioned a scheme costing Rs. 2·19 lakhs for construction of 60 houses for sweepers and scavengers employed by Dhulia municipality.

Financial assistance is given to all the municipalities in the district for purchase of wheel-barrows and hand carts for removal of night soil so that the obnoxious practice of carrying it as a head load by sweepers and scavengers is completely stopped.

With the largest number of scheduled tribes, the district has a special place in the development programmes for backward classes in the State. During the Fourth Five-Year Plan, all scheduled tribe areas having concentration of over 50 per cent. tribal population are proposed to be covered. In addition a special programme for pockets having concentrations of 1,000 scheduled tribes outside the Tribal Development Blocks has been envisaged.

These schemes are expected to yield substantial benefits to the backward class communities in this district and will lead to the desired amelioration of these communities so as to bring them on par with other sections of the society.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES

MANAGED ESTATES.

On many occasions, the Government takes over the management of the estates of minors, lunatics and persons incapable of managing their own property in order to secure due care and management of the estates concerned. There are two pieces of legislation which govern such administrative take over. One is the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905) and the other an Union Act, the Guardians and Wards Act (VII of 1890). In the case of persons incapable of managing their own property, assumption of superintendence of the estates is undertaken only when the estate is encumbered with debt or is mismanaged or has no one capable of taking proper care of it, and Government is of opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family provided that the property is of such value that it will be economical for management by Government agency.

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MANAGED ESTATES.

Court of Wards Act.

Under the Bombay Court of Wards Act, the Collector of Dhulia is the Court of Wards within the limits of his jurisdiction. The State Government has, however, powers to appoint, in lieu of the Collector, either a Special Officer or board consisting of two or more officers to be the Court of Wards. A provision is made for the delegation of powers of the Court of Wards to the Assistant or Deputy Collector. The Court of Wards is empowered to assume superintendence of the properties of any land holder or any pension holder who is "disqualified to manage his or her own property". Those who are deemed to be disqualified are (*a*) minors, (*b*) females declared by the District Court as unfit to manage their property, (*c*) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable or unfit to manage their own property and (*d*) persons adjudged by a competent Civil Court to be of unsound mind and hence incapable of managing their own affairs. The Court of Wards, however, cannot assume superintendence of the property of any minor for the management of whose property a caretaker has been appointed by will or other instrument or under section 7(*i*) of the Guardians and Wards Act.

In 1964, there were 17 estates under the superintendence of the Collector of Dhulia as Court of Wards. The gross income and the total expenditure on account of these estates was Rs. 31,233 and Rs. 30,917, respectively.

Guardian and Wards Act.

Consequent upon the separation of Judiciary from the Executive the Government decided to entrust the work of management of minor's estates to the Collectors. Accordingly, the Collector of Dhulia took over the management of 40 estates. In 1962-63, there were only nine estates under the management of the Collector, rest having been released on minors attaining majority. During the year, the total income from these estates was Rs. 24,468 and the expenditure worked to Rs. 24,316.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Bombay Public Trusts Act.

Prior to 1950, the Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed by 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 could 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)".

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 classes of trust. The

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Bombay Public Trusts Act.

act has been made applicable to the following classes of public trusts in the old Bombay State with effect from 21st January 1952 and in the Marathwada and Vidarbha regions with effect from 1st February, 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 and registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;

(6) *dharmadas*, i.e., any amounts which, according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transactions, 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 Aurangabad Region with jurisdiction over the districts of Aurangabad, Parbhani, Nanded, Bhir and Osmanabad. 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 moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (*b*) the gross average annual income of the trust property and (*c*) the amount of average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed by special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

Table number 1 furnishes statistics relating to the Public Trusts from Dhulia district registered at the Public Trusts Registration Office, Poona Region, Poona till 31st December, 1964.

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Duties of Trustees.

TABLE No. 1

PUBLIC TRUSTS IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Section	Total No. of trusts registered as on 31st December 1964	Value of Property		Gross average annual income	Average annual expenditure
		Moveable	Immoveable		
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
'A' (Trusts for the benefit of Hindus)	319	4,74,992	20,98,235	2,49,652	1,72,596
'B' (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims)	105	44,942	6,16,984	56,580	53,744
'C' (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees)	1	14,350	27,000	1,232	1,681
'D' (Trusts for the benefit of Christians)	....	....	....	....	....
'E' (Trusts not for the benefit of any particular community)	123	3,25,776	5,12,454	2,53,638	2,22,302
'F' (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860)	56	8,25,330	18,54,304	11,51,326	10,64,450

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. Reductions 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

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Duties of Trustees.

according to law and regularly, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of a report, if any, made by an officer authorised under section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust, or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner, who after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in 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 or immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other forms, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of funds by Cypres.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose if it is not in the public interest expedient, 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 by *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 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.

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

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Court, is however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In case when the Charity Commissioner is appointed as a trustee, he may levy administrative charges on these trusts as prescribed in the rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the *Official Gazette* every three years. District-wise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the *Maharashtra Government Gazette*.

Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State of Maharashtra, appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890. In the case of religious and charitable institutions and endowments which vest in or the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred and vested in the Committee of Management to be appointed by the State Government for each district and endowment within the meaning and for the purposes of the Act. The Charity Commissioner is invested with power to inquire into the duties of these Committees and the 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.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

INTRODUCTION.

THE VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS PLAY AN IMPORTANT ROLE in the development of the community life. The voluntary social service by its very nature is an activity of a self-governing body of people working together for the betterment of the society and community life as a whole.

As a result the voluntary social service organisations have become the sheet-anchor of the present society.

In the present days of freedom and equality the States are speedily marching towards the concept of a welfare state. These circumstances have paved a way for the voluntary organisations to play their significant role.

Formerly the states were entrusted with the administration in a restricted sense. Most of their energy was exhausted in the collection of revenue as well as in maintenance of law and order through the administrative control in the society. But the recent economic developments have extended the scope of state activities in relation to the individual. As a result the basic and bare necessaries of the individual were fulfilled at the hands of the state, whereas the spiritual and cultural sides of the individual life were totally neglected.

The needs of the common man are increasing faster and are keeping pace with the modern development in the various fields. Day by day every individual is relying more upon the state. The state has to step in into several problems covering the life of an individual.

The activities of the state have thus extended beyond the capacities of the state. Though it is desirable to have state attendance into every walk of the life of individuals, it has become impossible for the state owing to the burden of administration to fulfil its responsibilities.

Where state is unable to look into the demands of an individual, the voluntary social service organisations step in. Such organisations are getting enormous scope in these days of busy life. It is, therefore, essential to have social organisations of the people vested in common interest.

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The activities of the state involve some element of compulsion, whereas in case of voluntary institutions they are voluntary in nature and offer easy scope for an individual to develop. It is one of the reasons why individual feels more familiar and homely as a member of these institutions.

These institutions work hand in hand with Government and their nature is complementary to it. So far they have proved very helpful and co-operative and not competitive with the state in the field. With the co-operation of the state many problems are solved which have acted as an obstacle in the way of progress.

Many a time these organisations act as the agencies of the state whereas sometimes they discharge the duties of the state.

As voluntary social organisations are formed by the people, they can grasp the needs of the people in the area and offer proper solutions to the problem.

Such institutions can afford to make experiments. The voluntary actions involved on the part of individual in the institution are always flexible and progressive and that is one of the reasons for the pioneering work done by organisations in Dhulia district.

The voluntary social service organisations are also useful, act as they do, as a preventive measure against the mal-adjustment in the society.

In Dhulia district there are many such organisations working in various fields such as, education, health, art and recreation.

The voluntary social service organisations though helped by the government have inadequate finance. Many a time they have to rely upon their own funds and donations collected from the public.

PUBLIC LIFE.

To the society, if not of foremost importance, at least of prime importance is the fourth estate as it is popularly called *viz.*, news-papers.

It helps to educate public opinion and enriches public life. Though the activities of voluntary social service organisations help in creating healthy social atmosphere, yet, press is the powerful weapon in revealing public opinion.

In fact, the press takes leading initiative in creating political consciousness and expresses freely and sympathetically the grievances of the common man.

No daily newspaper is published in the district. The following weekly news-papers are published in this district at the places shown against them :—

(1) *Swatantra Bharat.*	Dhulia.	(6) *Sudarshan*	Dhulia.
(2) *Navhind*	Dhulia.	(7) *Yugasandesh*	Dhulia.
(3) *Apna Maharashtra.*	Dhulia.	(8) *Vanavasi*	Nandurbar.
(4) *Rachana*	Dhulia.	(9) *Girijan*	Nandurbar.
(5) *Varta*	Dhulia.	(10) *Kranti*	Shirpur.
		(11) *Satpuda*	Shirpur.
		(12) *Navbahar*	Dondaicha.

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The circulation of these newspapers is, however, limited and is restricted to the district.

Almost all Marathi and English newspapers published at Bombay, Poona, find their way in the district on a large scale. '*Gavkari*' published from Nasik and Hindi news-papers also have some circulation in the district.

In what follows is a brief description of the voluntary social service organisations working in the various fields in Dhulia district.

Sharda Vidya Mandir, Sarangkheda.

The Shikshan Prasarak Mandal was established in 1961 at Sarangkheda with a view to spread education. In the same year it founded the Sharda Vidya Mandir to impart high school education at the village level.

The Mandir had on its roll 262 students and the number of teachers was 10 in 1964-65.

Besides the regular academic course, the Mandir trains students for the examinations held in Sanskrit, Marathi, Hindi and General Knowledge. The students are also trained for the yearly Drawing Examinations conducted by the Government of Maharashtra.

Every year students are sent to participate in annual sports held at Shahada and Dhulia.

The Mandir is housed in rented premises.

Satidevi Public Trust, Boris.

The Satidevi Public Trust was established in 1956 at Boris. It is so named to commemorate a woman who performed *sati* as far back as 132 years. At present the Trust runs a high school, a hostel and a Social Welfare Centre.

(1) *Satidevi New English School, Boris.*—The Trust started Satidevi New English School in 1959 at Boris. The School conducts classes upto 11th standard and its strength was 200 in 1963. The School is housed in rented premises. The annual budget of the school amounts to Rs. 25,000.

(2) *Satidevi Vasati Griha.*—Satidevi Vasati Griha was established in 1960. In the first year 35 students took advantage of the hostel. The Griha now admits mainly the Harijan students. In 1963, Rs. 12,000 were spent on the Griha out of which the Government had given a token grant of Rs. 2,500.

(3) *Social Welfare Centre.*—To promote and propagate social welfare, the Trust has established a Social Welfare Centre. The Social Welfare Centre is housed in its own building which was constructed at a cost of Rs. 20,000, to which the Maharashtra Central Social Welfare Board has contributed Rs. 4,000. At present its staff consists of a *gramsevika* and a midwife. It accommodates 70 children. The budget of the Social Welfare Centre comes to about Rs. 5,000.

The annual income of the Trust approximately amounts to Rs. 15,000.

To provide permanent lighting arrangement in the temple of Satidevi the Trust had erected a Gobar Gas plant.

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So far the Trust has constructed the following buildings :—

(1) High School building worth Rs. 30,000.
(2) A two storied building worth Rs. 30,000 accommodating a bank.
(3) Social Welfare Centre building worth Rs. 16,000.
(4) Buildings for primary schools worth Rs. 40,000.
(5) Building of the fair price shop worth Rs. 6,000.
(6) Building of the Sati Ahilyadevi Upahar Griha worth Rs. 8,000.

Satidevi Public Trust, Boris.

Shahada Taluka Co-operative Education Society Ltd., Shahada.

To overcome the backwardness of the region the Shahada Taluka Co-operative Education Society Ltd. was founded in 1952 at Shahada. From 1955 the Society took over the management of the S. V. Mandir School at Prakashe. In 1959 the Society opened two middle schools one each at Shahada and Wadali. At present, there are about 1,200 students taking education at these three schools. The management of the Society is in the hands of a general body which is composed of 181 members consisting of 4 founders, 13 patrons, 160 A class members and 4 life members.

Nandurbar Education Society, Nandurbar.

Nandurbar Education Society was started in 1945 at Nandurbar with a view to spread education. The Society conducts D. R. High School at Nandurbar. At present 786 students are on its roll. The school in addition prepares the students for the examinations in Hindi and Sanskrit. In 1962 the Society started a middle school. The number of students attending the school was 205.

The property of the Society including land and building is worth Rs. 1,48,000. The annual income of the Society comes to Rs. 13,800, while the expenditure amounts to Rs. 2,225. The management of the Society is in the hands of a general body which has 30 members.

Balvikas Mandir, Dhulia.

Balvikas Mandir was established in January 1954 at Dhulia with the object of imparting education to the children of the middle class at a moderate cost.

The Mandir recently opened a branch of its school in the Jail premises with a view to impart free education to the children of the Jail staff. At present the Balvikas Mandir has 30 students on its roll. Recently the Mandir has started a primary school, Nutan Vidya Mandir, which has a strength of 250 students.

The annual income of the Balvikas Mandir amounts to Rs. 4,950, whereas its expenditure comes to Rs. 6,170 of which the Mandir gets Rs. 1,000 as a yearly grant-in-aid from the Government. The municipality also contributes Rs. 300.

The annual expenditure of the Nutan Vidya Mandir amounts to Rs. 6,550, while its expenditure comes to Rs. 5,825.

The managing body is composed of 10 members. Besides the president, secretary and treasurer, 7 other members constitute the managing board.

Lokmanya Tilak Vachanalaya, Nandurbar.

To cater to the needs of the reading public, the Lord Ripon Library was founded in 1883 at Nandurbar. In 1947 it was renamed as Lokmanya Tilak Vachanalaya.

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Lokmanya Tilak Vachanalaya, Nandurbar.

In 1964 the Vachanalaya had 140 members.

In the same year it purchased books worth Rs. 1,056·74.

The Vachanalaya possesses about 3,600 books in English, Marathi Hindi, Gujarati and Sanskrit languages.

The annual income of the Vachanalaya amounted to Rs. 5,181·96, whereas the expenditure amounted to Rs. 4,595·61 in 1964.

Till 1961-62 the Vachanalaya was housed in rented premises. In that year it constructed its own building at a cost of Rs. 7,556. The Vachanalaya, besides donations, receives annually a grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000 from the Government of Maharashtra.

The Municipality had also contributed Rs. 500 to the Vachanalaya.

The Vachanalaya held a Bahishshal Vyakhyanmala in which well-known orators, scholars and social workers were invited to deliver lectures.

Swodharak Vidyarthi Sanstha, Dhulia and Dondaicha.

With a view to help the poor and needy students and to start new schools the Swodharak Vidyarthi Sanstha was established at Dhulia in 1921. In 1929 the Sanstha opened its other hostel at Dondaicha. The Sanstha provides enough opportunities to the students to build up their educational career. The hostel at Dhulia is housed in rented premises while that at Dondaicha is housed in its own building.

Raul Daulatasinhji Multipurpose High School, Dondaicha.

This school was established at Dondaicha in 1929. In its earlier stage it was only a middle school. This was the first middle school opened in the rural areas of Dhulia. The school sought Government recognition in 1931. It was turned into a high school. In 1949 the agriculture department was started in the school and it was registered as a multi-purpose school in the same year. Shri Dadasaheb Raul had donated 38 acres of land to the school. The school is housed in its own building. In 1962, 37 students appeared for S. S. C. examination with agriculture as their special subject. The agricultural farm owned by the institution fetched Rs. 4,486·67 from its agricultural produce.

Malpur High School, Malpur.

Till 1962 Malpur had no school. Students used to go to Dondaicha, a distance of about six miles. To overcome this difficulty the Sanstha started a high school at Malpur in 1962. The school is housed in rented premises.

The Sanstha had started its branch school near the station in 1962.

The Sanstha started the Balmandir at Devpur in Dhulia in 1961. In 1964, 35 students were on its roll. The mandir is looked after by one teacher.

The affairs of the Sanstha are looked after by an executive body which carries out administrative and advisory functions. The executive body is composed of 20 members which include the president, the vice-president and a secretary. In the year 1964 the Sanstha had property valued at Rs. 2 lakhs.

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The annual income of the Sanstha amounted to Rs. one lakh in 1964 whereas the expenditure of the Sanstha amounted to the same in the same year.

Vanita Samaj, Dhulia.

The Vanita Samaj, Dhulia was established in 1933. The generous donations received by the Samaj helped it to plan its own building. The construction of the building was completed in 1935. The building was named as Indra Bhavan.

The Women Home Guard branch was started in Dhulia in 1963. For the camping and training of the cadets the Samaj provided accommodation from time to time, free of charge. The Vanita Samaj started the Ideal English School in 1965.

The Samaj provides facilities for such games, as Badminton, Carrom, Musical Chair, Table tennis, etc. Open Badminton Tournaments for its members are also held at the open court of the Vanita Samaj every year.

West Khandesh Nursing Association, Dhulia.

The West Khandesh Nursing Association was established in the year 1927 at Dhulia.

In 1926-27, a separate building was constructed for the maternity ward in Dhulia hospital. The Association collected a fund which was to be utilised in providing medical benefits to the people. The fund thus collected was deposited with the Government, the Collector as chairman and the Civil Surgeon as secretary looking after it. Later on the management of fund was taken over by the Government.

The Government subsequently handed over the fund to the Association. According to the present rules and regulations the Collector is the Chairman of the Association while the Civil Surgeon is the Secretary of the Association.

The municipality made provision in the Badanbai Mulchand Munot dispensary for the training of the nurses. The midwife training course is conducted by the Bombay Mothers and Children Welfare Society, Bombay, and certificates are given to those who pass their examination.

Since the course started, as many as twenty midwives have been trained. The training course includes training in home-nursing family planning, maternity, child-care and village sanitation.

Panjarpol Sanstha, Dhulia

The Panjarpol Sanstha, Dhulia, was founded in 1885. A branch of the Sanstha, Shri Prani Rakshak Sanstha, was established in 1906 at Dhulia. The Sanstha has its branches at Mouje Nagzari and at Ghanegaon in Nasik district.

The Sanstha aims at protecting the animals from physical incapabilities, diseases and such other draw-backs. It has agricultural land at Ghanegaon, Laling and Rudhavan. It has five godowns built in stone and 2 *kutcha* godowns to store the agricultural produce.

To overcome the shortage of storing facilities, three new godowns are under construction. There are two wells on which electric motor pumps have been fixed to fetch water. Green grass is produced in the open space of compound. Cowdung, a useful fertilizer is

collected and auctioned. Cows and bullocks are also sold to agriculturists.

Milk is supplied to the children in the town. To meet the increasing demand, the Sanstha plans to purchase more cows of the Gir type.

The sanstha receives grant from the Animal Husbandry Department of the Zilla Parishad and from the Dhulia municipality. It accommodates about 200 cattle at a time.

There are separate cattle sheds for animals suffering from the diseases. The income of the sanstha in 1963 amounted to Rs. 51,751·91. The expenditure also stood at the same figure.

District Probation and After Care Association, and Remand Home, Dhulia.

The Probation and After Care Association, Dhulia was founded in 1951 at Dhulia. It is housed in its own building which was constructed in 1964, at an estimated cost of Rs. 98,000.

The Juvenile Court is held on every Friday in the Remand Home. The Local Judicial Magistrate, First Class, acts as the Presiding Officer and two lady honorary magistrates advise the Presiding Officer to dispose of the cases under trial. Once in a fortnight the inmates are taken for medical check-up.

The boys are trained in cloth weaving. In 1963, 31,211 yards of cloth, 25 towels and handkerchiefs were woven. The Association is provided with 6 handlooms and an Amber Charkha.

If the child is below three it is sent to the Dr. Sumatibai Godbole Maternity Home.

The boys and girls are sent to schools to put them on the right path.

The Remand Home has maintained a garden and the boys work in it. The children are trained in national as well as foreign games. In the Home, all are treated equally.

In 1963-64, 166 cases were enrolled in the Juvenile Court of which 57 cases could not be decided. Both income and the expenditure of the institution in the year 1963 came to Rs. 94,293·19, respectively. A managing committee supervises the affairs of the Association. In 1963 it had 2 patrons, 75 life members and 37 ordinary members.

Sanstha Gavkari Panch, Raykhed.

To render social service, to provide water to the village by storing it and to look after such other services was formed the Sanstha Gavkari Panch at Raykhed.

The immovable property of the sanstha consists of agricultural land and a school building, both valued at about Rs. 9,000.

In all five *panchas* constitute the managing body. The sanstha derives its income solely from the agricultural produce. The annual expenditure comes to Rs. 800.

Shivaji Vidya Prasarak Sanstha, Dhulia.

Shivaji Vidya Prasarak Sanstha, Dhulia, was established in 1909 at Dhulia. But it started functioning in 1912. Within the last fifty years the sanstha has opened 16 branches.

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At present the sanstha runs 7 hostels, of which two hostels are provided for high school students, one for girl students and two for primary training college students. Hostels have also been provided for Arts, Science and Commerce college students. In all 1,000 students are residing in these hostels, of whom 200 are ladies.

The sanstha runs four high schools 2 for boys, one for girls and a night school. Together these schools have 1,692 boys and 300 girls on their rolls.

Shivaji Vidya Prasarak Santha, Dhulia.

Besides, the sanstha runs a Physical Training College, a Secondary Teacher's Training Centre, a Drawing Teacher's Training Centre (including an Arts School) and Primary Training College for boys and girls. It also runs Arts, Science and Commerce Colleges. In all 1,414 students are taking education in these colleges.

Shivaji Hindi Vidyalaya conducted by the sanstha is affiliated to the Maharashtra Rashtrabhasha Prachar Sabha, Poona, wherein the students are instructed for 1st examination to 'Pandit' and for Junior Shikshak Sanad. So far, from all these branches 4,500 students passed the various examinations.

The sanstha had spent nearly Rs. 10 lakhs on buildings and on playground. Besides, it spent Rs. 7 lakhs on books, furniture and equipments. In 1963-64 the budget of the sanstha amounted to Rs. 22 lakhs.

Since 1938-39 the sanstha has received Rs. 18,02,785 by way of grants and donations from the Government and the public.

Bal Vikas Mandal, Shirud.

The Balvikas Mandal was established on 15th August 1956. The Mandal had its headquarters at Shirud (Kalika) in Dhulia district.

The Mandal was recognised by the Government in 1957-58. Children between 3 and 6 are enrolled. In 1965 the number of the students enrolled in the Mandal was 44.

The staff of the Mandal consists of two teachers. A student has to pay a rupee per month as fee. All students are provided with light break-fast every day. Picnics are arranged frequently to nearby areas. Freeships are granted to 10 per cent. of the students.

Recently the Mandal constructed its own building at a cost of Rs. 6,000. Besides, it possesses property worth Rs. 1,000.

The annual income of the Mandal amounted to Rs. 1,252·81 whereas its expenditure came to about Rs. 1,217·52.

The managing committee of the Mandal consisted of 20 members in 1965.

In gratitude of the donation of Rs. 2,001 from Balaram Daulatram Khandelwal, the school is named after him. The Mandal received Rs. 500 from the Social Welfare Department of the Government of Maharashtra, and Rs. 200 from the Zilla Parishad, Dhulia.

Peoples Education Society, Taloda.

To carry on the propagation of education in backward areas the Peoples Education Society was established on 21st August 1944 at Taloda.

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Peoples Education Society, Taloda.

The main branch of the Society, *viz.* Sheth K. D. High School is at Taloda. It had altogether 14 classes and had 650 students on the roll.

In 1963 the Society opened its another branch *viz.* New English School, at Akkalkuwa. At present the school has 250 students on its roll. In the same year the society opened a boarding, Nehru Chhatralaya at Akkalkuva for the students coming from distant areas.

The society proposes to open schools at Pratappur and Khapar.

In 1964, the Society possessed property worth Rs. 55,000. The annual income of the Society amounted to Rs. 1,04,766·62 in the year 1964, whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 79,005·92

Gosevashramantargata Goshala, Dhulia.

The Gosevashramantargata Goshala was founded on 14th January 1935 at Dhulia.

Its objects are to improve the bovines particularly to increase the yield of cows, to supply pure cow-milk to the town and to supply well-bred bulls and heifers to cultivators and to stop the deterioration of the bovines. It is also its aim to save and to develop pasture land.

The governing body of the Goshala consists of 11 members, which looks after the affairs of Goshala. Every year the Goshala supplies milk to the town worth Rs. 15,000 to 18,000.

At present the Goshala has 25 cows, a bull and 20 heifers. Seventy to eighty litres of milk is produced per day.

The annual income of the Goshala varied in 1964 between Rs. 18,000 and Rs. 20,000, whereas its expenditure came to same amount in the same year. Agricultural produce alone contributes Rs. 8,000 to the total annual income of the Goshala.

The Goshala owns buildings and sheds donated by Shri Shaligram Bharatiya and by Shri Rameshwar Potdar.

Stree Shikshan Sanstha, Dhulia.

To advance the cause of education of girls with special reference to moral and physical training and instructions in home science and other suitable subjects, Stree Shikshan Sanstha was established in 1923 at Dhulia. The Sanstha also aims at the education of grown-up women by conducting home classes, arranging lectures, etc.

The managing board of the Sanstha consists of patrons, life members and ordinary members, which looks after the management of the Sanstha.

Besides academic course, the students are instructed for Rashtra Bhasha examinations conducted by the Rashtra Bhasha Prachar Sabha, Wardha. Students are also prepared for Sanskrit Examinations.

During 1963-64, 1,256 students were on the roll of the institution. The teaching staff consisted of 40 members of whom 25 teachers were graduates, 9 were non-graduates and 6 were untrained.

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Freeships and half freeships are granted liberally. In 1962-63, 42 backward class students were granted freeships. Freeships were also granted to 266 students whose parents' annual income was less than Rs. 1,800. Half freeships were granted to 187 students.

The school has a library where important dailies, monthlies and other periodicals are made available to the students.

The school maintains one general store which is run with the help of students. The Sanstha receives grant-in-aid from the Government.

Stree Shikshan Sanstha, Dhulia.

In 1964 the income of the school amounted to Rs. 1,04,828·00 while expenditure came to Rs. 1,09,450 during the same year.

Sanskar Mandal, Dondaicha.

The Sanskar Mandal was established on 7th September 1957 at Dondaicha which aims at spreading education. It has a managing body consisting of the president, the vice-president, a secretary and 11 members elected from the donors. In 1964-65 the number of the members was 41. The annual income of the Nutan Bal Mandir run by the mandal comes to about Rs. 1,000, whereas, its annual expenditure amounts to Rs. 1,500. It receives an yearly grant of about Rs. 300 from the Government.

Itihasacharya Vishwanath Kashinath Rajwade Sanshodhan Mandal, Dhulia.

Shri Vishwanath Kashinath Rajwade, the great historian of Maharashtra died on 31st December 1926, leaving behind a good collection of Sanskrit and Marathi manuscripts numbering about 3,500 and also a collection of historical documents and papers. The Mandal was established on 9th January 1927 at Dhulia with the object of erecting a fire-proof building to house the late Shri Rajwade's collection for a safekeep and making it available to scholars and students working in the fields of history, sociology and literature. The Sanshodhan Mandal plans to publish writings and works credited to the late Shri Rajwade, which so far have not been published. The Mandal is interested in carrying out research work and publication.

The object of constructing fire-proof building was achieved on 5th January 1932 when the building of Rajwade Sanshodhan Mandal was opened. Soon the Mandal published '*Dhatu Kosh*' and '*Namadi Shabda Vyutpati Kosh*'. The Mandal runs a journal '*Sanshodhak*' through which much of the writings of the late Rajwade have been published. The Mandal has so far published thirty books, and thirty-two volumes of *Sanshodhak* journal.

The Mandal maintains a modest museum containing copper plates, coins, mciroliths miniature paintings, fine manuscripts and such other articles of value. Besides, there is a picture gallery exhibiting large portraits of many historical personages as well as research scholars.

The Mandal has a fairly good library having books on history, philosophy, education, politics, biography, etc. The Mandal has built up a special reference section of rare and valuable books, useful for various branches of research.

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Dhondo Shamrao Garud Vachanalaya, Dhulia.

To develop the habit of reading among the people Dhondo Shamrao Garud Vachanalaya was founded in 1854 at Dhulia.

In 1964-65 the Vachanalaya had membership of 831. The property of the Vachanalaya amounted to Rs. 1,11,567·94. The annual income of the Vachanalaya amounted to Rs. 9,015·91, whereas its expenditure came to Rs. 9,640·90 in the same year. The Vachanalaya received Rs. 6,000 from the Government in the form of grant in 1964-65. The number of books in the library was 23,970. The books on various subjects are purchased every year.

Nawapur Education Society, Nawapur.

To impart education in regional languages in Nawapur taluka, the Nawapur Education Society was established in 1945. The taluka is predominantly inhabited by the Adivasis, who are poor and illiterate. At present the Society conducts the N. D. and M. Y. Sarvajanik High School at Nawapur and runs the Jai Hind Chhatralaya boarding house at Nawapur.

The managing committee which looks after the administration of the society consists of 11 members, including the president and secretary.

The immovable property of the society consists of school buildings, school library, laboratory and furniture worth about Rs. 2,84,028.

The Society gets grant-in-aid from the Government, the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samiti for the management of the school.

West Khandesh Bhagini Seva Mandal, Dhulia.

The West Khandesh Bhagini Seva Mandal is a registered institution and was established in 1956. The Mandal is devoted to the all-round progress of women and children in Dhulia district. It proposes to achieve this objective by adopting the following programme :—

(1) Spreading of education amongst women and children.

(2) Starting home industries. For such a project financial help would be given to the middle class women and if necessary arrangements would be made to sale the product.

(3) Advising women on matters of health.

(4) Making arrangements for educational tours and arranging cinema shows.

The affairs of the Mandal are managed by a permanent working committee composed of the president, secretary and the treasurer.

The activities of the Mandal could be briefly enumerated as under.

Abhinav Balwadi Dhulia.

The Bhagini Seva Mandal founded the Abhinav Balwadi at Dhulia, in 1957. In the year 1962-63, the Balwadi had thirty students on its roll. The name of the Balwadi has now been changed to Abhinav Vidya Mandir. In 1962-63 the Social Welfare Board of the Government of Maharashtra extended a grant-in-aid of Rs. 500 to the Mandir.

Abhinar Shivankala Mandir, Dhulia.

Another institution started by the Mandal was Abhinav Shivankala Mandir in 1958. The Mandir imparts instructions in the art of tailoring and a number of women have taken advantage of the

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facility. The Mandir was recognised by the Government in 1963 and a one year course in cutting and tailoring was introduced since then. The Mandir prepares students for the examination conducted by the Technical Education Board of the Government of Maharashtra.

West Khandesh Bhagini Seva Mandal, Dhulia.

In the year 1962-63 the Social Welfare Board gave a grant-in-aid of Rs. 500 to the Mandir.

Indira Gandhi Vasatigraha.

The Indira Gandhi Vasatigraha was founded in 1962, mainly for the students receiving instructions in Bal Mandir Training College.

In 1963 the Vasatigraha had accommodated 25 students.

Nutan Kanya Vidyalaya.

The Mandal started Nutan Kanya Vidyalaya, a Girls School in June 1959 at Nandurbar. In 1962-63 the strength of the Vidyalaya was 250. It is housed in rented premises.

In the year 1962-63, the Zilla Parishad gave a grant of Rs. 500 to the Vidyalaya. In 1961-62 it received a grant of Rs. 2,500 from the Nandurbar Municipality.

The Mandal started the condensed course for ladies approved by the Central Welfare Board at Nandurbar, where lady students are trained upto S. S. C. The Mandal makes the lodging and boarding arrangements.

In 1964 there were 20 students on its roll.

Social Welfare Centres.

The Mandal looks after the Social Welfare Centres of the Government of Maharashtra situated at the following places :—

(1) Nardane, (2) Warud, (3) Songir, (4) Kapadne, (5) Boris, (6) Burzad, (7) Lamkani, (8) Nhyahalod, (9) Chinchwar, and (10) Warshi.

A *Gramsevika*, a sewing teacher and a trained midwife are appointed by the Mandal at each of these centres.

The Centres are entrusted with child care and with imparting instructions in tailoring.

Balmandir, Sindkheda.

The Bal Mandir was established in 1956 at Sindkheda and is specially meant for children below the age of five.

The Mandir has an average attendance of about 45 boys and girls.

A local committee of women looks after the affairs of the Bal Mandir.

Bal Mandir Training College, Dhulia.

To train teachers who could conduct the various *Balmandirs* established in the vicinity of Dhulia, the Balmandir Training College was established in 1962. It had a strength of 45 in the same year.

West Khandesh Bhil Seva Mandal, Nandurbar.

To render all round services to the Bhil and allied tribes in the Dhulia district, West Khandesh Bhil Seva Mandal was established at Nandurbar in 1938.

The Mandal was registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act of 1950 in the year 1952. The Mandal is affiliated to the Bharatiya Adimjati Sevak Sangh, Delhi.

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West Khandesh Bhil Seva Mandal, Nandurbar.

The executive board looks after the affairs of the Mandal. It is composed of 11 members including the president, the vice-president and 3 secretaries.

The Mandal started schools all over the district. In 1942 the total strength of students receiving instructions in all the schools under the management of the Mandal was 5,189, of whom 739 were girls. In 1946 some of the schools were transferred to the District School Board.

In 1956, the then Bombay Government decided to open a school at every village having a population of 500. In that year the Mandal was conducting 43 schools with 1,804 boys and 519 girls on their roll. These schools were also transferred to the District School Board in 1956.

To accommodate backward class students coming from distant areas the Mandal opened seven hostels and started one Ashram School. The latter was located at Molgi in Akkalkuva taluka. In the year 1958, these hostels accommodated 36 boys and 33 girls.

The Government decided to construct wells wherever necessary with the help of local people. The Mandal secured a sanction to dig 32 wells at various villages under this scheme.

In 1958, the Mandal received a grant of Rs. 1,84,020 from the Government. The hostels and Ashram schools conducted by the Mandal are located as shown below :—

B. C. Hostels for Secondary School Boys.

(1) Mahatma Gandhi Chhatralaya, Nandurbar.
(2) Thakkarbappa Chhatralaya, Taloda.
(3) Gula Maharaj Chhatralaya, Prakashe.
(4) Vanavasi Chhatralaya, Chinchpada.

B. C. Hostels for Primary School Boys.

(1) Ekalavya Chhatralaya, Khapar.
(2) Adivasi Kumar Chhatralaya, Sangvi.
(3) Shabari Kanya Mandir, (for girls only), Taloda.
(4) Ahilyabai Kanya Chhatralaya, Nandurbar.

Ashram Schools.

(1) Molgi, taluka Akkalkuwa.
(2) Burwani, Akrani Mahal.
(3) Sonkhamb, taluka Nawapur.
(4) Kochare, taluka Shahada.
(5) Bhadbhunja-Songadh.
(6) Talavadi, taluka Taloda.
(7) Varsus, taluka Sakri.
(8) Sangvi, taluka Shirpur.

The Mandal also conducts two high schools, one at Nandurbar known as the Ekalavya Vidyalaya and the other at Chinchpada in Nawapur taluka known as the Vanavasi Vidyalaya.

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West Khandesh Bhil Seva Mandal, Nandurbar.

The executive committee looks after the day to day affairs of the Mandal. It is composed of 21 members, including the president, two vice-presidents, three honorary secretaries and 15 other members. In 1962-63 the assets of the Mandal were worth Rs.6,03,958·72. In the same year the annual income of the Mandal amounted to Rs. 4 lakhs and 25 thousands, whereas the expenditure amounted to Rs. 4 lakhs and fifty thousands.

In the year 1962-63 the Government gave a grant-in-aid worth Rs. 3 lakhs, 24 thousands to the Mandal. An amount of Rs. 50,000 was collected by way of donations by the Mandal. In 1963 the Mandal had a membership of 244.

Arya Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Dhulia.

In the realm of the Education, Dhulia Borough Municipality was one of the first few municipalities to introduce primary education on compulsory basis in the year 1920. But there was no provision for cultural and moral aspects of education. This very situation gave impetus to Shri D. W. Bhabha, who was then in Government service, to start a primary school with an avowed aim of emphasising cultural and moral growth of children along with the traditional education. The primary school was started in 1935.

Besides the regular academic course, he introduced daily prayers, recitations of "*Manache Shloka*" of sant Ramdas, a few selected verses from *Bhagvatgita* and prayers from *Dnyaneshwari*, etc. This caught the imagination of the guardians and the primary school soon flourished. Shri V. G. Javdekar donated a sum of Rs. 10,000 and the school was named after his mother as Anandibai Jawdekar Sanskar Mandir. Originally the school was proprietary but with the growth of the school and acquirement of the school building, it was decided to convert it into a trust. Thus in 1950 the society called the Arya Shikshan Prasarak Mandal was founded.

In the year 1965 it had standards I to IV with 17 divisions and 700 pupils on its roll.

Abhinav Vidya Mandir.

The Mandal opened a high school in 1958 to accommodate its own students from the Anandibai Jawdekar Sanskar Mandir.

In the year 1965 the high school had V to XI standards with 13 divisions. During the same year the strength of the school was 530. Since 1961 the school was developed into a full-fledged high school.

Sakri Taluka Education Society, Sakri.

With a view to provide education to the new generation of agriculturists in rural areas of the Dhulia district, the Sakri Education Society was founded in 1938 at Sakri. The working of the Society was started in 1940, when a small high school was started.

In 1949, the executive body of the society underwent a change. It was reorganised. The new body constructed a new building for school and the Society soon flourished.

In 1965 there were as many as 600 students on the roll of New English School.

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Sakri Taluka Education Society, Sakri.

The executive body of the society is composed of 7 members which includes the president and a secretary. The executive body looks after the affairs of the Society. So far the Society had played an important role in the field of education in Dhulia district. The following schools and branches have been opened :—

(1) New English School, Sakri.
(2) Nutan Maratha Vidyalaya, Chadvel Korde.
(3) Nutan Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Malpur.
(4) Nutan Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Khondmal.
(5) Nutan Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Dhadne.
(6) Shivaji Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Shewali.

The Society had also opened a school at Aurangabad for imparting instructions in Drawing (D. T. C.).

Besides schools, the Society had constructed hostels at the following places to accommodate the students coming from the interior places.

(1) Namdevrao Dudhajirao Ahirrao Chhatralaya, Sakri (100 Boys).
(2) Mahatma Jyotiba Phule Chhatralaya, Chadvel Korde (60 boys).
(3) Kanya Chhatralaya, Sakri (50 girls).

In the year 1964-65, the Society had a budget of over Rs. 5 lakhs.

Lions Club, Dhulia.

To run a Spectacles Bank and a Diabetes Clinic, the Lions Club of Dhulia was started in March 1961.

The managing committee of the club is composed of the president, vice-president, honorary secretary, honorary joint secretary and a treasurer. It looks after the affairs of the Club. During the year 1965 the club had as many as 19 members.

Dhulia Education Society, Dhulia.

With the intention of propagating education, the Dhulia Education Society, Dhulia, was established in 1916 at Dhulia.

At present the Society runs three high schools, two primary schools and a college of education. The society also conducts Government Commercial Diploma, Commerce Institute and Secondary Teachers' Certificate Institute. From 1965 the Society started the classes in the Teachers' Diploma Course. The names of the institutions are as under :—

(1) College of Education, Dhulia.
(2) J. R. City High School, Dhulia.
(3) New City High School, Dhulia.
(4) Madhyamik Vidyalaya, Dhulia.
(5) Institute of Commerce, Dhulia.
(6) S. T. C. Course School, Dhulia.

In addition to these branches there are two primary schools and *balmandirs* run by the Society. The working field of the Society is expanding rapidly. The schools impart instructions in the subject of 'Military Studies' as prescribed by the S. S. C. Board. In June 1965, 26 students took advantage of the same.

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The Society possesses immovable property worth Rs. 2,65,179·79.

The general body of the Society is composed of life members, patrons and ordinary members. The managing body looks after the management.

The annual income of the Society in the year 1964 amounted to Rs. 3,75,179 whereas the expenditure amounted to the same in the same year.

Rugna Seva Mandal, Dhulia.

To render service of providing medical accessories such as, Thermometre, Bed-pan, Urine-pot, commode and other articles, the Rugna Seva Mandal was founded in 1952 at Nagarpatti in Dhulia. The Mandal has played an important role in the social life of the people of Dhulia. The medical accessories are not only essential but are difficult to be purchased by a common man.

A nominal rent is charged by the Mandal so as to have a check on the proper use of articles. This is the only registered institute in the district.

Every year nearly five hundred people take advantage of this service.

Matru Seva Sangh, Dhulia.

The Matru Seva Sangh was founded in 1945 at Dhulia. It is devoted to the singular aim of improvement of health of women and children.

This was to be realised by adopting the following means :—

(1) help women at the time of their deliveries and avoid infanticides.

(2) provide free medical advice to women and children from time to time and to make them available the requisite medicines.

(3) establish maternity homes, pre-maternity centres and child-welfare centres.

(4) start nursing and midwifery centres in the district, and

(5) start *balmandirs*.

The Matru Seva Sangh had played a prominent role in the field of health improvement of women in the district. Its work constitutes the following :

Kasturba Maternity and General Hospital.

This hospital was started on 3rd December 1945 in 4 bedded 2 rooms. Soon the situation changed and on 11th September 1948 the foundation ceremony of the proposed building took place.

Now the hospital provides 40 beds. Besides, it has a well equipped operation theatre. In 1961-62 the hospital received 2,500 antenatal cases, 540 delivery cases, 5 abnormal and 350 post-natal cases. During the year 5 operations were carried out. In the hospital itself a nursing centre is conducted and, so far, 50 trained nurses have passed out for service.

Bal Mandir.

To train children on the montessory lines the institution started a Balmandir. It had 100 students on its roll in 1964.

Kishor Krida Mandal.

Along with the studies to create liking for various games amongst children the Sangh started Kishor Krida Mandal. The entrance is restricted upto the age of fourteen. In 1964 as many as 50 students were taking the advantage of this Krida Mandal.

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Matru Seva Sangh, Dhulia.

Condensed Course Training Centre.

This is the last and important branch of the institution working for the self-dependence of separated and widowed ladies in the society. A special course is prescribed for two years in which a lady can earn for herself after the completion of the course. The first batch consisted of 25 ladies whereas the second batch consisted of 18 lady students. During the last few years this course was conducted for altogether 43 ladies out of whom 24 ladies got through the S. L. C. Examination, whereas the remaining 19 passed 7th Marathi standard and were qualified for further training.

Nawapur Mahila Mandal, Dhulia.

The Nawapur Mahila Mandal was started in 1952 at Dhulia. The objects of the Mandal are as under: (*a*) Impart education to children below five years; (b) Organise adult education; (c) Encourage small household industries, and (d) Develop co-operative spirit among the people. The activities of the Mandal are limited to Nawapur taluka only. The Mandal has a managing committee consisting of 18 members elected from the general body. The managing committee elects the chairman, the vice-chairman, the secretary and treasurer.

The Mandal runs a Balmandir and a tailoring class. In 1965 the Mandal had a membership of 200.

In 1964-65, the annual income and the expenditure of the Mandal respectively amounted to Rs. 4,994·28. On the income side the receipts from the Balmandir and the tailoring class amounted to Rs. 1,868·89 and Rs. 1,047·83 respectively. Both these managed their expenses within their income.

Mahatma Gandhi Pustakalaya, Nawapur.

To spread education and to carry out social and cultural activities, Mahatma Gandhi Pustakalaya was founded in 1936. The Pustakalaya with very limited activities at the time of its inception has now increased the sphere of its activity and is popular with public. The Pustakalaya possesses 5,400 books. Besides daily newspapers, many periodicals are made available to the members. In 1964 the Pustakalaya had a membership of 100. The assets of the Pustakalaya were valued at Rs. 12,525·91 in 1964. In the year 1964 its annual income amounted to Rs. 1,500, which was enough to meet its annual expenditure.

The Pustakalaya received grants of Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 300 from the Government and the village panchayat, respectively in 1964.

Rotary Club, Dhulia.

The Rotary Club was established at Dhulia in 1959. It undertakes the following activities: arranging for triple vaccination, and Polio vaccination, conducting a Blood Bank, a Spectacles Bank and an Eye Bank, etc., for the benefit of poor and needy people. The affairs of the Club are looked after by a committee which is composed of the president, the vice-president, the secretary, a joint secretary and a treasurer.

CHAPTER 19—PLACES

AHILYAPUR.

AHILYAPUR IN SHIRPUR TALUKA is an insignificant village but for an old and large well built by Ahilyabai Holkar, the queen of Indore. It is probable that the village derived its name from the builder of the well. It is a fine well with nearly 150 descending steps and thirteen lovely arches overhanging the steps. It contains an image of its builder, and is the only source supplying potable water to the village populace. A *kund* or a small tank has been constructed near this well into which water is pumped by means of an engine. The well is fed by natural springs which provide an abundant supply of water. In the vicinity there is a Mahadev shrine containing besides the *ling*, yet another image of Ahilyabai. Thus the shrine also appears to have been built by Ahilyabai, who is known to have built many temples in Maharashtra and who was a worshipper of Shiv. There is a similar well at Tavalai in Shahada taluka.

AMALI.

Amali, with 921 inhabitants in 1961, is largely an agricultural village in Sakri taluka, known for the shrine dedicated to Vishnu or Kanhaiyalal Maharaj. The story goes that once Raja Makardhvaja of Mulher had been to Dakor, a place near port Okha, to pay his respects to that famous deity. The idol to be seen today in the temple at Amale appeared in his dream and requested the Raja to carry it along with him to Mulher. On Raja's agreeing, the Lord put the condition that the palanquin carrying him should not be put down anywhere on the way. Bhois were engaged to carry the palanquin and the Raja proceeded ahead to get the temple built and make other necessary arrangements. In order to shorten the distance the palanquin bearers cut across the jungles and near Amale when they came across a river they halted to have a dip in it. On being reminded by one of them that if kept down the palanquin would stick to the place, they kept it on a pipal tree . But after coming out of the river they were stupefied to find that the palanquin would not move. No amount of prayers moved the Lord and hence the Bhois had to abandon it. After the lapse of a certain period of time the Lord now approached a poor man from the village by name Pavba Bhagat and requested him to build a small temple for him. Pavba expressed his inability because of his poverty, but the Lord gave him to understand that once made a beginning he would find the necessary wealth underneath the building stones. Pavba

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AMALI.

accordingly undertook the task and everything happened as he was told in the dream.

The idol was then ceremoniously installed by the villagers. Such is the story told about the construction of the temple which took place some 400 years ago. Kanhaiyalal temple, encompassed by a compound wall, is approached by a flight of approximately thirty well designed steps. Within the compound, besides the main temple, there are eight more small ones built to house different other deities. There are also two dilapidated *dharmashalas*. The 1·858 sq. metres (20 ft. square) *sabhamandap* of brick and cement appears to have been constructed at a later date. Black stone has been employed in the construction of the main temple. It is 0·929 square metres (10 ft. square) and contains an idol of Sheshashai (Vishnu) in a reclining pose. It is crowned by a *Shikhar*, the inside of which has been painted with some beautiful pictures. The walls are also similarly decorated. Engraved images of some deities and animals decorate the vestibule jambs. Two dvarpalas flank its entrance. The deity is held in high reverence and is said to fulfil the *navas* or cherished desires of its devotees. In honour of the god a fair attended by over three thousand persons is held on *Kartik Shuddha Ekadashi*.

AMLAD.

Amlad, a village in Taloda taluka, had 1,840 inhabitants in 1961. It contains three antique shrines, all dedicated to Mahadev but known by different names of that deity. The first one of these known as Mahadev temple has its entrance and the base part almost in ruins. The temple holds a *ling* symbol with an image of *nandi* facing it. It is adorned by a richly ornamented *shikhar* studded with four small pillars on the four sides. The shrine is said to have been built during the days of Ahilyabai Holkar.

The second one of the series goes by the name of Nilkantheshvar Mahadev with a vestibule of 4·572 × 6·096 metres (15 ft. × 20 ft.) dimensions containing a *ling* symbol and small images of numerous deities arranged along the course of the wall. It is crowned by a dome-like *Shikhar*. This temple, literally lying amidst ruins, was repaired by one Shambhu Patel. On every Monday of *Shravan* many devotees, even coming from nearby villages, gather at the temple.

The third and the last is called Katkeshvar Mahadev. It has a 9·144 × 4·572 metres (30 feet into 15 feet) *sabhamandap* supported on solid cement pillars forming six arches in between. The vestibule of 3·048 × 3·048 metres (10 feet by 10 feet) dimensions contains a *ling* symbol. Facing it is a *nandi* image installed in the *sabhamandap*. Outside the temple there are a few defaced and broken images of *nandi* of unequal sizes. To the north, not far away is a well with ample water supply.

BALSANE.

Balsane, a village 22·53 km. (14 miles) east of Pimpalner in Sakri taluka with in 1961, 2,078 inhabitants, has well preserved

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BALSANE.

caves and a series of old temples in *hemadpanti* and *Bahamani* style. The chief temple of the style locally known as *hemadpanti*, though small is very graceful and both inside and outside is most richly carved from base to summit. In antiquity as well as in style it closely resembles the late *Brahman* caves at Ellora (725 A.D.). The figures are shapely and the rest of the carvings are minute and delicate. The black stone walls look as if all their mortar had been picked out. But as in other *hemadpanti* temples the stones were probably carved one by one and put together without mortar. In front of the temple is a portion approached by six steps. The pillars at the top of the steps are 1·524 metres (5 ft.) apart and the whole portion is 3·657 metres (12 ft.) wide. The inner hall of the temple, 1·672 metres square (18 sq. ft.) with a doorway in each side, has pillars each about 3·048 metres (10 ft.) high and 0·232 square metres (1½ sq. ft.) at the base. Each pillar has for its capital a horizontal flat cross, with under each a cherub, the palms of whose hands are pressed together as in a prayer. The figures are remarkably perfect and singularly like similar figures in English cathedrals. Some of the other temples and buildings, though less striking are very beautiful. On a lintel in one of them is an inscription.

BETAVAD.

Betavad, with 5,189 inhabitants in 1961, is an old irregularly built town in Sindkheda taluka, 38·62 km. (24 miles) north-east of Dhulia with which it is connected by a good tar road. It has also a railway station, lying a little away from the town proper, on the Bhusawal-Surat section of the Western Railway. It has several large but neglected houses and the whole town wears a gloomy appearance, the municipality here having been abolished long ago. At the time of the British conquest (1817) a Brahman named Daji Gopal, with about three hundred followers held Betavad and exacted contributions from the country around. He gave up on the surrender of Thalner and the British troops occupied it without a clash. It was formerly the headquarters of the old revenue division of Betavad. Betavad has facilities upto secondary education, a subsidised medical practitioner, a post office and a police out-post. Weekly bazar is held on Fridays.

BHAMER.

Bhamer, with 2,146 inhabitants in 1961 is a village in Sakri taluka situated at the foot of a great fortified hill lying 48·28 km. (30 miles) west by north from Dhulia and 4·82 km. (3 miles) south of Nizampur. In olden days it was a stone built town of some note surrounded by a parapet wall. Today it is no more than a village strewn with ruins of the old buildings. The wall surrounding it has become loose and broken down at many places. On the west is a gate flanked by two round towers, almost in ruins, with two monolithic stone pillars about 2·743 metres (9 ft.) high and four gate posts, one of them in its place and the others lying at some distance. The old stone palace with two entrance gates and which served as a government office during Peshwa's time is almost tottering. On one of these gates is carved an animal like an heraldic lion, with

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a circular shield on the right. At either end is an archway, and between the arches on each side of the roadway is a raised terrace between 1·524 and 1·628 metres (five and six feet) high. On each terrace stand two pillars each of the height of about 3·66 metres (12 ft.) and behind each pillar in the side wall is a pilaster, and in each end wall in a line with the pillars are other pilasters. There is a *hemadpanti* or as it is locally known a *Gavali Raj* reservoir near this gateway. Not far from it, ruins of a mosque could be seen.

Fort.

Bhamer, however, is known for its fort known after the village name and more so for the caves or rather monks dwellings that are in the escarpments of the hills above the village. The fort located at the east end of a rugged irregular range of rocky hills is divided from the rest of the range by an artificial chasm. The natural escarpment of the fort that overlooks the village has been strengthened in places by masonry constructions. Though the hill is of a considerable height, the ascent is easy and roundabout. On the southern face is the entrance leading into the fort. Inside are several cisterns of good water as also four large store rooms hollowed out of the rock. There are many ruined gateways and gates and nearly ruined towers. Time has also withered away the artificial fortifications at many places. It is supposed that the town was destroyed while punishing Kale Khan, a Musalman rebel, who had seized it, some hundred and forty six years ago. It never regained its original glory. A remarkable feature in the fort is that its buildings are mostly underground, the escarpment being honeycombed with caves, some of them plain and shapeless, but others regular buildings with pillar-supported roofs. These caves are locally known as *Gavali Raja's* houses. Some of these seem to be of great age while yet others apparently much modern. All the important caves face south-west, and are nearly on one level like the ones at Ellora (Verul) in Aurangabad district. The rock generally overhangs the doorways, and another rising in front forms a sort of a parapet. The first set of three caves open into each other. Their floors are deeply covered with mud. The middle cave about 2·229 m^2 (24 sq. ft.) is the largest. The partition walls are very thin and there is no carving. Tool marks all over the walls indicate that the caves are not only artificial but also unfinished. The next set of caves, also three in number, consists of a large irregularly shaped central and two side caves divided by rock partitions through both of which openings have been made. The roof of the central cave is supported by three columns of rock left to serve as pillars. In two of these pillars, grooves, one in each pillar, have been cut, apparently to support lamps or screen. Beyond this second group are two other caves neither of which is remarkable. About 45·720 metres (50 yds.) further is a water cave divided by a wall of rock about 0·431 metres (15 inches) thick. The mouth of this reservoir has been divided lengthwise into three parts by using two stone pillars. The next group of three caves was formerly used as the fort office. Of these three caves the first is divided by two

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BHAMER Fort.

rows of regularly shaped pillars with pilasters corresponding to them in the walls. It has had a verandah 22·555 metres (74 ft.) in length with an unfinished cell at the left. The doorway has a lintel. The side posts are fluted to the ground and moulded about half way down. In the fluting below the moulded part, are, on the left side of the doorway, two figures about 0·431 metres (15 inches) high. They seem to be male and female serving as *chopdars* or mace bearers. There is also an unidentifiable figure on the right doorpost. There are a number of rude sculptures on the walls of these caves, of Parshvanath and other Jains, much defaced from the decay of the rock, but apparently of the same coarse rough type as those on the Chamar Lena hill. The second cave is in very good preservation and its pillars are divided into successive portions, alternately round and square. The third cave is like, the other two. Beyond these three caves, with a long narrow opening, is a great square hole about 6·09 metres (20 ft.) deep and a little more than 6·09 metres (20 ft.) long and broad. This was used as a dungeon for the prisoners. On the other side of the hill, facing north-east, is an unimportant cave. and in the same side facing north towards Nizampur, is a whole range of caves said to be inaccessible.

BODGAON.

Bodgaon, with 950 souls in 1961, is a small village in Sakri taluka lying about 0·80 km. (two furlongs) off Sakri-Dahivel road. It was formerly known as Bhojpur after the king Bhoj who is supposed to have ruled this region. It is known for several old and in some cases dilapidated temples mostly situated on the banks of the Utavali *nala* flowing past the village. Along the banks of this *nala* there are four temples dedicated to Mahadev, one each to Maruti, Ganapati and Bhavani and a twelve pillared *samadhi* of an unknown saint popularly known as *bara khambi mandir* (twelve pillared temple). Among this group of temples the *bara khambi mandir* containing the *padukas* of the saint and a phallus symbol is of some consequence. It is an attractive dome-like structure supported on twelve solid pillars, the whole standing on a raised platform. The Bhavani shrine has a 4·57 × 4·57 metres (15 feet × 15 feet) *sabhamandap* which is square in shape on the outer side, but octagonal inside. The vestibule containing a well shaped idol of Bhavani is much smaller. Other temples scattered on the *nala* bank are of lesser importance. Not far from the *nala* is a six-bastioned old *gadhi* of which practically nothing remains to-day, containing another temple of Mahadev of 3·05 × 3·05 metres (10 feet × 10 feet) dimensions. It is entered through a lowly constructed entrance with its jambs decorated with artistic designs. To the right it has yet another door. The front part of the *nandi* image installed in the front is partly broken. A tapering *shikhar* with a spire adorns the temple. Bodgaon has two primary schools. Drinking water is obtained from the wells.

BORAD.

Borad, with 4,480 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Taloda taluka lying approximately 16 km. (10 miles) from the taluka headquarters. It also includes the two hamlets of Chhota Dhanpur and New Ban,

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which were until 1955 treated as independent revenue villages. In respect of communications and transport, the village is poorly served. there being only *kutcha* road connecting it with Taloda and Shahada. It is cut off from Taloda during monsoons because of unbridged *nallas* and culverts. Principal crops taken are *kharif* groundnut and *rabi* jovar. Nearly 83 wells fitted with 58 engines, besides meeting the water needs of the village populace serve to irrigate the crops. Being situated hardly about 6·43 km. (4 miles) from one of the densely forested spurs of the Satpudas, the village enjoys a salubrious climate. The Forest department has established a depot here which also serves as a check-post. The village has a primary school, a library conducted by Borad village panchayat, a branch post office and a branch of the district central co-operative bank, Dhulia. There are two temples dedicated to Mahadev and one each to Ram and Hanuman. A weekly bazar is held on Tuesdays and is attended by people coming from nearby villages also.

BRAHMANWEL. *Brahmanwel*, with 4,626 inhabitants in 1961, is largely an agricultural village in Sakri taluka lying about 16 km. (10 miles) west of Nizampur. It has a *samadhi* or stone tomb of a Hindu ascetic of 2·133 × 2·133 metres dimensions (7 feet × 7 feet) and a stone and mortar temple of a Devi, 8·229 × 4·572 metres (27 feet × 15 feet). Both the tomb as well as the temple are in good shape.

BUDHAVAL. *Budhaval*, with 838 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Taloda taluka about 8 km. (5 miles) west of the taluka headquarters. It contains a small shrine built in honour of Ganapati by one Babubhai Shroff. The shrine holds a 0·761 metre (2½ feet) high idol of Ganapati with its trunk turned to the right.

CHIKSE. *Chikse*, with 907 souls in 1961, is largely an agricultural village in Sakri taluka noteworthy on account of a temple dedicated to Gangeshvar which is highly revered by the local populace. The temple though not significant architecturally, has great religious significance attached to it, and on every *Shravan* Monday and *Mahashivratra* people gather in large numbers to pay their respects to the deity. Situated amongst picturesque surroundings on the banks of the Panjhara river, a little over a kilometre off the village, the temple has a small open courtyard with an arched entrance leading into the rather hollowed *mandap*. From here another arched entrance leads into the vestibule which is on a level with the river bed. The *ling* symbol always remains submerged in water which perhaps comes from the river itself. There is an outlet for the water to flow back. The temple is crowned by a spire of *panch dhatu* (an alloy of five metals). Closeby is a 4·572 × 4·572 metres water *kund* (tank) which is supposed to receive water supply from Mangya-Tungya mountains lying east of the temple.

DAHIVEL. *Dahivel*, in Sakri taluka, is a village with 5,215 inhabitants in 1961 lying 19·31 km. (12 miles) west of Sakri and 32·62 km. east of Navapur. Besides, the main settlement it includes eight hamlets

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locally called *padas* and four sub-hamlets. A *bandhara* laid across the river Kan flowing to its east has made possible irrigation of nearly 121·406 hectares (300 acres) of land. Well irrigation also exists side by side. Agriculture is the chief means of subsistence, there being no cottage industries worth the name except four co-operative societies, two of which are engaged in the manufacture of khandsari. Sakri taluka in general being a mountainous area is chiefly inhabited by *adivasis*. For their all-round development a special *adivasi* block besides the one at the taluka level has recently been established here. Dahivel has nine primary schools, eight of them being in the eight hamlets, a high school and a *balavadi*. There are also a post office, a primary health centre with a maternity ward attached to it, an *ayurvedic* dispensary and a veterinary dispensary. A water-works to be installed on the river Kan would soon replace well water. Dahivel has two temples dedicated to Hanuman, two to Mahadev and one to Vitthal. The weekly bazar is held on Thursdays.

DERMAL FORT. *Dermal fort*, lying 25·75 km. (16 miles) south-east of Pimpalner had in 1862 a strong natural position but very few defences. The water supply was abundant.

DHADGAON FORT. *Dhadgaon fort* in Akrani mahal lying about 32·87 km. (20 miles) north of Taloda was repaired in 1862 at the expense of the government. Water was available at the top. It was occupied by some Bhils.

DHANORA. *Dhanora*, with 4,605 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Nandurbar taluka lying about 25·75 km. (16 miles) north-east of Nandurbar. It is said to have derived its name from a certain Gavali king by name Dhana. Recently an underground temple dedicated to Vishveshvar was discovered here. The legend about this temple says that the village priest's wife who was a Vishnu worshipper, was told by the Lord in a vision about his whereabouts. On excavation, to their surprise, the villagers found a small well built cell with steps leading down, containing an idol of Vishnu. Dhanora has also an old *gadhi* lying amidst ruins, with richly carved fragments of an old temple built into its walls. Many beautiful idols of different deities are found inside this *gadhi*. Besides the usual medical and educational facilities, the village has a police outpost and a sub-post office.

DHAYATE. *Dhayate*, in Navapur taluka with 12,120 inhabitants in 1961, is an insignificant village about 64·37 km. (40 miles) north-east of Dhulia. In the beginning of the 17th century (1609) it was noticed as a prosperous market for drugs and pintadoes or calicoes.[1] About 50 years later Tavernier, the famous French traveller and jeweller who visited India no less than five times during the course of 27 years, between 1641 and 1667, mentions it as the next great town from Nizampur encompassed almost around with a river in the midst of a most delicious and prosperous country. To-day this village has lost all its ancient prosperity and glory. It now includes 32 hamlets and has all the usual postal and educational facilities as are available in any other village of its size.

[1] Salbank in Harris, I. 98.

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DHULIA.

Dhulia (*Dhule*) north latitude 21°10′ and east longitude 75°20′ is the chief town of the district as also the headquarters with in 1961, a population of 98,893 persons, lying 57 km. north of Chalisgaon on the Bombay-Nagpur route of the Central Railway, with which it is connected by a broad gauge line. It is situated on the southern bank of the Panjhara on the outer side of the bend of the river near the extremity of the easterly course just before it turns northwards to join the Tapi making its way through the gap in the bounding dyke to its north. It is divided into various parts known as Devpur, Nehrunagar, Vishnunagar, Old Dhulia, New Peth, Madhavpura, Moglaipura, Kumarnagar and the like. The town has to its north the Panjhara, to the south Laling hills and to the east and west a rather barren rolling plain.

The town and its suburbs, covering an area of nearly 10·3 sq. miles (26·68 km²) are well shaded by avenues of fine trees. The Bombay-Agra road now forms the central business thoroughfare, the core being located in the Gandhi *chouk* before this road crosses the Panjhara. However, now the through traffic has been diverted eastwards of this road within the city to avoid this busy section.

History.

The earliest tangible remains of the existence of human habitation in the region belong to the Old Stone Age, when the early man fashioned large stone tools from large pebbles in river beds and appropriated them for hunting wild animals and digging herbs. Recent surveys of the Girna and Tapi valleys, especially at Prakashe and Dhulia along the Tapi and Panjhara respectively, have brought to light several palaeolithic tools which shed considerable light on the activities of the early man in this region. The excavations at Prakashe have yielded in the upper levels a kind of glass ware, popularly known as the Northern Black Polished Ware, attributed to 4th-3rd centuries B.C., roughly representing the period of Ashok, the Mauryan ruler. These belong to an epoch about which nothing is otherwise known of Khandesh. Inscriptions in the caves at Pitalkhora, incised during this period, go to show that the region had contacts with Paithan, the capital of the Satavahana dynasty.

Dhulia, undoubtedly formed a part of the Satavahana dominions during the early centuries of the Christian era. *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea*,[1] a work composed in A.D. 90-95, mentions that wagonloads of goods were brought down to Barygaza (Broach) from Paithan and Tagara (modern Ter in Osmanabad district). It is natural to conclude that the old trade route lay along the banks of the Tapi and through Dhulia. We have no definite knowledge about the history of Dhulia during the Satavahana period. It is likely that the territory was governed by Gautamiputra Satakarni[2] after a short Kshaharata interregnum, and remained in the hands of the Satavahanas till the decline of that dynasty in about 250 A.D.

[1] Schoff, *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea* (New York 1912).
[2] *Epigraphia Indica*, VIII, p. 60 ff., *Luders List* No. 1123.

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History.

No authentic history of Dhulia can be recorded till about the beginning of the 4th century A.D. Shirpur plates of Maharaja Rudradasa[1] and other records[2] indicate that certain rulers called Svamidasa, Bhulunda and Rudradasa were ruling in Khandesh in about A.D. 316-367; but the data is very meagre and hardly convincing.[3] Towards the close of the 5th century A. D. the Chalukyas under Pulakeshi I extended their kingdom as far south as Vatapi (Badami) and Khandesh was probably held by their vassals, the Sendrakas. Immediately after the Sendrakas, of whom the last ruler Viradeva is known from a copper-plate charter dated Shaka 624 (A.D. 702) found at Mehunbare in Jalgaon,[4] this region seems to have come in the possession of the Rashtrakutas. After the downfall of the Rashtrakutas several minor feudatory families are found to be ruling in Dhulia and who owed their allegiance to a new power *viz.*, the Yadavas. The Yadavas of Devagiri came into prominence during the last quarter of the 13th century A.D. They had previously been ruling over Seunadesha (Khandesh) as feudatories of the Chalukyas of Kalyani. The Yadava dynasty produced a series of remarkable and capable rulers who gave peace and prosperity to the country. The Yadavas yielded to the onslaught of Ala-ud-din Khilji who invaded the kingdom in 1294. In A.D. 1318 the Hindu kingdom of Devagiri came to an end. The Khiljis retained their hold over that territory upto 1370. In that year the *subhas* of Thalner and Karavandi were granted to Malik Raja Faruqi by Sultan Firoz Tughlug and undoubtedly Dhulia was included in these *subhas*. During his days two forts or *gadhis* were built in Devpur and Old Dhulia areas respectively of which the one in Devpur was washed away in the 1872 floods of the Parjhara which caused considerable damage. It was controlled by the Faruqis till 1600. From its nearness to the important fort of Laling, Dhulia is probably a very old settlement. During the reign of Akbar, Khandesh, of which Dhulia formed a part, came to be dominated by the Moghals, and early in the 17th Century (1629) when the Delhi emperors were bringing Khandesh into order the village of 'Dholiya' is mentioned as the place where Khvaja Abul Hasan, Shah Jahan's general passed the rainy season.[5]

In 1723, Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah I, who was the Moghal governor of Malva, revolted against that power and became independent. He died in 1748. His son Salabat Jung was the Nizam in 1752 when he was defeated by the Marathas at Bhalki. As per the terms of the treaty of Bhalki practically the entire Khandesh came under the control of the Marathas and remained so until 1818. In the

[1] *Indian Antiquary*, XVI, p. 98.
[2] Cf. *Epigraphia Indica*, XV, p. 286.
[3] Cf Mirashi "*A New Dynasty in Khandesh*". *Acharya Pushpanjal Volume*; and *Samshodhana Muktavali*, II pp. 72-78.
[4] *Indian Archaeology-A Review for* 1957-58, p. 56.
[5] *Badshah Nama in Elliot's History*, VII, p. 10.

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History.

famine that befell the country in 1803, Dhulia was completely deserted. In the following year Balaji Balvant a dependent of Vitthal Narsing Vinchurkar repeopled the village and in return received from the Vinchurkar a deed granting him certain lands and privileges.[1] At the same time he repaired the *gadhi* in Devpur and built the division known as Ganesh Peth in Old Dhulia. Being afterwards entrusted with the entire management of the districts of Songir and Laling, Balaji Balvant fixed his headquarters at Dhulia and continued to exercise his authority till 1818, in which year the country passed to the British. In 1819 Captain Briggs, the first political agent, probably for its central position and because it was on the high road between Poona and Hindustan, made Dhulia the district headquarters. The town was then very small, shut in by the water channel and the river, and without a workman to make even a simple screw. When Captain Briggs took over, the town had only three divisions, *viz.* Old Dhulia, Devpur and Moglai, New Dhulia and Peth, previously known as Briggs Peth, being his creations. Merchants and others were invited from Burhanpur; master carpenters and smiths were brought from Bombay and Surat and a residence and three offices were built. The building in which the sub-registrar's office is housed today was his head office. The ground for the new town was granted rent free, liberal advances were made to traders and others to enable them to build, and freedom from tax was promised. Public buildings gradually sprang up and old inhabitants returned and shop keepers and traders from all parts of the country came and settled. Gradually many industries were set up and thus Dhulia was once again put on the way to prosperity.

Description.

The framework of the city is made up of a number of parallel lanes, the Bombay-Agra road itself forming the third lane from the west, and cross streets at right angles to them. The easternmost of these north-south streets is known as the *satvi galli* or the seventh street mainly inhabited by persons engaged in spinning, weaving and dyeing industries, and adjoining to this is the Vadjai road where a great amount of weaving takes place on power looms. Ranoji Shinde road, the sixth street, is fairly broad and is mostly lined with two storied houses. The fifth street is comparatively narrow, being lined with old and dilapidated houses, hardly any of them being double storied. The fourth street, the one immediately to the east of the Bombay-Agra road, is a broad one flanked by prosperous looking houses chiefly inhabited by businessmen. Immediately west of the Agra road is the Kalyan Svami street which has again well built and roomy residences, most of them two or three storied. The public offices, the upper class residences and many of the educational

[1] The deed states that the district had been ruined first by the rebels and then by a famine; that the few inhabitants had fled; that the country round was overgrown with brushwood and that Balaji had cleared the thickets and brought traders and husbandmen to settle, had helped them with money to build houses, had established a mart and had in other respects made the town habitable. Mr. Pollen. C. S.

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Description.

institutions are found in this higher western part of the town. Beyond the Panjhara bridge is the suburb of Devpur, in which is located the Arts and Science College of Dhulia.

The older part of the town with its quaintly grouped houses and hovels, is also the low lying area of the town and serves as poor class residences in general. As an example along Shankar Shet road running eastwards from the Gandhi chowk, old type of houses built of stone and mortar are to be found. The buildings along this road steadily deteriorate as one proceeds eastwards, the extreme north-east corner having only huts of mud walls. This part is rural in appearance with buffalo and cattle sheds near the Panjhara river. South of this is the road running towards Parola, on the northern side of which is the newly built Gandhinagar housing colony, with Phule housing colony for the poorer classes lying further north of this. The Parola road is the main timber market area of the town, there being several timber depots with their power driven saw mills. There are also a few cotton and oil mills. Some more oil mills are to be found along the road to Chalisgaon. The principal industrial extension is to be found along the Bombay-Agra road to the south of the town. Here are located on both sides of the road several automobile repair shops, several large oil mills, and some ginning and pressing factories. There is also a spinning and weaving mill and an agriculture produce market committee in the town. The railway station lies in the south west corner of the town where are located the Burma Shell, Esso and other oil installations. Besides the railway connection Dhulia has fine roads linking it with many of the important commercial centres. It is served by the state transport bus service.

Though most of the country round is dull and barren, from the north side of the river with the bridge as a foreground and the Laling hills in the distance, the view of Dhulia with its temples and houses rising from among trees girt with gardens, watered fields and mango groves, is rich and picturesque. Pleasant during the cold season, Dhulia is very trying during the hot season, and in the rains though tempered with south-west winds, the air is hot and close.

Municipality.

Constitution: Established in 1862,[1] the Dhulia municipal jurisdiction extends over an area of 26·75 km² (10·33 sq. miles). It has a committee presided over by a president. The committee looks after the municipal administration.

Finance: In 1963-64, the municipal income amounted to Rs. 31,60,868. It comprised municipal rates and taxes Rs. 20,09,911; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 3,35,159; grants and contributions Rs. 7,68,175 and miscellaneous Rs. 47,623. As against this the expenditure during the same year totalled Rs. 33,83,334. The items that comprised the

[1] According to Old *Khandesh Gazetteer*, 1860, p. 445.

expenditure were general administration Rs. 5,89,883; public safety Rs. 1,60,114; public health and convenience Rs. 18,57,138; public instruction Rs. 6,11,959 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,64,240. Both the income as well as the expenditure figures given here do not include income accrued from or expenditure incurred due to extraordinary and debt heads.

Markets and Buildings: The town has been provided with four well built markets of which two are for vegetables and fruits, one for cloth and the other for grains and cereals. In 1967 yet another vegetable market was constructed at a cost of Rs. 1,10,000. It is the most modern and up-to-date market in the town. To facilitate traffic between the main town and the suburb of Devpur lying across the Panjhara, a causeway has been constructed across that river at a cost of three and a quarter lakhs of rupees. Thus far, only the Panjhara bridge over which the Agra road runs formed the connecting link between these two parts of the town. The buildings housing the municipal offices are of its own propriety. It has already provided the sweepers and the scavenging staff with residential accommodation. There is a proposal to build quarters for the administrative staff also.

Health, Sanitation and Water Supply: To cater to the medical needs of the comparatively poorer section of the population the town municipality has set up six dispensaries (five allopathic and one *ayurvedic*) and a maternity home. In some of these, arrangement is made for the honorary services of noted surgeons in order to give the public expert medical advice. Family planning centres have also been attached to some of these dispensaries. There are also a government civil hospital, a T. B. clinic, a mission hospital and quite a few well equipped private clinics and maternity homes. Separate arrangements are made to check the spread of diseases and outbreak of various epidemics as the occasion demands. The veterinary dispensary of the town is conducted by the Zilla Parishad.

As yet the town has no underground drainage system, except in a few localities. The drains consist of *pucca* open gutters. However, arrangement is made to collect the sewage water in septic tanks, from where it is supplied to the farms. To-day the area so covered stands at 40·47 hectares (100 acres). Compost manure is also prepared and sold in auction. Realising the need of keeping the town clean sanitarily, an underground drainage scheme estimated to cost approximately fifty lakhs of rupees has been prepared. The government sanction, as also a loan to the tune of Rs. 35 lakhs has already been obtained and will soon be implemented. A slum clearance scheme estimated to cost nearly Rs. 5,04,100 has also been drawn up. It will receive a grant of 15 per cent. each from the Union and the State Governments.

Two water-works, viz. Dedargaon water works, 11·26 km. (seven miles) distant from the town, and the Panjhara water-works

supply water to the town. While the former was built in 1892, the latter was constructed in two stages at a cost of rupees five and six lakhs respectively. A filtration plant consisting of six filtration galleries has also been installed. These two water-works meet the water needs of the people effectively.

Education: Compulsory primary education is enforced and looked after by the town municipality which alone conducts over fifty primary schools, besides the private ones and the montessories. Of these fifteen are housed in their own buildings, ten in the premises provided by government and the remaining in rented premises. Two middle schools are also maintained. Dhulia has comparatively better facilities as far as high school and college education is concerned. There are over eleven high schools, most of them conducted by private bodies, of which the Garud high school is the oldest. For higher education and courses in teaching there are the following institutions:

Arts and science college, commerce college, agricultural college, government basic training college, Aghava primary training college, industrial training institute, polytechnic and Dhulia Education Society's college of education.

The town has quite a few libraries but a special mention may be made of the following: Rajvade Samshodhan Mandir library, Garud library, Urdu library, Prani Rakshak Sanstha library and the one maintained by the municipality.

Fire Fighting Service: In all four well-equipped fire-fighters are maintained. Some of these are utilised to water the roads during summer.

Cremation and Burial grounds: One cremation ground in Devpur locality and three burial grounds in other localities of the town are maintained by the town municipality. Besides these, there are seven more cremation and burial grounds maintained and used by the various communities.

Amenities: Dhulia is a populous town and has many recreational facilities. It has many private clubs, associations and *mandals* and the like. Though not lacking in theatres, the municipality has constructed an open air theatre and a stadium at a cost of rupees one lakh and rupees one lakh ten thousand respectively. It has laid out and maintained four parks, of which the one named after Sardar Patel is the most modern and best of all. It has cost one lakh rupees.

The town has also research institutes like Rajwade Samshodhan Mandir, Shri Samarth Vagdevata Mandir carrying on and promoting research in historical studies.

Objects.

There are a few religious buildings. On the left of the Agra road there is a small pretty Vithoba's temple, with a canopy, *chhatri*,

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very neatly carved in the style of a Muhammedan cupola. Its foundation and outer wall were much damaged during the 1872 floods of the Panjhara. On the other side of the road, on a lower level than the bridge and saved by it in the 1872 flood stand temples of Ram and Ganapati, built by one Bhagoji Naik, a wealthy Vanjari. Though much hidden by buildings and trees their spires are seen from miles across the river. The temples were painted red, blue, yellow and geeen but the 1872 floods washed off the colour. Since then they have not been painted again. They are adorned with figures of animals and birds. In the old town is a temple sacred to Ekvira Devi, an ordinary two storied house with a strong wooden and tiled roof. In the new town are two Jain temples not differing in appearance from ordinary dwellings. On the Agra road is another temple sacred to Ram locally known as Pattabighi Ram built one Narayan Baba Brahmachari with the help of one Khushal Damodar-das at a cost of Rs. 40,000. The stone employed for its construction is told to have been brought from Nagpur. In the front is a verandah built on a plinth of carved stone with an upper storey used as a drum-chamber or *nagarkhana*. Inside of the verandah is a square *chauk* surrounded by a plinth of carved stone. Opposite the main door a flight of steps leads to the shrine. Besides these, there are temples dedicated to *Nav Grahas*, Dnyaneshwar and Narayan Maharaj Math. There is also a Trivikram temple of recent construction.

Other Objects. Of the Muslim places of worship besides many small mosques, including the well built mosque at the end of the Ganesh suburb, the most important is the one known as Anjan Shah Data. It is said to be over a thousand years old.

On the Panjhara are two well built *ghats* known as Patale Ghat and Jivanram Jodhram Ghat.

The *gadhi* in old Dhulia standing on the banks of Panjhara and built during the days of Malik Raja Faruqi is fairly in a good condition. But for this *gadhi* which affords a sort of protection to the riverside part of the town, a part of old Dhulia would have been washed away in the 1944 floods.

There is also the Nakana tank, situated three miles (4·82 km.) west of Dhulia town. Its waters are taken to the fields by means of a canal which passes through the heart of the town. The municipality proposes to build a park there and name it as Javaharlal Nehru National Park.

Dhulia has also statues installed in honour of Mahatma Jyotiba Phule, Chhatrapati Shivaji, Rani Lakshmibai of Jhanshi, Maharana Pratap and Mahatma Gandhi.

DONDAICHA. *Dondaicha* is a municipal town of 15,578 inhabitants in Sindkheda taluka, commanding a central position in the district. It has sprung up on a rising ground between the Bhogawati and Amaravati rivers which drain the town. The town is of great commercial

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importance. Next only to Dhulia, it is the most important market for groundnut, cotton, lentils, chillis and *gul* in the district. From here groundnut-oil and cake and cotton are sent to Bombay and Ahmadabad. There are quite a few oil and *dal* mills and ginning and pressing factories. Dondaicha is well served in respect of transport and communications, there being a railway station, good tar roads connecting it with various district towns of importance, telephone exchange and post and telegraph facilities. The setting up of the Tapi valley railway especially has gone a long way in enhancing its commercial importance.

Municipality.

The municipality here was established in 1952. It has an area of 24·09 km² (9·3 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The president, elected by the councillors from among themselves, looks after the administrative business, aided by the necessary staff.

Finance: In 1963-64 the municipal income derived from various heads like municipal rates and taxes, realizations under special acts, revenue from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, grants and miscellaneous but excluding receipts due to extra-ordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 4,68,342. As against this it incurred an expenditure of Rs. 4,68,268 on various heads such as general administration and collection, public health and convenience, public safety, public instruction, grants and contributions and miscellaneous. The expenditure figure excluded expenditure incurred on account of extra-ordinary and debt-heads.

Municipal Works: Besides the building housing various municipal offices, a mutton market and a slaughter house have been provided. Two causeways, one each across the Bhogavati and the Amaravati have also been laid. Daily and weekly bazars are held in the open near the Bhogavati river. There is an equestrian bronze statue of Shivaji at the corner of the cottage hospital of the town. To promote cultural activities a hall named as *Mangala Karyalaya* or a sort of a community hall has recently been built. A place has also been set aside for the laying of a garden.

Health and Sanitation and water supply: A cottage hospital with 30 beds and an attached outpatients dispensary is conducted by the municipality. The hospital building was constructed in 1963-64 at a total cost of 2,82,000. The veterinary dispensary of the town is managed by the Zilla Parishad. Due precautionary measures are taken to check and prevent the outbreak of epidemics effectively. There are only open drains and gutters. However, the municipality has drawn up a scheme estimated to cost seven lakhs of rupees for underground drainage. Presently the town derives water supply from the shallow wells sunk in the river beds. A water-works scheme estimated to cost rupees ten lakhs has already received government's sanction. Dondaicha, thus would soon have tap water supply.

Education: Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is managed by the Zilla Parishad. The annual municipal contribution

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towards this end amounts to Rs. 14,000. The town has six primary and four middle schools and two montessories. High schools which number four are privately managed. Of these one is a multipurpose high school. The total annual municipal grants to these institutions amount to Rs. 7,000. Cash prizes are awarded by the municipality to the candidates obtaining maximum number of marks with a view to instilling a sense of competition among students of all the standards.

Other Amenities: For fire-fighting one fully equipped fire-fighter is maintained.

A library with a collection of nearly two to three thousand books is maintained by the municipality. Periodicals in five different languages are provided. It receives 23 monthlies and weeklies, and 14 dailies.

Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

Objects.

Dondaicha has temples dedicated to Gopalkrishna, Sati, Mahadev and Kashmiri Hanuman. Of these the first one is the most important. It is situated in Gopalpura locality, probably called after the temple on the banks of the Bhogavati river. It is a simple structure built in stone and mortar with a specious *sabhamandap* and a much smaller vestibule. Inside the vestibule on a marble pedestal stands 1·371 metres (4½ feet) high marble idol of Gopalkrishna. The temple is crowned by a tall *Shikhar* and has a *ghat* of 25 steps leading down to the river bed. A fair beginning with *Phalgun Vadya Pratipada* and lasting till *Ashtami* is held in honour of the deity. It is attended by eight to ten thousand persons. A similar fair is held in honour of the Sati also. Another object of interest is an old *gadhi* or a fortress owned by the Ravals. It is situated near the confluence of the two rivers which drain the town. Dondaicha has also an old jumma *masjid* and a dargah of one Daval Shah Vali at which an *urus* is held in the month of May.

INDAVE.

Indave, in Sakri taluka with 1,517 inhabitants in 1961, is known for a small but ancient temple dedicated to Indai Goddess standing on the banks of a built up lake which practically goes dry during summer. The wall around the lake has given way at many places. Inside the lake there is a built in well holding good water throughout the year with another built in *kund* nearby which has a hot water spring. The waters of the spring are supposed to have potent effects in curing skin diseases. The temple contains a four handed image of the goddess artistically carved on a stone slab with two smaller ones flanking the sides. It is depicted as sitting on a lion and killing a buffalo with the *trishul.* The second right hand is armed with a sword and the left holding a demon's head and a discus. People hold the goddess in deep reverence and make numerous offerings in fulfilment of their cherished desires.

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INDAVE.

On *Chaitra Shuddha* 9, a fair attended by over 4,000 persons is held in honour of the goddess. On the occasion a bullock drawn two or three storeyed chariot like cart with entertaining parties is taken around the village. It is locally called as *Tagatrao.* There is also an old temple of Mahadev. The village has a branch post office and a primary school.

JAVADE.

Javade, a village lying 16 km. (10 miles) north-west of Shahada seems to have been the site of large and populous town. Some years back some Buddhist sculptures in white marble, apparently of the same period and style as those of Ajanta were found in the forest and sent to the Prince of Wales Museum.[1]

LALING FORT.

Laling, a small village with 1,549 inhabitants in 1961 in Dhulia taluka, is known for an old and ruined fort occupying the top of a hill 9·65 km. (6 miles) south of Dhulia. It is a place of considerable antiquity and the fort is supposed to have been built during the reign of the first of the Faruqi Kings. The fact that this fort and not that of Thalner was granted by Malik Raja (1370-1399) to his eldest son would show that Laling was his chief fort. It was in this fort that Nasir Khan and his son Miran Adil Khan were besieged in 1437 by the Bahamani general till they were relieved by an army advancing from Gujarat. Early in the seventeenth century it is mentioned more than once in connection with the movements of the Moghal troops' Deccan campaigns.[2] In 1862, the fort is described, as strongly situated with very few defences left. Laling besides the fort has two *hemadpanti* temples in a decayed condition. There is also a ruined *hemadpanti* well.

MANDANE.

Mandane is a village with 2,337 souls in 1961 in Shahada taluka lying about 16 km. (10 miles) east of Shahada. It has a very high fort in which is a singularly well carved, small white marble image.

METHI.

Methi is Primarily an agricultural village in Sindkheda taluka lying 48·28 km. (30 miles) west of Dhulia on Dhulia-Shahada road. In 1961 it had 2,405 inhabitants. There is only one primary school and a *bal sangopan kendra* looked after by a nurse who also renders medical aid to the villagers.

The village is known for a group of temples situated close by the grampanchayat office, said to have been built during the times of the Yadava kings. Other temples in the district that are said to have been built during the Yadava period are located at Balsane, Dhabadev, Vikhran, Bahal and Patan. A stone inscription traced at Methi states that Yadava kings had made land-grants for the maintenance of these temples. Of this group the ones dedicated to Balaji and Bhavani are the most important and hence deserve some attention. The former is an old *hemadpanti* temple with three

1 Mr. Grawley-Boevey H. S.
2 *Ellior,* VII, 35, 102.

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pinnacles and 20 pillars. It stands on a broad raised platform with a frontal entrance approached by a flight or stone-stairs. It has a spacious *mandap*-hall and a much smaller vestibule joined together by a small passage of 1·828 × 1·219 metres (6 feet × 4 feet) dimensions. The entrance leading from this passage into the vestibule has its lintel and jambs richly ornamented with delicate and beautiful architectural work. In the canopy in the centre of the vestibule was previously a 1·219 metres high idol of Balaji. Its place has now been taken by those of Pandurang and Rukmini, the original idol lying outside the temple with one of its hands broken. Outside the temple premises a dome-like structure standing on four pillars houses the *vahan* or carrier of the god. Though the idol of Balaji has been removed, the temple is still known as Balaji temple.

Of the Bhavani temple only the 2·438 × 2·438 metres (8 feet × 8 feet) vestibule and the porch remain, the 6·096 × 6·096 metres (20 feet × 20 feet) *mandap* having collapsed before long. Even the vestibule is in a bad state of repair. However, the fragments lying scattered around give an idea of the sculptural accomplishments of the temple. Excellently carved human figurines in different poses decorate the jambs of the vestibules. On either side of the porch there are niches containing shapely female figures. The idol of Bhavani standing on a stone pedestal occupies the central position in the vestibule. It is proportionately shaped and moulded.

Besides the above noted temples, the village also contains an old *gadhi* and a temple dedicated to Mahadev. The *gadhi* is located almost in the heart of the village and is known as *Gosavyachi gadhi*. Situated on the banks of a rivulet on the outskirts of the village, the temple of Mahadev lies amidst ruins. It consists, like the above noted temples, of a *mandap*, with a dome at the centre supported on four massive pillars, a *gabhara* or vestibule and the joining passage. Though the ceiling of the *mandap* has collapsed the supporting pillars, with some noteworthy carvings still remain. The inner shrine contains a *ling* of Mahadev. Old age has withered away its spire.

MOD.

Mod, situated on Taloda-Borad road, is a village of 2,025 inhabitants lying 12·87 km. (8 miles) from Taloda, its taluka headquarters. Besides groundnut and jovar, which are the principal crops, wheat is also successfully cultivated. Nearly 61 wells fitted with engines serve the double purpose of meeting the water needs of the village and irrigating the crops. Mod has a primary school and a co-operative society. There are three temples dedicated to Mahadev, Hanuman and Devi respectively.

MOHIDA-TARF-HAVELI.

Mohida-tarf-haveli is a small village in Shahada taluka with 394 inhabitants in 1961, known for a group of old Jain caves on the banks of the Gomai river.[1] Excavated in the bed-rock of the river, the caves are roofless, and hence usually remain filled with water

[1] The caves were discovered by Shri S. A. Sali, of the Archaeological Survey of India.

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MOHIDA-TARF-HAVELI.

and debris. The first of these, is an oblong hall containing images of Jain *tirthankaras* in niches. Its *garbha-griha* contains an image, probably that of Adinath, which is the main deity, and on the walls those of other *tirthankaras*. Cave 2 is an irregular oblong hall with similar images. The *garbha-griha* also contains an image in mutilated condition.

MUDAVAD.

Mudavad, with 2,119 inhabitants in 1961 is a village in Sindkheda taluka, lying 8 km. (5 miles) north of Betavad, which has also a railway station. It is drained by two rivers, *viz.* the Tapi and the Panjhara which flow from the north and east respectively. Their confluence is in the vicinity of the Kapileshvar shrine for which the village is renowned. Being situated in the Tapi valley the soil is very fertile and besides the principal crops of cotton, jowar and wheat, gram and lentils are also grown. Mudavad has a gram-panchayat, a branch post office, a primary school, a multipurpose society and a crop protection society. Drinking water is obtained from the wells. A motorable road connects it with Betavad which is also a railway station.

The ancient temple of Kapileshvar Mahadev, reported to have been built by Ahilyabai Holkar, stands on a high bank of the Tapi, overlooking the confluence of the Tapi and the Panjhara. To prevent the erosion of the high bank on which the temple stands, it was revetted with masonry but the entire work including the courtyard wall was washed away by the devastating floods of the Tapi which took place some eleven years ago. Fortunately this lovely monument escaped the fury of the floods. A stone-masonry *ghat* leads up from the river base to the temple at the end of which is a 7·620 metres (25 ft.) high *dipmal*, broad at the base and tapering towards the top. In the courtyard there is a *dharmashala* in a ruined state.

The 4·58 × 3·04 metres (15 feet × 10 feet) temple *mandap* has one front and two side passage-like entrances, each flanked on either side by two pillars. Though small the *mandap* shape and decorations exhibit a high order of architectural taste. It has in all 23 pillars including those flanking the entrances, bearing some kind of designs or the other. In the front wall of the *gabhara* are sunk two richly decorated but vacant niches, each having above the top two figures of elephants with entangled trunks carved in relief. A few human figures are also depicted as stooping down. Likewise the entrance to the 3·04 × 3·04 metres (10 feet × 10 feet) vestibule is gorgeously decorated with lovely patterns. In its centre is installed a large-sized *ling* with two more smaller ones flanking the sides. In the background are images of Parvati and Ganapati. A marble image of *nandi* installed on a pedestal in the courtyard faces the *ling* inside. A tapering *shikhar* artistically decorated with niche-like designs and proportionately shaped divine and animal figurines, crowns the vestibule. The *mandap* is also crowned with a big dome-like

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structure; there are like replicas, but smaller ones, crowning the above mentioned *mandap* entrance. While the *shikhar* and the domes are of bricks and *chunam*, the temple is of solid stone masonry.

Within the same campus there is a small shrine dedicated to Dattatraya shaded by a few *neem* trees and an *umber* tree. The village has also a temple honouring Purnanand Svami.

On *Magh Vadya Trayodashi* a fair attended by over a lakh of persons is held in honour of Kapileshvar Mahadev. It is one of the biggest fairs held in Dhulia district and lasts for twelve days. Merchants dealing in brass and copper ware, agricultural implements and timber figure prominently. A *yatra* committee formed for the purpose looks after the arrangements. Taxes are collected by the Mudavad grampanchayat.

NAGPUR KOKALE. *Nagpur Kokale*, a village in Sakri taluka lying about 4·82 km. (3 miles) south of Sakri, had 51 inhabitants in 1961. It is known for an otherwise insignificant temple, except religiously, dedicated to *Nagai*, situated on the left bank of the Panjhara river. It is held in deep reverence by the people of the district and contains two images carved in relief on a stone slab kept leaning against the back wall. The original structure was of masonry but now has almost been rebuilt with bricks and mortar. The temple consists of a single chamber. It has in front a large masonry tank, *kund*, of 14·935 × 21·192 metres (49 feet × 40 feet) dimensions. There is another *kund* close by which gets water from the first one, spilled from a *gomukh*. Closeby are some uncared for tombs believed to be of some saintly persons. At the time of the fair which is held on *Mahashivratra*, the adjoining *dharmashalas* are cleaned and repaired by the Zilla Parishad for the convenience of the people. The fair is attended by a large congregation. On every Monday of *Shravan* many devotees visit the temple and offer sweet preparations. Some marriages are also solemnised here. Around, there are a number of mango and neem trees offering sufficient shade and a few *kevda* plants.

NANDURBAR. *Nandurbar*, with 41,055 inhabitants in 1961, is the headquarters of the taluka of the same name, about 51·50 km. (32 miles) north-west of Dhulia, the district headquarters. It is one of the oldest towns in Khandesh. The laying out of the Tapi valley railway line, on which Nandurbar is situated, has stimulated its trade and commerce. It is perhaps one of the biggest markets for chillis in Maharashtra. Commodities like *tur*, *udid*, *mug*, *ambadi*, til oil and timber are sent to places like Bombay, Ahmedabad, Surat, etc. The town has an agricultural produce market committee and many small scale industries.

History. Nandigriha, mentioned in Kanheri Cave Inscription of the third century is identified with modern Nandurbar. According to a local story it was founded by Nand, a Gavali Raja and remained in the

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hands of his family till the advent of the Muslims, whose leader Samin Moin-ud-din Chisti, helped by the saint Sayyad Sadat Pir, commonly known as Sayyad Ala-ud-din Pir, defeated the Gavali kings and wrested it from them[1]. Ibn Batuta who visited Nandurbar about the middle of the 14th century (1342) mentions it as a place inhabited by the Marathas.[2] Malik Raja, the first of the Faruqi dynasty, captured Nandurbar along with Sultanpur in 1370 but was soon forced to retire to Thalner by Sultan Muzaffar Shah of Gujarat who rapidly marched against him.[3]

In 1429, the Chief of Jalvara, a fugitive from Gujarat plundered Nandurbar with the aid of Malik Nasir and a small force which he had raised to release his country.[4] Muhammad Shah III on ascending the throne of Gujarat in 1536 made over Nandurbar and Sultanpur to Mubarak Khan Faruqi as promised when in confinement at Asirgad.[5] In the confusion and instability that followed Muhammad's death these two places were invaded and taken by Changiz Khan of Gujarat. But shortly after he had to give them up. At the close of the century these two *sirkars* were taken from Khandesh and made over to Malva by Akbar when he came in possession of Khandesh. The *Ain-i-Akbari* of Abul Fazl mentions the *sirkar* of Nandurbar as measuring 859,604 *bighas* (644,730 acres) and yielding a yearly revenue of 50,162, 250 *dams*. It was very rich in musk melons and grapes. The transfer to Malva, if ever carried out, seems to have lasted for a short-time, for early in the seventeenth century (1609), Nandurbar is mentioned among Khandesh towns as dealing in brass-ware, suits of armour, berries, drugs, pintados, or calicoes, cotton yarn, wool, and coarse cloth. In 1610 it is mentioned as a city with a castle, pleasure house and many tombs. Half a century later Tavernier described it as enjoying considerable prosperity and renowned for its grapes and melons.[6] In 1695 it was a large town and so rich that on one occasion, without any general pillage a sum of Rs. 1,700,000 was raised from the bankers.[7]

At the opening of the 19th century the disasters that befell Khandesh affected Nandurbar also. It was more than half deserted in 1818 when it passed into the possession of the British.[8] In 1820 it is mentioned as formerly of great importance enclosed by the ruins

1 In the battle, the Gavli prince engaging in personal conflict with the saint struck off his head. The headless body continued to fight and the Hindu army seized with a panic fled. The trunk then picked up the head and led the victorious army to a neighbouring hill, where the earth parted and swallowed it. Mr. J. Pollen, C. S.

2 Yules *Cathay*, II 415.

3 *Briggs Ferishta*, IV, 283.

4 *Ibid* 239.

5 *Ibid* II, 315.

6 Tavernier in Harris, II. 352.

7 *Elliot* VII. 363.

8 A detachment under Major Jardine took possession of Nandurbar, a town of considerable size in 1818. Hamilton's *Description of Hindostan* II, 100-101.

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of a wall 5·180 km.² (two miles square) containing 500 houses and yielding a revenue of Rs. 12,000.[1] Under the British, Nandurbar could never regain its original importance and prosperity.

Nandurbar had its own share in the Indian struggle for independence. It was here that during the Quit India Movement of 1942 Shirishkumar, a mere boy of 15 years, lost his life by a gun shot. A small memorial has been erected in memory of Shirishkumar in the square where he shed his blood.

Municipality.

The municipality was established in 1867. At present it has an area of 35·48 km.² (13·7 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The administrative affairs are looked after by a committee of 27 councillors presided over by the president.

Finance : In 1963-64 income of the municipality derived from various sources like taxes, income from property and powers apart from taxation, grants and contributions and miscellaneous amounted to Rs. 9,79,442. As against this its expenditure stood at Rs. 9,27,952. The main items of expenditure were administration and collection charges, public health, safety, convenience and miscellaneous.

Health, Sanitation and Water Supply : Apart from private clinics and dispensaries the municipality conducts an allopathic dispensary with a maternity ward attached to it and another ayurvedic dispensary. Housing accommodation to the medical staff has been provided at a cost of Rs. 37,000. The veterinary dispensary of the town is looked after by the government. Adequate measures are taken to prevent the outbreak of epidemic diseases. The town has only stone-lined gutters with cesspools. The drainage scheme was implemented in the stages and has cost nearly Rs. 5,81,000. In 1932 was constructed the first water works supplying tap water to the inhabitants at a cost of Rs. 4,00,000. However, to meet the increased demand of the growing population another scheme has been undertaken to augment the water supply. It is estimated to cost Rs. 7,00,000.

Education : Primary education is compulsory. It has been entrusted to the care of the Zilla Parishad. The annual municipal contribution towards this end comes to Rs. 34,000. A high school managed by the municipality costs the municipal exchequer approximately Rs. 87,343 annually. Besides, there are eight more privately managed high schools and an arts and commerce college. The town has one municipal managed and three privately conducted libraries.

Fire Service : Two well-equipped fire-fighters are maintained by the municipality for this purpose. Besides this fire extinguishers gas cylinders are also maintained.

Cremation and burial places are provided with sheds. These are maintained and used by the respective communities.

[1] Malcolm's *Central India*, II 508.

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NANDURBAR.

Objects.

Being the headquarters of a taluka the town has mamlatdar's office, panchayat samiti office, revenue, civil and criminal courts, a police station, post and telegraph office, and a rest house.

Among the places of interest the old fort, a common mud structure like those found in many Khandesh towns, deserves some attention. Unlike others it is a little larger and some-what stronger. Inside there are two wells and outside on the western side are the remains of an old mosque, and ruined tower with a Persian inscription giving the date of its renovation. To the north of this fort is the Jama mosque supposed to have been built with the stones of a desecrated Hindu temple. In front of it are two brick minarets. To the west of the fort are two more mosques, one known as *dagdi* mosque because it is built of stone, supposed to be of the same antiquity as the Jama and the other Makka mosque. Outside the town to the north-east is an old shrine and mosque with an inscription stating that it was built during the reign of Akbar in 1583 (951 H). On the Ranala road a little to the west of the town, is a very old mosque popularly known as Aval Ghazi's mosque. Lying to the south on the banks of the Panjhara river is another old mosque with a worn-out Persian inscription on two tombs. There is also an *idgah* on the opposite bank of this river.

Of the Hindu temples the chief ones are, two devoted to Ram located near the rest house and one to Vitthal in the Desaipura part of the town. The town has several water ponds of which the chief are those known as Chambhar *talav* and Lal *talav* to the north ; Wajya and Desai *talavs* to the west and the Pir *talav* which is the biggest to the south. All these *talavs* hold water during the greater part of the year and are generally used for washing purposes.

NARAYANPUR.

Narayanpur, lying about 8 km. (5 miles) west of Nandurbar in Nandurbar taluka with in 1961, 562 souls, has an old fort close to a stone dam on the Shivnad river. A little way up the stream is a well, lined with curiously carved stones which with some others lying about, are supposed to belong to a temple that originally stood in the Narayanpur fort. The village has a small temple of Vishnu, with the idol armed with a cudgel, a discus and a conch shell. In front of it is a *kund* fed by a natural spring. In this *kund* there are two ling symbols. A fair in honour of this deity is held on *Mahashivratri* day.

NAVAPUR.

Navapur, with 11,505 inhabitants in 1961, is the headquarters of the taluka of the same name, lying about 38·62 km. (24 miles) east of Nizampur on the main road between Gujarat and the Deccan. It is a railway station on the Surat-Bhusaval line of the Western Railway, and is about 117·48 km. (73 miles) distant from Surat. For timber, firewood and charcoal it is perhaps the largest market place in the whole taluka, its importance having been all the more increased due to the availability of quick rail transport. Nawapur range, besides other forest produce, contains large bamboo

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bans and grasslands from which paper of fine quality can be manufactured. There is a proposal to set up a paper factory somewhere between Navapur and Akrani which is also rich in these resources. Quite a few persons in the town are engaged in the manufacture of bamboo-baskets and other bamboo articles of household utility. Recently the Forest Department has introduced lacquer worms in Navapur forests which feed on *palas*, *bor* and *khair* trees in which the Navapur range abounds. A school imparting training in wood turning and lacquer work has recently been started at Navapur with good results.

In 1660 Navapur is mentioned as a great town full of weavers. But to-day though the town is still inhabited by *Koshtis* engaged in weaving, the number is not of much consequence. The industry also has not been able to gain much ground. It was also famous for its rice, which though smaller than common rice, when boiled was white as snow and smelled like musk. It was greatly prized by grandees and was sent in present to Persia.[1] In 1666, it is mentioned as a small city in Balaghat, four days from Surat, famous for large and delicious grapes and for much cotton. In many places there were sugarcane gardens and all the growers had mills and furnaces. There were mountains hard to cross, and beautiful plains watered with rivers and streams.[2]

Being the headquarters of a taluka, Navapur has the offices of mamlatdar and panchayat samiti, revenue, civil and criminal courts, police station, a regulated market and a rest house. The town has also other amenities like post and telegraph office, civil and veterinary dispensaries, educational institutions which include two high schools, etc. There is also a seed and seedling growing centre and a branch of the district central co-operative bank.

Among places of worship those dedicated to Mahadev and Dattatraya may be noted. The first one of these, perhaps the oldest, is popularly known as Nagnath Mahadev. Situated in the centre of the town the whole is 6·096 ×6·096 metres (20 feet × 20 feet) with a 3·048×3·048 metres (10 feet×10 feet) vestibule containing besides the *ling*, idols of Parvati, Hanuman and Ganapati. It is said that new idols were installed in the temple after the old ones were destroyed during the Nandurbar riots.

The Datta temple is a modern edifice built by one Dr. Bhangre in *Shaka* 1850. Enclosed by a 2·133 metres (7 feet) high compound wall, the temple has two large marble-tiled halls. A few of the pillars supporting the roof bear images of various deities. The temple is well ventilated and lighted. In the *gabhara* is installed a marble

[1] Tavernier in Harris, II, 352.

[2] Thevenot's *Voyages*, V. 49, 219. In this as in many other Tavernier seems to have borrowed from Thevenot.

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NAVAPUR.

NER.

idol of Dattatraya. Paintings on the walls illustrate various mythological scenes. *Dattajayanti* is celebrated annually. The town has also a temple dedicated to Ram.

Ner is a village standing on the Panjhara river in Dhulia taluka, lying about 22·53 km. (14 miles) west of Dhulia. Akbar had made Ner the headquarters of a mahal in the *Sarkar* of Nandurbar with an annual revenue of 7,22,760 *dams*. Traces of its former consequence are seen in the Muhammedan tombs that still line the main road leading into the village. It, along with the neighbouring villages, suffered much during the 1872 floods of Panjhara. Most of its people are husbandmen and its trade merely local. It has a middle school, a sub-post office, a police out-post, a rest house and an *ayurvedic* dispensary.

NIJAMPUR.

Nijampur, about 16 km. (10 miles) north-east of Pimpalner, is a village in Sakri taluka with 3,213 souls in 1961. It is said to have derived its present name from Nizam-ul-Mulk who had halted here for some time. In the beginning of the 17th century (1610) it was described as the first great town between Surat and Agra and was inhabited by many a wealthy money-lenders. To-day Nijampur is shorn of all its glory and prosperity and is no more than a small ordinary village. There are three primary schools, two Marathi and one Urdu, and a sub-post office.

Fragments of *hemadpanti* temples found scattered throughout the village indicate that the place was of some consequence before the advent of the Muslims. The village has a few temples dedicated to various deities but those dedicated to Vitthal Rakhumai, Krishna, Parasnath and Gupteshvar are the only ones of any note. The first one of these is a double storeyed edifice maintained by the Nijampurkars. The idol in the Krishna temple has a richly ornamented brass *prabhaval* of excellent design. The antique shrine of Parasnath, 23rd Jain *tirthankar*, now devoid of idol, is a structure of stone and cement of 22·86 metres × 17·98 metres (75 feet × 59 feet) dimensions. Of the Gupteshvar shrine it is said that it was uncovered from the ground when a certain resident of Nijampur dreamt of its existence. The village has also an old *gadhi*, now in utter ruins, and a spring called Sakharjira whose waters are palatable.

PANKHED.

Pankhed, in Sakri taluka, is a village with 4,328 inhabitants in 1961, known for the *samadhi* of Ratnakar Maharaj, a saint of local repute. The *samadhi*, with no protective shade over it, has images of Shankar and Vishnu in the front. Nearby there are two water tanks—*kundas*. Hardly 21·33 metres away (70 ft.) flows the river Panjhara.

PATAN.

Patan, on the banks of the river Burai, is a village with 2,031 souls in 1961 in Sindkheda taluka about 1·60 km. (one mile) distant from the taluka headquarters. It is largely an agricultural village principally growing cotton, jovar and groundnut. A primary school is conducted herein the village *chavadi*—out-post.

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PATAN.

The village, however, is known for an antique temple dedicated to Asapuri Devi. It was built in *Samvat* 1884 as can be made out from an inscription fixed on the lintel of the vestibule. Around the temple is a lowly constructed courtyard wall of brick and mortar, with entrances on the southern and eastern side leading into a small unpaved courtyard. Just outside the eastern entrance there is a *ling* housed under a canopy. Immediately inside is a 7·62 metres (25 ft.) high lamp-pillar of brick and mortar. The temple *mandap* with arch formations on three of its sides formed by 16 pillars, is 2·322 m^2 (25 sq. ft.). On one side of the entrance to the vestibule are fixed carved images of Shankar and Parvati. Varsh (boar incarnation of Vishnu) and Ganapati, while on the other there are similar images of Ganapati and Hanuman. The latter however are in defaced state. Above these are two figures of elephant riders. A few other images are also carved in relief. In a gorgeously decorated canopy installed on a broad platform stands the four-handed image of the goddess. It is depicted as trampling a severed demon's trunk under the feet. Whereas the right hands are holding a *trishul* and a conch shell, in the left there is a disc and the demon's head held by the hair. A dome like *shikhar* with a *trishul* planted on its spire adorns the vestibule. Excepting the *shikar* which is of bricks the temple is a solid work in masonry. A fair lasting for three days begins on *Chaitra Shuddha Paurnima*. It holds 3·642 hectares (9 acres) of *inam* land granted by the Ravals.

PIMPALNER.

Pimpalner, with in 1961, 7,733 inhabitants and formerly the head-quarters of the Pimpalner sub-division, is an important village in Sakri taluka lying under the hills on the Panjhara about 64·37 km. (40 miles) west of Dhulia. It has a full-fledged dispensary, a family planning centre, a sub-centre of veterinary dispensary, a branch of the district central co-operative bank, a sub-post office and a rest house. Pimpalner is probably a place of considerable age because in 1630 it is mentioned as the place of defeat of the rebel general Khan Jahan.[1] Recently a Chalukya copper-plate of 4th century has also been discovered here. There is a large trade in *rosha* grass from which oil of medicinal value is extracted. It is generally sent to Surat. On the river bank to the west of the village, is an old fort now used by the medical officer. To the north is a very old large temple of Ram, and in the woodland to the east are a reservoir and a Mahadev temple of considerable age. Besides the remains in Pimpalner itself, numerous fragments apparently of the same class of buildings as the *hemadpanti* temples, are scattered in many of the villages at the foot of the hills south of the Panjhara. These fragments are generally single pillars curiously carved, evidently very old and often built into other buildings. The most conspicuous is in a village 8 km. (five miles) south of Pimpalner. There is also a *Hemadpanti* reservoir at the village of Indra 9·65 km. (six miles) north of Dusane, on the road to Malpur.

[1] *Badshah Nama* quoted in Elliot, VII. 16, 17.

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PRAKASHE.

Prakashe, a village in Shahada taluka with 6,053 inhabitants in 1961, lies on the bank of the Tapi river at its meeting with two tributaries, 112·66 km. (70 miles) north-west of Dhulia and about 19·31 km. (12 miles) north of Nandurbar. Along the river bank there are some fine houses chiefly inhabited by wealthy agriculturists, and scattered here and there are quite a few temples most of which are deeply revered. Lying as it does in the Tapi valley and drained by two of its tributaries, the important being the Gomai, the soil is fertile and yields rich crops of cotton, jowar, groundnut, and wheat. Chillis are also grown. Most of this agricultural produce is marketed to Nandurbar and Shahada market yards. At present the inhabitants depend upon unpurified river water, but a water-works to be installed on the Gomai at an estimated cost of Rs. 2,38,000 would soon make pure tap water available. Prakashe, has grampanchayat, a police out-post, a branch post-office, a high school, a Marathi and an Urdu primary schools, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary and a primary health centre. Recently a montessori has been set up by the block development office. Weekly bazar is held on Wednesday in an open square just near the Mansapuri *Devi* temple.

Objects.

Archaeological finds.

Ever since the early years of the 17th Century, Prakashe has been known as a centre of pilgrimage. But recently it shot into limelight when an ancient mound was discovered here in 1954. Preliminary examination of the 21·336 metres (70 ft.) high mound by the Archaeological Survey of India revealed that further excavations may disclose startling details of the Chalcolithic period of the history of Maharashtra. Hence regular excavations were undertaken in early 1955. The excavations laid bare the Chalcolithic remains in the lowest levels and also rendered a general idea of the sequence of culture—the Chalcolithic culture-assignable to the early 1st millenium times. Between the top of the occupational deposit of the earliest culture—the Chalcolithic culture-assignable to the early 1st millenium B.C.—designated as Period I and the beginning of the occupational debris of the succeeding culture. Period II, was observed a time gap indicated by a thin deposit of fine gravel. This latter culture assignable to 5th to 1st century B.C. was observed to be a full fledged iron using culture characterised by the well defined black and red ware in association with iron objects. This ware popularly known as Northern Black Polished ware roughly represents the period of Ashok, the Mauryan emperor, and belongs to an epoch of which nothing is otherwise known in the annals of the history of Khandesh. It also indicates some intercourse with sites of comparative date in the Ganga-Yamuna *doab* and also provides a firm datum for fixing the chronology. So much for the historical finds enlightening us on the culture of the people of those times.

Kedareshvar Temple.

Turning to the temples of the village scattered along the river bank we find that almost all of them are well built and considered sacred. Of these the first one in order of importance is the temple sacred to Kedareshvar Mahadev situated at a certain bend of the Tapi and

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Objects.

Kedareshvar Temple.

overlooking it. A solid *ghat* or a flight of stone steps of 45·72 metres × 16·77 metres (150 ft. × 55 ft.) dimensions leads down to the river bed. In the front this temple has a pavement 17·99 metres (59 ft.) long and 5·19 metres (17 ft.) broad wherein is a 13·106 metres (43 ft.) high lamp-pillar, hollow inside, with steps leading upto the top. The temple has a double *gabhara*, the first one (1·114 m² = 12 sq. ft.) holding a *ling* of Kedareshvar Mahadev and the second one (of slightly bigger dimensions) that of Kashi Vishveshvar. Whereas an image of *Tapi Mata* is installed in a niche sunk in the front wall of the first of these *gabharas*, a stone slab bearing almost an illegible Sanskrit inscription has been fixed in the wall of the second. Floors of both these *gabharas* are paved with highly polished marble tiles and their door frames bear such delicate carvings that they are unsurpassed by any of those found on other temples in Prakashe. Rounded *Shikhars* crown the tops of both. The *mandap* hall, common to both the *gabharas*, is 12·20 metres × 6·10 metres (40 ft. × 20 ft.) containing two *nandi* images each of which faces the *ling* symbols inside. It has seven four-pillared rows, one pillar of each row being embedded in the *gabhara* walls. These rows form six arches in the front and three on either sides. The *mandap*, on the left of the visitor has a gallery opening, on the river side unfolding a beautiful view of the river smoothly flowing below. Exactly below this gallery and almost on a level with the river bed is the *bhandarghar* or the store-house. In the vicinity of the temple there are some *samadhis* of saintly persons and a few *ling* symbols and images of very many deities. In the *Kedareshvar Mahatmya* this river and the temple are referred to as a centre of pilgrimage and it is commonly believed that, if, after making a pilgrimage of all the *tirthkshetras* of India this centre is not visited, the pilgrimage remains incomplete. Hence many a pilgrim visit this *tirthakshetra* to complete the pilgrimage. At this temple a fair attended by over 6,000 persons is held on *Chaitra Shuddha Paurnima*.

To the north of this temple, hardly half a furlong away, lies another temple known as Vishva Danteshvar having on the gates a fine carving of two elephants, and in recess on south an illegible inscription containing the date 1742 (1664 *Shalivahan*).

Gautameshvar Mahadev Temple.

To the east of the village, on the banks of the Gomai river which downstream unites with the Tapi, is the antique shrine of Gautameshvar Mahadev, said to have been built by one of the Holkars probably Rani Ahilyabai Holkar who is known to have built many temples all over Maharashtra. The whole edifice is 12·80 metres × 4·88 metres (42 ft. × 16 ft.) and stands on an elevated dais with flights of steps on three sides of it giving access to the twelve pillared *mandap*, two of which are embedded in the *gabhara* walls. These pillars in all form eleven arches on the three open sides of the *mandap*. On the upper most step of the frontal flight of stairs one comes across two large *ling* symbols, installed on cement platforms flanking a crudely shaped image of *nandi* which faces the ling inside the vestibule. The

door frame of the vestibule containing the *ling* of Gautameshvar Mahadev bears some insignificant carvings. On its lintel a few images are also sculptured. A *shikhar* adorns the top of the *gabhara*. Though virtually uncared for in recent years, the masonry structure of the temple is still in a solid condition. Outside an image of Hanuman could be seen installed on a pedestal and another image of deity kept leaning against the trunk of a pipal tree. Every twelve years on the entrance of the planet jupiter, *Guru*, in the constellation of the Leo, *Simhasta*, a fair is held in honour of this Mahadev. The last fair held was in 1967.

Sangameshvar Mahadev Temple.

Overlooking the confluence of the Tapi and the Gomai stands another famous temple known as Sangameshvar Mahadev, so Musalman in style that it almost looks as if it were a converted mosque. Three Sanskrit inscriptions two in the shrine fixed on either side of entrance to the vestibule and one inside the vestibule, give the date of its construction as 1745 (1667 Shalivahan). However, they do not enlighten us as to the name of the builder. The temple is enclosed by a 1·219 metres (4 ft.) high parapet of brick and mortar, with a low archshaped entrance on the river side leading into the courtyard. The 1·858 m² (20 ft. square) *mandap* has four rows of four pillars each, some of which are monoliths, forming three arches on three sides, the *mandap* having no walls either in the front or on the sides. Every pillar is ornamented with exquisite creepers carved in relief. The door frame of the vestibule is artistically ornamented and on the lintel are two fine carvings of elephants with entangled trunks. Above these two peacocks are also represented in a similar pose. Crowned with a dome like *shikhar*, the vestibule is 1·114 m² (12 sq. ft.) wherein is installed the *ling* of Sangameshvar Mahadev. Exactly facing it in the *mandap* is quite a big image of *nandi*, the carrier of Mahadev. On the right hand side of the visitor the *gabhara* has an extension of two cells, but this part falling into decay.

Housed in a canopy in the vicinity of this temple is an image of Hanuman said to have been once washed ashore by the floods of the Tapi.

Mansapuri Devi Temple.

To the west of the village lies the stone masonry built temple sacred to Goddess Mansapuri, with a 13·71 × 5·49 metres (45 ft. × 18 ft.) *mandap*, the first half of which was previously a sort of an open courtyard now partly covered with tin sheets. The second half has a terraced roof and is supported on 16 pillars, all bearing some remarkable carvings. Eight of these are embedded in the side walls and together with the open ones form three arches in the front. The vestibule, with two broad windows, is 1·114 m² (12 sq. ft.) and contains the eighteen handed image of the goddess Mansapuri housed under a gorgeously decorated canopy. The goddess is depicted as trampling the trunk of a Mahishasur with its severed head lying near about, clutching a demon tightly by the hair in the left hand

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and a sword and a cudgel in two of the right hands. On Her right side could be seen an image of a monkey and on the left that of a female deity. A *ling* symbol could also be seen in the vestibule. A fair attended by 800 persons is held on *Chaitra Shuddha Paurnima.*

Mansapuri Devi Temple.

A stone mosque, built by one Malu Miya, lies to the south of the Mansapuri temple. It is now lying amidst ruins. Besides this the village has two more mosques of recent construction.

Kashi Vishveshvar Temple.

The Kashi Vishveshvar temple, built by one Dwarkadas, a resident of the village, though of recent construction stands comparison in every respect with other temples in Prakashe. It is the most neatly and cleanly maintained temple in Prakashe looked after by a trust known after the name of the temple. The whole is 2·229 m^2 (24 ft. square), the *mandap* occupying half the portion and the *gabhara,* the other half. The *mandap* has a number of pillars for its support and herein is installed the *nandi* image in the traditional posture. The *gabhara* besides housing the main *ling* also holds a few images of various deities housed in niches. Its door frame is beautifully decorated by lovely patterns and designs and has a tapering *shikhar* bearing designs of figure-filled niches.

SAKRI.

Sakri, the headquarters of the taluka of the same name had 5,364 inhabitants in 1961. The land, though of medium variety grows groundnut and sugarcane well. Being the headquarters of a taluka it has the offices of the mamlatdar, and panchayat samiti, revenue, civil and criminal courts. It has also a police station, a rest house, post and telegraph office, civil and veterinary dispensaries and besides primary schools, a high school. The weekly bazar is held on Sundays. The only temples of any note at Sakri proper are those of Ram and Hanuman. The former of ordinary workmanship, is nearly two centuries old and besides the idols of Ram, Lakshman and Sita, contains one of Ganapati also. The only notable feature of the Hanuman temple located on the outskirts of the town is the idol which is 1·828 metres (6 ft.) in height.

A little over four kilometres from the town of Sakri, at a place called Nagzari, is an old temple dedicated to Nagai goddess. The temple standing on a high bank of the Panjhara, and commanding in the turn a beautiful view of the river as well as the country around, is said to have been built during the period of the Gavali Rajas and hence can be considered to be of considerable antiquity. Its vestibule crowned with a *shikhar* is very small and contains a stone image of the goddess from under whose feet there is a constant flow of water which finds its way in the *kund* in front of the temple. The feet of the goddess remain submerged in water. The source of the water is still a mystery. It is probable that it has its source in the Panjhara. Nearby is a dharmashala of the same antiquity. There are also temples dedicated to Hanuman and Gautameshvar, the latter having been recently built. On every *Mahashivratra* day, a fair

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SAKRI.

attended by the local populace is held in honour of Nagai. The cordage plants with which the place is overgrown add charm to the spot. It has become a favourite resort of picnic goers from nearby places.

SARANGKHEDA.

Sarangkheda in Shahada taluka with 3,154 inhabitants in 1961, is a village flourished along the banks of the Tapi at the point where the Tapi has been crossed by a grand bridge known after the village name. The construction of the bridge in the first half of 1957 broke the agelong isolation of Shahada, Taloda, Akrani and Akkalkuva talukas with the rest of the district. Sarangkheda is, however, known for a lovely shrine of Dattatraya situated on a rising ground with its tall *shikhar* overlooking the village, thus attracting the visitors' notice. The main temple holding a single faced idol of Dattatraya is said to have been built some hundred years ago, the decorations and extensions having been carried out only forty years ago. The idol of Datta is believed to have been brought from Mahur in Nanded district. It is held in deep reverence. The temple is well maintained and is well decorated by the setting of many divine and animal figurines at convenient places. But the greatest attraction is the fair held in honour of the deity on *Margashirsha Paurnima* when over a lakh of persons gather. Dealers in well-bred cattle horses and agricultural implements figure prominently, the turnover amounting to a few lakhs of rupees. It is one of the few biggest fairs in Dhulia district. Sarangkheda has a subsidised medical practitioner, a police station and the usual educational facilities.

SHAHADA.

Shahada, the headquarters of the taluka of the same name with 13,338 inhabitants in 1961, is a municipal town, lying 77·24 km. (48 miles) north-west of Dhulia with which it is connected by a good tar road. It is also crossed by Burhanpur-Raver-Shirpur-Shahada-Taloda-Sagbara state highway and Dondaicha-Khetia road. This has given a considerable fillip to its trade and commerce. Shahada has a sub-market yard trading principally in cotton, grains and groundnut. Being the headquarters of a taluka, there is the mamlatdar's office, office of the panchayat samiti, revenue, civil and criminal courts, post and telegraph office, a police station and a rest house.

Municipality.

Constitution : The Shahada Kukdel municipality was established in 1869. It has an area of 12·949 km^2 (5 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The president elected by the councillors from among themselves is responsible for the municipal administration.

Finance : In 1963-64 the municipal income derived from various sources like taxation, revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, grants and miscellaneous items amounted to Rs. 4,55,870. The expenditure during the same year totalled Rs. 2,66,935. The expenditure items were general administration and collection charges, public safety, public health and convenience, contributions and miscellaneous.

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Municipality.

Health, Sanitation and Water Supply : A dispensary with a maternity ward attached to it is maintained by the municipality. Within the same compound the government has recently established a primary health centre. The veterinary dispensary of the town is looked after by the Zilla Parishad. There are only stone-lined open gutters. Wells and the river Gomai are the source of water supply. The municipality has constructed a *ghat* on the river to facilitate water-drawing.

Education : Primary education is under the management of the Zilla Parishad and is compulsory. The average annual municipal contribution towards primary education comes to Rs. 10,000. The town, besides middle schools, has two high schools of which one is conducted by the municipality and the other by a private education society. There is also a library which received a grant of Rs. 1,000 last year from the town municipality.

Amenities : For fire fighting one fire fighter is maintained. The cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the concerned communities.

Shahada has a small weaving industry turning out handloom cloth, there being a co-operative society of the weavers.

Objects.

Shahada has temples dedicated to *Panchmukhi Mahadev* and Rameshvar. Though not striking architecturally both have religious importance and are held in deep reverence by the people. The former is supposed to be over a century old, and so called because it contains a five headed idol of Mahadev planted on a *ling* of the same deity. Close by is a small image of Parvati carved out of crystal stone. Out side is an image of *nandi* in the traditional posture. There is also an idol of Ganapati. An annual grant of Rs. 75 is received by the temple from the government. Situated on the banks of the Gomai, the temple of Rameshvar is of black stone and contains besides the *ling* symbol an idol of Parvati and a nandi image. The shrine has been beautified with picture paintings of Parvati and Mahadev. Shahada has also a Jain *basti* built about a decade ago.

SINDKHEDA.

Sindkheda, with a population of 10,579 in 1961, is the headquarters of taluka of the same name lying about 48·28 km. (30 miles) north of Dhulia, the district headquarters. It is connected with Dhulia by a first class tar road and has a railway station on the Surat-Bhusaval chord of the Western Railway about two and a half miles (4 km.) from the town proper. The town has the usual government offices, a police station, a post and telegraph office, a branch market yard, a taluka sale and purchase union, a civil dispensary with a maternity ward attached to it and a veterinary dispensary. A high school and two primary schools are the only educational institutions. Sindkheda taluka has fertile land yielding rich crops of cotton, jovar, *bajra,* groundnut and wheat. About 140 wells, 45 of them fitted with electric pumps, serve to irrigate the crops. Drinking water is obtained from private as well as public wells. Weekly bazar is held on Mondays.

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SHIRUD.

Shirud, with 4,781 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Dhulia taluka known for an antique shrine in *hemadpanti* style, dedicated to Kalika goddess. Enclosed within a compound wall having for its support bastion like formations, the architectural accomplishments of the temple are of no mean order. It consists of a twelve-pillared *mandap* and a much smaller vestibule containing the 1·219 metres high (4 ft.) idol of the goddess. The vestibule also contains another idol of an unidentifiable deity. The pillars as well as the entrance to the vestibule are decorated with some beautiful engraved designs. In the *mandap* walls are sunk niches housing some deities. The jambs of these niches are also excellently ornamented with different patterns. Even the roof of the *mandap* is studded with some beautiful figurines. In the western corner is a well about which it is said that if devotees prayed for cooking vessels, they used to get them from this well, but the rule was that the vessels had to be returned back after cleaning. Once an avaricious person carried them away and since then the phenomenon has ceased to take place. In honour of the goddess a fair is held on *Chaitra Shuddha Paurnima.* There are also temples dedicated to Hanuman, Vithoba and Mahadev. To the east of the village on the other bank of the river Bori, is a temple dedicated to Khandoba in whose honour a fair is held on *Magh Shuddha Paurnima.* It is attended by a large number of persons. Many take a dip in the river considering it holy on account of the temple. Shirud has a sub-market yard, a branch of the district central co-operative bank, a high school with a hostel attached, a library and a *gramodyog* centre. There are also a housing society and a crop insurance society.

SHIRPUR.

Description.

Shirpur, with 20,846 inhabitants in 1961, is the headquarter of the taluka of the same name, lying 48·28 km. (30 miles) north of Dhulia. Situated on the banks of the Arunavati river, the land around is very fertile and yields rich crops. The Bombay-Agra national highway crosses the river near here and at this point a solid bridge has been constructed across it at a cost of nine lakhs of rupees. Shirpur suffered from heavy floods in 1875 when much damage to life and property was caused. The calamity repeated itself in 1947 when heavy damage mostly to property was caused. The hardest hit were hutment dwellers whose dwellings were completely washed away. Even to-day its southern part, which is rather low lying is subject to the floods of Arunavati. In 1820 Hamilton described it as a large and populous town. He also tells us that it formerly belonged to the Holkars. Today Shirpur is one of the principal market yards of the district dealing in various agricultural commodities, the most important being cotton, chillis, cereals and oil seeds including groundnut. There is a co-operative sale and purchase union which has constructed a big warehouse for its own use. There is a branch of the district central co-operative bank providing funds to the agriculturists. Shirpur has also a thriving timber trade. There are quite a few *bidi* and ginning and pressing factories and oil mills. The town

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SHIRPUR.

Description.

Municipality.

has revenue, civil and criminal courts, mamlatdar's office, panchayat samiti office, a police station, post and telegraph office and a rest house.

Constitution : The municipality here was established in 1870. Its jurisdiction extends over an area of 14·76 km. (5·7 sq. miles). Administrative affairs are looked after by the president who is elected by the councillors from among themselves.

Finance : In 1963-64 municipal income from various sources amounted to Rs. 5,48,962. As against this it had to incur an expenditure of Rs. 5,20,016.

Health, Sanitation and Water Supply : The town has adequate medical facilities. Besides the municipal civil dispensary, the town has a cottage hospital conducted by the government. A veterinary dispensary is managed by the Zilla Parishad. The town has only open drains some of which are stone-lined. At present wells are the only source of water supply; but soon the town will get tap water from the project on which work has already begun. It is estimated to cost twelve lakhs of rupees.*

Education : Primary education is compulsory. It is under the management of the Zilla Parishad. The annual municipal contribution towards this end amounts to Rs. 14,000. Shirpur has three high schools of which one is municipal and two private. There is also an arts and commerce college. A library receiving fourteen dailies sixteen weeklies and 26 other magazines in four different languages is maintained by the municipality. It has a collection of over five thousand books.

Fire Fighting Services : One fully equipped fire-fighter and two tanks each mounted on a tractor and a bullock cart are maintained by the municipality. From a well to the north of the municipal office water is pumped in an overhead tank of 29,094·1 litres (6,400 gallons) capacity which is solely used for extinguishing fire. Five electric engines have also been fixed on public wells to get instantaneous water supply.

Cremation and burial grounds : Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

Objects.

Shirpur has temples dedicated to Pataleshvar Bhavani, Khanderav and Shani. There is also a Jain *basti*. The ancient temple of Khanderav is situated on the banks of the Arunavati and religiously it is the most important of all. In honour of Khanderav a large fair is held on *Magh Shuddha Paurnima*.. It is attended by over one lakh of persons. The temple of Pataleshvar is said to date back from the times of Ahilyabai Holkar. The idol inside is said to be *swayambhu*. Idols of Ganapati and some other deities have also been installed in this temple. The town has a children's park laid out and maintained by the municipality.

* The project was completed in 1969.

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SONGIR.

Songir, known for the antique fort called after the village name, is a village in Dhulia taluka on the Bombay-Agra road 22·58 km. (14 miles) north of the taluka headquarters. In 1961 it had 6,750 inhabitants. It was previously the chief town of Songir subdivision which was subsequently abolished and Songir incorporated in Dhulia taluka, in 1820. It is of some manufacturing importance with skilled workers in brass and copper, and a considerable manufacture of coarse woollen blankets or what are locally known as *kambals*. Songir has a high school conducted by *Vidya Prasarak Samstha*, two Marathi and two Urdu primary schools teaching upto the VII standard, a civil dispensary with a maternity home, a post and telegraph office and a police station. Tap water is made available from a big well near the Samadhi of Guru Govind Maharaj over which a pumping set has been installed. The water works including the distributing system was constructed at a total cost of Rs. 1,50,000.

Like Dhulia, Songir also passed through the hands of the Arab kings, the Moghals, and the Nizam to the *Peshva* who gave it to the Vinchurkar family from whom it passed to the British in 1818. Not long after its occupation by the British an attempt was made by Arab soldiers to recover it, but was successfully repulsed by a contingent of 250 soldiers under the command of Captain Briggs.

The village though not remarkable for any big temple, has small shrine dedicated to Mahadev, Someshwar Ram, a Jain *mandir* and a *dargah* and two mosques. It also has the samadhi of Guru Govind Maharaj, a noted saint of Dhulia, which is held in deep reverence. Over this a small edifice was constructed on *Shravan Vadya* 2, *Shaka* 1874 by one Gaurishankar Mulji Vyas. It is right at the foot of the fort.

The historic fort of Songir, a strip of 4,57·200 metres (500 yds.) by 45·720 metres (50 yds.) is easy of access and is entered through a stone gate still in good order. An inscription on this gate dated *Shake* 1497 (1575 A.D.) only states that Ugrasen, son of Mansingh was very brave. There is an old well near this gate. The fort is partly commanded by a hill 365·760 metres (400 yds.) to the south. The north and south ends are of solid masonry and the rampart walls of uncut stone loop-holed for musketry for the most part, are generally in a ruined condition except at a few places. Of the inner buildings hardly a trace remains. Inside the fort there is a handsome old reservoir and a fine old well. Remnants of broken pipes of the old water system that must have existed on the fort in the days gone by could still be seen. Time has withered away the fortifications of the fort which once must have been a stronghold giving cover to the village that has flourished at its foot. It commands an excellent view of the country around for miles together.

SULTANPUR.

Sultanpur, with 1084 inhabitants in 1961, is a village in Shahada taluka lying about 16 km. (ten miles) north of the taluka headquarters.

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SULTANPUR.

It is a ruined city with an old fort or *gadhi* and walls enclosing about 2·590 km² (a square mile) of area. In one of the corners of this *gadhi* are five tombs known to the village populace as *panch-pir*. An annual *urus* is held in honour of these *pirs*.. A large number of defaced idols of *Jain tirthankaras* and *yakshas* have been found in and around this *gadhi*. On one such idol-base an inscription giving the date *Samvat* 1217 has been discovered. From this and such other fragments it can be established with definite certainty that during the times of the Yadavas the place which later became known as Sultanpur was a place containing beautiful Jain temples. Its present name is said to date back to 1306 A.D. when Malik Kafur, Ala-ud-din's general stopped here for some time while on his way to conquer the Deccan.[1] It continued to be a part of Gujarat, till in 1370, it was taken by Malik Raja (1370-1399) the first Faruqi king of Khandesh. However, Malik's hold on Sultanpur did not last for long. Muzaffar, the Gujarat king, hastened for its recovery and Malik had to abandon it and flee to Thalner.[2]

In 1417 Sultanpur was laid waste by the joint forces of Malik Nasir of Khandesh (1400-1437) and Ghaznikhan of Malva but had to retire on the advance of the Gujarat army.[3]

In 1536 according to a promise made while a prisoner Muhammad III made over Sultanpur and Nandurbar to Mubarak Khan Faruqi of Khandesh.[4] Under Akbar, Sultanpur was a sub-division, *pargana*, of the district, *sarkar*, of Nandurbar, and yielded a yearly revenue of 28,119,749 *dams*.[5] The local story of the destruction of Sultanpur is that Yashvantrav Holkar, escaping from Poona came near Sultanpur, then part of Holkar's dominions and forming an alliance with the Bhils, plundered such of the people as would not acknowledge him as their king. Among those who refused allegiance was Lakshmanrav Desai, the chief man of Sultanpur. Taking up his quarters at Chikli, a village 9·65 km. (6 miles) west of Sultanpur whose Bhil Chieftain Jugar Naik was his friend, Yashvantrav sent a letter to Lakshmanrav asking him to pay Rs. 500. Lakshmanrav not only refused to pay but scoffed at Holkar's caste and taunted him for his illegitimate birth. One Kriparam Dayaram, a rich banker and one of the headmen of the town offered the tribute of Rs. 500 to Holkar. Satisfied by this that he might rely on a party in Sultanpur, Holkar with his Bhil ally, entered the town, and winning over the garrison plundered the Desai's house. Then the Bhils were let loose, the town was laid waste and all the people except one fled.

Writing of Sultanpur in 1826 Captain Clunes remarks: "The remains of the walls, towers and buildings, show marks of what was

[1] Briggs' *Ferishta*, I. 366.
[2] Persian *Ferishta*, II, 543, Briggs, IV, 283.
[3] Briggs, *Ferishta*, IV, 292.
[4] Briggs' *Ferishta* II, 315.
[5] Gladwin's *Ain-i-Akbari*, II, 228.

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a handsome town so late as 1803, the famine year, when the whole country was depopulated".[1] Besides the fort, originally an intricate building of mud faced with brick there are the remains of a great mosque known as Jumma Masjid. It is of no particular merit. On the banks of the river Susari and a little outside the village is a ruined temple of Mahadev built by Lakshmanrav Desai, who according to the story brought ruin on Sultanpur. There is also yet another small but well preserved temple built by Rani Ahilyabai Holkar (1800), the Queen of Indore. To the east of the village in an old garden enclosed by a 0·914 metre (three feet) thick brick faced mud wall. The most interesting ruin is the mansion of Lakshmanrav, once a large handsome house, with a fine well watered garden.

TALODA.

Taloda, the headquarters of the taluka of the same name with 14,641 inhabitants in 1961, is a municipal town lying nearly 99·72 km. (62 miles) north-west of Dhulia. Being situated not far away from the Tapi river, the greater part of its soil is fertile. Its nearness to the forest clad Satpuda ranges has made it one of the important timber marts of Dhulia district. Teak of very fine quality can be had in this market. There is also a considerable trade in *rosha* grass oil. The town is inhabited by *adivasis*. The existing means of transport and communications virtually isolate Taloda from the outside world during monsoons. However, the completion of the conversion work of Burhanpur-Raver-Shirpur-Shahada-Taloda-Sagabara State highway and the Taloda-Nandurbar-Sakri-Satana State highway into *pucca* roads would soon break this isolation and give a fillip to the development and overall progress, of the town. A part of the work on the first one of these highways has already been completed.

Municipality.

Constitution: The municipality here was established in 1867. It has an area of 22·80 km² (8·8 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. Aided by the necessary staff the administrative affairs of the municipality are managed by a committee of 20 councillors with the president at its head.

Finance: In 1963-64 total municipal income excluding that due to extra-ordinary and debt heads but including such major items as taxes, income derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, grants and contributions etc., was Rs. 1,68,686. Expenditure during the same year on major heads such as administration and collection charges, public safety, health and instruction as also grants, but excluding that on extra-ordinary and debt heads was Rs. 1,78,900.

Municipal Works: So far the municipality has not undertaken any major works. There are no municipal roads constructed in the town except a small stretch of one kilometre. It is now proposed to construct two sheds for the daily vegetable market. Each shed will

[1] *Itinerary*. 90.

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have 12 platforms of 6·09 × 3·04 metres (20 ft. × 10 ft.). A fifteen room school building is under construction and is estimated to cost Rs. 1,00,586.

Health and Sanitation : The town has one municipal conducted civil dispensary and a veterinary dispensary conducted by the Zilla Parishad. Besides there are a few private dispensaries. With the exception of a few masonry lined drains, the town has mostly *kutcha* drains. In recent years no epidemic out-break has been recorded. Wells, both private and public meet the water needs of the populace.

Education : Primary education in the town is managed by the Zilla Parishad. It is compulsory. The municipal contribution in 1963 towards this end amounted to Rs. 16,103. In all there are five primary schools, three Marathi and two Urdu. A high school is conducted by the Peoples' Education Society. There is a municipal managed library receiving an annual grant of Rs. 1,000 from the curator of libraries, Poona.

Cremation and Burial Places : Cremation and burial places are maintained and used by the communities concerned. Generally the Hindus cremate the dead on the banks of the Tapi which is only 3·21 km. (2 miles) away.

Only one fire fighter is maintained by the municipality.

Besides the various institutions mentioned above, Taloda has mamlatdar's office, civil and revenue courts, a sub-post and telegraph office, a rest house, a seed and seedlings centre and a branch of the district central co-operative bank, Dhulia.

The town claims historical importance as it is one of the places in Dhulia district where the Rashtrakuta copper-plates were found the others being Dhulia, Torkhede, Kharde, Javkhede, Pimpri, etc. It was also here as the story goes that Malharrao Holkar, the great Maratha commander was shaded from the sun by a cobra while he was asleep in the open one afternoon.

Objects.

Of the objects of interest within the town, the temple of Siddheshvar and a *gadhi* known as Bargal *Gadhi* merit a mention. Situated in Brahman *galli*, the Siddheshvar shrine is entered through a beautifully ornamented arched door. While the outer shrine with mosaic floor is 6·09 × 6·09 metres (20 ft. × 20 ft.) the inner is 3·65 × 3·65 metres (12 ft. × 12 ft.). A stone image of *nandi* installed on a pedestal occupies central position in the outer shrine. The inner shrine contains a *ling* of Siddheshvar. The Bargal *gadhi* built in brick and mortar is in a ruined state. It is believed that it has tunnels underground going in different directions.

Taloda also has a domed temple of Chandramauleshvar and numerous other temples among which may be mentioned those of Ram, Mahadev, Mahalakshmi, Muralidhar, Hanuman, Shani, and Kalikamata. The last of these is situated on the Kordi bank and on *Akshayatritiya* day a large fair is held in honour of that goddess.

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Objects.

Among the chief remains in the country around Taloda could be mentioned a temple built in honour of Ganapati by one Babubhai Shroff in 1962 at Budhaval 8 km. (5 miles) west. It is a small shrine containing a 0·761 metre (2½ft.) high idol of Ganapati with its trunk turned to the right.

TAVALAI.

Tavalai is largely an agricultural village in Shahada taluka with in 1961, 2,463 inhabitants. The village has an old step-well, one of the finest in Dhulia district, supposed to have been built by one Maheshvar Bhat, whose sickle as the story goes striking against a stone was turned into gold. Overjoyed, Maheshvar ran home to show his sickle without taking any notice of the stone. On hearing his story, his mother arrived at the spot and tapping all the stones with a piece of iron found out which was the philosopher's stone. Further it is said that of the wealth Maheshvar amassed with the help of that stone, a part was spent in building this well. Round in shape, and from 7·620 to 9·144 metres (25 to 30 ft.) across the inner diameter, the well has about a hundred steps, some of the lower ones always remaining submerged in water. The 5·488 metres (18 ft.) wide stairs have been broken into flights of about twelve steps each by broad landings. Over two of the landing places rise high mosque-like domes and at three places in the descent the stairs pass through arches, the first of one storey, the second of two storeys and the third of three storeys. This work in masonry has been well-executed and deserves careful preservation.

THALNER.

Thalner,[1] the first capital of the Faruqi kings, with in 1961, 6,587 inhabitants, stands on the Tapi, in Shirpur taluka about 46·67 km. (28 miles) north-east of Dhulia, the district headquarters. In the heyday of the Gavali or Ahir kings. Thalner was at the height of its prosperity and was an important commercial centre on the Surat-Burhanpur road. Today it is no more than an insignificant village.

History.

According to a local grant, in the beginning of the twelfth century (1128) (1,050 *Shaka*), while the country for 32·18 km. (20 miles) round was 'without a light', and twenty-seven of its forts were deserted, Thalner prospered under Javaji and Govaji of the Tale sub-division of Gavalis or Ahirs. At that time, Daulatrao, son of Bajirao of Daulatabad came to people Khandesh, and finding Thalner flourishing established Javaji's family as headmen of the town.[2] Late in the fourteenth century (1370) when Firozshah Tughluq (1351-1388) granted Malik Raja Faruqi an estate on the south border of Gujarat, Malik chose Thalner as his headquarters. In the following year (1371), defeated by the Gujarat king, Malik was forced to take refuge in Thalner fort.[3] On his death in 1399 Malik left

1 Thalner is perhaps Ptolemy's Tiatura : Elliot's *History*, I, 356.

2 Mr. J. Pollen, C. S. The present deed is a modern copy of the original grant.

3 Briggs' *Ferishta*, IV.

Thalner to his second son. But in 1417 with the aid of the Sultan of Malva, Nair Khan, the elder son, wrested it from his brother. In 1498 Thalner was invested by Mahmud Begada, king of Gujarat, whose army laid waste the district and would not retire till arrears of tribute were paid.[2] In 1511 Mahmud Begada granted Thalner with about one-half of Khandesh to Malik Hissamuddin a noble of his court. But in the next year, Hissamuddin was murdered and Thalner restored to Khandesh.[3] In 1566 it was the scene of the defeat of the Khandesh king Miran Muhammad Khan by Changiz Khan of Gujarat.[4] In 1600, when it passed to the Emperor Akbar, Thalner is noticed as being of great strength though in a plain.[5] In 1660 Tavernier mentions it as one of the places of trade on the Surat and Burhanpur line.[6] In 1750 it was a strong fort, the centre of thirty-two little governments.[7] Shortly after it passed to the *Peshva*, and was by him made over to Holkar, who about 1800, pledged it to the Nimbalkars. It was recovered in the following year and kept by the Holkar family till, in 1818 under the terms of the Mandesar treaty, it was made over to the British.

As Sindva, a place with a much greater name for strength, had at one surrendered, no resistance was expected at Thalner. But its capture proved one of the bloodiest incidents in the conquest of Khandesh. Blacker gives the following detailed account.[8] When in 1818 Sir Thomas Hislop, the British general, came to take possession, the garrison began hostilities by firing matchlocks at the palanquin of a sick officer, and at the same time opened fire with a gun on the head of the baggage, then entering the plain. A summons was sent to the commandant, and a close reconnaissance of the place was made. The party descended into the ravines surrounding the fort, and from there ascended into the town driving out a small party of the enemy. As it was ascertained that the enemy had no guns on the western face, where there was water and comparatively clear ground on the river bank, General Hislop resolved to encamp there, and attack the place from the north-east angle. With this object two five and a half inch howitzers with ten six-pounders, the only guns in the camp, were moved down the beds of the ravines. They were then carried to positions in the town, where the houses gave tolerable cover to batteries which opened within 273·403 and 328·083 metres (250 and 300 yards) of the north-east angle of the fort. In a few hours, during which, by the well aimed fire of match-

[1] Briggs' *Ferishta* IV, 292.
[2] Briggs' *Ferishta*, IV, 299. Bird (*Mirat-i-Ahmadi*, 214) says "Mahmud only went to see the fort".
[3] Briggs' *Ferishta*, IV, 306.
[4] Briggs' *Ferishta*, IV, 317-18.
[5] Gladwin's *Ain-i-Akbari*, II 54.
[6] Harris' *Vayages*, II 352.
[7] Tieffenthaler, *Res. His. et. Geog. Sur. l 'Inde*, I, 368.
[8] *Maratha War*, 228.

locks from the walls, several casualties had occurred, the enemy guns were nearly silenced, but no progress had been made in reducing the garrison, who it was thought, would surrender as soon as any serious demonstration was made against them. Further examination showed that the outer gate was in a ruinous state, and promised cover in traverses, while a commanding position immediately opposite to it overlooked the nearest defences. For these reasons it was determined to attack the gates. Two guns were opened on the traverses, with considerable effect, while two others were, by a detour, brought to a position whence, with the view of blowing it open, they might easily be run up to the gate. At the same time a storming party, was brought down to the same place. Indifferent as the enemy had hitherto been, the preparations against the gate did not fail to alarm them and they sent out to demand terms of capitulation. In reply they were told that unconditional surrender would alone be accepted; and they were invited to avail themselves of this offer before the assault on the gates should begin. The evening was now advanced and the enemy probably trusted to the approaching darkness for an opportunity of abandoning the place. To prevent this the guns and storming party were ordered to advance to the gate. This was done without loss. It was found that in consequence of its ruinous state there was a passage for single files between the wall and the gate frame; and no opposition being offered from within, the storming party, followed by the pioneers, entered, though tediously, without difficulty. After the passage of the storming party endeavours were used to blow open the outer gate that the guns might be advanced to the remainder. But before that was effected the storming party had passed through the second gate without opposition. At the third it was met by the commandant, with a number of artificers whom he had on the previous evening forced in. Lieut. Colonels Conway and Murray, with several others, had entered with the storming party, and it was still doubtful whether resistance would ultimately be made, for at this time there was none. They accordingly passed through the fourth gate, which, as well as the second, appeared so much out of repair as to be incapable of being shut; but at the fifth or last gate they were stopped though the wicket was opened. A hurried conversation about the terms of surrender now took place. It was probably little intelligible under the circumstances of noise and apprehension which attended it. Colonel Murray, in this state of uncertainty, concluding that there was an urgent necessity for establishing a footing such as would secure eventual success of the attack, should the enemy hold out, entered by the wicket with Major Gordon and there grenadiers; but refrained from drawing his sword, to show that he had no intention of breaking the parley. He expected to be followed by as many men as should be able to maintain themselves in a confined situation; but four or five persons only had got in, when the enemy, apprehending the consequences, attacked most furiously, and in a moment laid them all dead, except Colonel Murray, who, covered with wounds, fell towards the wicket. They

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then attempted to close the wicket, but their efforts were rendered ineffectual by a grenadier who thrust his musket into the aperture, While Lieut. Colonel Mackintosh and Captain Mac Craith forced it open. In this state it was held while the Captain with one hand was dragging Colonel Murray through it, and warding off blows with his sword in the other. A fire was now poured in through the wicket, which cleared the gateway sufficiently for the head of the storming party, under Major MacGregor of the Royals, to enter; and the place was carried without further difficulty, but at the expense of that officers' life.[1] As soon as the supporting detachment could open the gate, many troops poured in, the garrison was shortly put to the sword, and the commandant was hanged on the same evening to a tree on the flagstaff tower.[2]

The fort is described as with one side rising out of the Tapi and the three other sides surrounded by a hollow way, varying in width from 91·44 to 137·16 metres (100 to 150 yards). The walls rise to the height of about 18·28 metres (60 ft.) above this hollow and the interior had the same elevation. The only entrance was on the eastern side and secured by five successive gates communicating by intricate traverses, whose enclosure gradually rose to the height of the main wall. A winding ramp interspersed in some places with steps, ascending through the gate in to the terreplein of the rampart. Great ingenuity had been exercised to make this part as strong as possible apparently under the idea that the profile of the rest rendered it secure, notwithstanding the absence of a ditch.

Today only one of the walls that on the river side is standing, the others having collapsed for the most part. Even of this wall one of the bastions was ruined by the great floods of the Tapi which took place some five years ago, and a tunnel opened in which a small, well executed idol of Vishnu was found.

On the British occupation the country for 48·28 km. (thirty miles) around was a desert. Since then, though the neighbourhood has much improved, Thalner has remained an insignificant place with ruined walls and fort[3] and almost no trade. Besides the tombs of Major MacGregor and Captain Gordon, the chief objects of interest

[1] Two tombs, erected to the memory of the officers killed, bear the following inscriptions; No. I "Here lie entombed the remains of Major R. Mac Gregor, of H. M's Royal Scots, who fell in the assault and storming of this fort on the 27th Feby. 1818." No. II "Here lie entombed the remains of Major J. Gordon, of H.M.'s Royal Scots, who fell in the assault and storming of this fort on the 27th February 1818".

[2] The enemy lost about 250 men killed, the British loss was twenty-five. Blacker, 228, 232. According to a local story some of the garrison escaped by leaping into the river from the battlements, with bundles of *jvari* stalks in their arms. A somewhat different account, severely blaming Sir T. Hislop for hanging the commandant, is given in the summary of *The Maratha and Pendhari Campaign* (1820), 143-154.

[3] *Government List of Civil Forts*, 1862.

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are ten Muhammedan domed tombs of common country black stone and two of burnt brick. Of the whole number, one is eight cornered and the rest are square.[1] They vary in size from eleven feet by eleven to three and a half feet square. Though more or less damaged outwardly and with the inside part of their domes partly destroyed, they are in good order. The eight-cornered tomb has some Arabic writing, but so worn as to be unreadable. According to the local story they were built by a saint. But there seems little reason to doubt that they are the tombs of the Faruqi kings, of whom four, Malik Raja (1396), Malik Nasir (1437), Miran Adil Khan (1441), and Miran Mubarak Khan (1457), were burried in Thalner.[2] Inside there are also a few wells which once supplied water to the garrison, but now they are dry. Much of the earth from inside the fort has been utilised by the villagers in building houses.

Situated on the banks of the Tapi and the foot of the fort is an old stone built temple dedicated to Thaleshwar. Its 1·828 × 1·828 metre vestibule contains a small ling symbol. It is crowned by a 7·62 metre (25 ft.) high *shikhar*.

TORANMAL.

Toranmal, occupying the highest range of the Satpudas covering Akrani mahal is a hill station in the making, nearly 144·84 km. (90 miles) off Dhulia, the district headquarters. It is a long, rather narrow table-land covering an area of about 41·43 km² (16 sq. miles), the height above the sea level being 1,036·32 metres (3,400 ft). Nestling amongst the evergreen forests of the Satpudas, Toranmal, enjoys a salubrious and cool climate even during the hot season when the heat in the plains below is unbearable and almost scorching. The minimum and maximum temperatures remain at 40° and 70° F. respectively, but never rise above that. On an average it receives an annual rainfall of 1016 mm. (40″). In Dhulia district it is the only place of its kind attracting the tourists. Even at that height there is an expansive natural lake adding beauty to the already pleasant spot. It is named as Yashvant lake. About one and a half kilometres away there is a valley called Sitakhai wherein a wall-like formation could be seen standing erect. There is also the echo point where the sound produced echoes and re-echoes.

With a view to making Toranmal a health resort of the first class, the government prepared a plan in 1958 for its development. The execution of the plan is slowly changing the face of Toranmal making it more easily accessible by improving the roads and more convenient by providing all kinds of facilities to the visiting tourists. Accordingly not only plants have been planted throughout its length and breadth and afforestation undertaken on organised basis, but fully furnished holiday camps and a restaurant have also been set up.

[1] The measurements are 1, 10′ × 10′; 2, 11′ × 11′; 3, 11′ × 11′; 4, 8′ × 8′; 5, 8′ × 8′; 6, 3½′ × 3½′; 7, 6′ × 6′; 8, 11′ × 11′; 9, 4′ × 4′; 10, 4′ × 4′.

[2] Persian *Ferishta*, II, 143, and Briggs' *Ferishta* IV, 283.

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Material for four tents of 4·58 × 3·66 metres (15 ft. × 12 ft.) dimensions has also been kept for the convenience of the visiting tourists. Plans are afoot to make available tap water and electricity and provide parks and playgrounds. Plots are also on sale for the construction of private bungalows and gardens.

Though Toranmal, is as good a hill station as any climatologically, it has not succeeded in attracting enough tourist traffic as such so far, besides the pilgrims who gather to pay their homage to the deities in whose honour there are shrines here. This is primarily because the hill station is difficult of access even to-day. From Dhulia it can be reached via Shahada and Ranipur of which the stretch of 28·98 km. (18 miles) between Shahada and Ranipur is a fair weather road, rendered unusable during monsoons. Further from Ranipur onwards there is only a jeepable track. It is precisely the difficulty, the difficulty of transport which has kept down the tourist traffic substantially. However, work in progress on these roads when completed would do away with this hurdle.

In the environs are two temples dedicated to Gorakhnath and Nagarjun respectively. In honour of the former deity a fair, attended by people coming not only from and around the district but also those from Khargon district of Madhya Pradesh and Chhota Udepur of Gujarat, is held on *Mahashivratri* day. The deity is held so much in reverence that many people make the pilgrimage on foot, sometimes involving four or more days, in order to evoke its blessings. Notwithstanding the difficulty of transport thousands of persons throng on the occasion.

Toranmal also lays claim to historical importance, in that it is supposed to be the ancient capital of the Mandu dynasty.

TORKHEDE. *Torkhede*, largely an agricultural village situated on the plain in Shahada had 2,514 souls in 1961. It lies about 25·74 km. (16 miles) south-east of Prakashe and was mentioned in 1826 by Captain Clunes as a neat little town on the high road from Surat to Mhow, with a large ferry boat capable of carrying 200 persons[1]. In 1862 its fort was in pretty good repair.[2]

VIKHARAN. *Vikharan* is a village in Sindkheda taluka lying 6·43 km. (4 miles) of Dondaicha a railway station on the Surat-Bhusaval section of the western railway. Virdel, another railway station, is only 0·8046 km. (four furlongs) from it. The village has a primary school, a montesori and multipurpose co-operative society. Vikharan is, however, known for some old temples of the Yadava period, perhaps built with the patronage of the kings of that dynasty. Most of these are in a ruined state, but the remains as well as the fragments found scattered around, indicate that the craftsmanship was of a very

[1] Clunes' *Itinerary*, 88.

[2] *Govt. list of civil forts*, 1862.

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high order. Of the existing temples that of Dvarkeshvar deserves mention. It is said that the idol in the temple was found by a Rajput in the tank just behind the temple. The temple is supposed to have been built by one Vitthal Svami with the help of the villagers. In honour of Dvarkeshvar a fair, *yatra*, is held on *Kartika Shuddha* 11, and lasts for three days. The village has also an old temple dedicated to Mahadev.

VINCHUR. *Vinchur*, with 1691 inhabitants in 1961, is a small agricultural village in Dhulia taluka known for a large well supposed to have been built by the *Gavali Rajas*. But the well is no more in existence, houses having come up in that area. There is also a shrine of Mahadev with a 9·144 × 9·144 metres (30 ft. × 30 ft.) *sabhamandap* supported on twelve wooden pillars. While the *ling* symbol is housed in the inner shrine the *nandi* image is installed in the *sabhamandap*. In the same temple but in a separate chamber is a marble image of Ganapati.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of the towns and villages are broadly 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—च्; ch—छ्; ṭ—ट्; ṭh—ठ्; ḍ—ड्; ḍh—ढ्; n—न्; ṅ—ङ्; ñ—ञ्; ṇ—ण्; s—स्; ś—श्; ṣ—ष्; ḷ—ळ्.

Abbreviations indicating tahsils :—

Akkalkuwa—AKA.	Navapur—NVP.	Sindkhed—SDK.
Akrani Mahal—AKR.	Sakri—SKI.	Taloda—TLD.
Dhulia—DHL.	Shahada—SHD.	
Nandurbar—NDR.	Shirpur—SPR.	

Column (2).—(a) Direction ; (b) Travelling distance of the village from the taluka Headquarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from taluka Headquarters—

E—East.	S—South.	NW—North-West.
W—West.	NE—North-East.	SW—South-West.
N—North.	SE—South-East.	HQ—Headquarters.

Column (3).—(a) Area (Sq. miles) ; (b) Total population ; (c) Number of households ; (d) Total number of 'cultivators' and 'agricultural labourers'.

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.	o—scarcity of water.	pl—pipe-line.	t—tank.
cl—canal.	p—pond.	spr—spring.	W—big well.
n—nalla.	rsr—reservoir.	str—stream.	w—small well.

Column (9).—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, fair, temple, math, mosque, dargah, dharmashala, gymnasium, chavadi, library, dispensary, church and inscription :—

Sl—School.	Cs—co-operative society.	(sp)—sale and purchase.	dh—dharamshala.
(pr)—primary.	(c)—credit.	(wvg)—weaving.	gym—gymnasium.
(m)—middle.	(fmg)—farming.	Fr—fair.	ch—chavadi.
(h)—high.	(gr)—group.	tl—temple.	lib—library.
(tr-clg)—training college.	(i)—industrial.	m—math.	dp—dispensary.
mun—municipality.	(con)—consumers.	mq—mosque.	(vet)—Veterinary.
pyt—panchayat.	(mis)—miscellaneous.	dg—dargah.	Cch—Church.
	(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—Magh ; Phg—Phalguna ; Sud—Shudha (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) stand for miles and furlongs.

Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village/Town name in Marathi	Direction from the taluka/ peta H. Q. ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. miles) ; Population; Households ; Agricultural population	Post Office ; Distance	Railway Station; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day; Distance	Motor Stand; Distance	Drinking Water facilities	Institutions and other information
Abhāṇapūr Kh. SHD (अभाणपूर खु.) ..	SE; 23-0	5·0; 203; 45; 119	Torkhede; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 18-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 3-0	Torkhe-de; 3-0	n.	tl.
Acapā AKR (अचपा) ..	N; 3-2	1·0; 230; 39; 104	Dhadgaon;3-2	Nandurbar ; 45-0	Taloda ; Fri. 31-2	Dhad-gaon; 3-2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp-gr).
Ācchī SDK (आच्छी) ..	N; 8-0	4·2; 490; 87; 249	Varpade; 3-0	Sindkhed ; 10-4	Virdel ; Fri. 3-0	Virdel; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; 3Cs; 3tl.
Āḍachī NDR (आडछी) ..	N; 7-0	2·0; 705; 119; 339	Dhamdai; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 7-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 7-0	Dham-dai Phata; 1-4	W.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; tl.
Aḍagāṅv SHD (अडगांव) ..	NE; 16-0	0·5; 830; 132; 409	Ambapur; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 34-0	Shahada ; Tue. 16-0	.. 6-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Āḍhe SPR (आढे) ..	S; 6-0	2·8; 785; 134; 310	Savalde; 4-0	Nardane ; 17-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Shirpur; 5-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); 2tl.
Ahilyāpūr SPR (अहिल्यापूर) ..	SE 8-0	2·1; 916; 146; 368	Gartada; 2-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Thalner ; Thu. 4-0	Tande Phata; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl; dg.
Aicāḷe SKI (ऐचाळे) ..	NE; 27-0	10·3; 1191; 190; 559	Indave; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 12-0	Dusane ; Sun. 10-0	Indave; 5-0	W	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (C); Kalaba Dev Fr. Srn; 2tl; ch; lib.
Ajanāḍ SPR (अजनाड) ..	SE; 14-0	6·8; 1189; 224; 527	Bhatpure; 1-0	Nardane ; 32-0	Shirpur ; Mon.14-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Ajanāḷe DHL (अजनाळे) ..	SW; 14-0	6·2; 315; 59; 144	....	Dhulia ; 14-0	....	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dh; ch. ..
Ajande Bk. SDK (अजंदे बु.) ..	SE; 17-0	1·7; 1061; 214; 458	Valkhede; 5-0	Betavad ; 0-2	Betavad ; Fri. 3-0;	Stage; ..	W; w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Mariai Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3tl; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Ajande Bk. SPR (अजंदे बु.) ..	SE; 16-0	2·2; 1713; 310; 783	Hol; 0-1	Nardane ; 38-0	Hol ; Sat. 0-1	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; 2dp.
Ajande Kh. SDK (अजंदे खु.) ..	SE; 6-0	2-0; 985; 174; 327	Local ..	Nardane ; 3-0	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	Narda-ne; 2-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); Vitthal Fr. Asd. Sud. 11; 3tl; ch.
Ajande Kh. SPR (अजंदे खु.) ..	E; 2-0	0·8; 496; 82; 251	Dahivad; 2-0	Nardane ; 15-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 2-0	Shirpur; 2-0	W.	2Sl (pr); 2Cs(mp,mis); tl.
Ajaṅg DHL (अजंग) ..	E; 9-0	5·7; 1684; 298; 832	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 11-0	Dhulia ; Tue.10-0	Local; ..	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahadev Fr. Kt. Sud. 12; 6tl; m; 2gym; ch; lib.
Akalāḍ DHL (अकलाड) ..	W; 14-0	4·1; 895; 164; 465	Kusumbe; 2-0	Dhulia ; 15-0	Kusumbe ; Wed. 2-0	Morane;0-4	sv.	Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 3tl; ch.
				Dondaicha ; 18-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 3-0	Torkhe-de; 3-0	n.	tl.

Village/Town name ; Taluka abbreviation; Village/Town name in Marathi	Direction from the taluka/peta H. Q. ; Travelling distance	Area (Sq. miles); Population; Households; Agricultural population	Post Office; Distance	Railway Station; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance	Motor Stand; Distance	Drinking Water facilities	Institutions and other information
Ākasapūr SHD (आकसपूर) ..	NW; 11-0	4·0; 543; 95; 275	Kudhavad; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 28-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 6-0	Padal-de; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ākhāḍe SKI (आखाडे) ..	N; 14-0	8·0; 1046; 176; 562	Nijampur; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 3-0	Nijam-pur; 3-0	W; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl; ch.
Ākkaḍase SDK (आक्कडसे) ..	NE; 5-0	2·4; 438; 69; 157	Varpade; 3-0	Sindkhed ; 6-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 6-0	Varpa-de; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Akkalakos SDK (अक्कलकोस)	W; 26-0	3·8; 103; 23; 51	Malpur; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 8-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 8-0	Malpur; 4-0	n.	tl.
Akkalakuvā Kh. AKA (अक्कलकुवा खु.)	HQ; ..	1·8; 3176; 606; 459	Local; ..	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Local ; Wed. ..	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (2pr; h); 3 Cs (mp, mis, fmg); tl; 2mq ; dg; dh ; lib; 2dp.
Akkalapāḍā SKI (अक्कलपाडा)	E; 11-0	3·7; 542; 108; 273	Chinch-khede; 0-2	Dhulia ; 22-0	Ner ; Thu. 5-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr) ; 2 tl; dh ; gym; lib.
Ākrāḷe NDR (आक्राळे) ..	E; 9-0	3·8; 507; 93; 273	Ranale; 3-0	Tishi ; 2-0	Ranale ; Sun. 3-0	Bhaler; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp) Kothya Dev Fr. Kt. (in Dipavali); 2 tl.
Alakheḍ SHD (अलखेड) ..	N; 6-0	1·5; 494; 99; 265	Shahada; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	.. 0-½	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Alāṇe SDK (अलाणे) ..	S; 5-4	2·1; 287; 56; 98	Kadane; 0-1	Sindkhed ; 2-5	Sindkhed ; Mon. 5-4	.. 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch; lib.
Alavāṇ TLD (अलवाण) ..	N; 10-0	0·1; 22; 4; 10	Pratapa-pur; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Taloda ; Fri. 10-4	Talo-da; 10-0	W.	....
Alivihīr AKA (अलिविहीर) ..	NE ; 8-0	0·7 ; 237 ; 44 ; 137	Nalgav-han ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Vanyavihir ; Mon. 5-0	Akkal-kuva ; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Āmadaḍ DHL (आमदड) ..	SE ; 14-0	4·0 ; 383 ; 72 ; 115	Chinch-khede ; 3-0	Shirud ; 7-0	Shirud ; Fir. 7-0	Mukti; 4-0	W; w.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Āmakhel SKI (आमखेल) ..	N ; 20-0	2·9 ; 748 ; 121 ; 341	Bramhan-vel ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Kasbe Chhadvel; Fri. 2-0	Kasbe Chhad-vel ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; lib.
Amalā AKR (अमला) ..	N; 3-2	0·4 ; 147 ; 24 ; 79	Dhad-gaon ; 3-2	....	....	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr).
Āmalāḍ TLD (आमलाड) ..	E ; 2-0	7·4 ; 1840 ; 368 ; 1045	Taloda ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Taloda ; Fri. 2-0	....	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 9tl; ch.
Amalāṇ NVP (अमलाण) ..	N ; 5-0	3·5 ; 841 ; 139 ; 498	Navapur ; 5-0	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; Sat. 6-0	Nava-pur ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.

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Amalapāḍā TLD (अमलपाडा) ..	W ; 11-0	0·5 ; 539 ; 97 ; 337	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 25-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 3-0	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Amaḷathe NDR (अमळथे) ..	NE ; 22-0	2·0 ; 227 ; 38 ; 114	Koparli; 2-0	Ranale ; 5-0	Koparli ; Sat. 2-0	Koparli ; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Amaḷathe SDK (अमळथे) ..	N ; 6-0	4·3; 1192 ; 198 ; 474	Varpade ; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 8-4	Shindkhed ; Mon. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Āmalī SKI (आमली) ..	NW ; 23-0	9·7; 921 ; 157 ; 397	Chaupale ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 19-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 11-0	Dhaner ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Kanhayalal Maharaj Fr. Kt. Sud 11 ; 2tl.
Āmalī TLD (आमली) ..	NW ; 16-0	1·7 ; 369 ; 62 ; 157	Vanyavihir Kh. ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 28-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 6-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs.
Āmalībārī AKA (आमलीबारी) ..	N ; 6-0	0·2 ; 218 ; 44 ; 116	Akkalkuva ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 6-0	Akkalkuva ; 6-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Āmarāḷe SDK (आमराळे) ..	S ; 10-0	2·5 ; 1319 ; 206 ; 446	Shevade ; 4-0	Sindkhed ; 8-0	Chimthane ; Sun. 4-0	Arave ; 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c) ; tl ; ch.
Amarāve NDR (अमरावे) ..	NW ; 8-0	0·6 ; 18 ; 2 ; 10	Dhamdai; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 8-0	Pathara i ; 0-6	rv.	2tl.
Ambābārī AKA (अंबाबारी) ..	W ; 8-0	0·5 ; 531 ; 99 ; 327	Raisingapur ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Khapar ; Tue. 4-0	Khapar ; 4-0	rv.	tl.
Ambārī AKR (अंबारी) ..	SE ; 1-4	0·8 ; 34 ; 6 ; 19	Dhadgaon ; 1-4	Dondaicha ; 59-0	Shahada ; Tue. 39-0	Dhadgaon ; 1-4	W.	Cs (mp-gr).
Ambāribār AKA (अंबारीबार) ..	NE ; 24-0	0·1 ; 87 ; 17 ; 52	Jamana ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 51-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 24-0	Akkalkuva ; 24-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Āmbe SPR (आंबे) ..	E ; 24-0	2·7 ; 1424 ; 246 ; 782	Shirpur ; 24-0	Nardane ; 39-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 24-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; dg.
Amboḍe DHL (अंबोडे) ..	E ; 10-0	6·4 ; 1676 ; 306 ; 898	Vani Bk. ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 11-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 11-0	....	W.	Sl (pr); pyt ; Cs ; 2tl ; m.
Āmode SHD (आमोदे) ..	N : 10-0	4·4 ; 1836 ; 310 ; 925	Mhasavad ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 27-0	Mhasavad ; Mon. 2-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl(pr) ; 2tl.
Amode SKI (अमोदे) ..	NW; 10-0	1·5 ; 324 ; 57 ; 205	Ghodade ; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 24-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 3-0	.. 1-0	n.	Sl (pr).
Āmode SPR (आमोदे) ..	E ; 1-0	2·4 ; 979 ; 173 ; 344	Shripur ; 1-0	Nardane ; 15-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 1-0	Shirpur ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; Mahadev Fr. Kt. Sud. 11 ; 5tl.

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Amoṅī TLD (अमोंनी) ..	NW ; 8-0	3·7 ; 606 ; 124 ; 353	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda ; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Anakavāḍe SHD (अनकवाडे) ..	N ; 8-0	0·6 ; 257 ; 55 ; 138	Mhasavad ; 0-½	Dondaicha ; 27-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 0-½	.... 0-½	W; n.	Cs (gr); Mahadev Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 2tl.
Ānakavāḍī DHL (आनकवाडी) ..	SW ; 15-0	6·8 ; 748 ; 140 ; 201	Arvi ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 15-0	Arvi ; Mon. 3-0	Arvi ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mis) ; 2tl ; gym ; ch.
Anarad SHD (अनरद) ..	S ; 6-0	3·8; 1499 ; 295 ; 609	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 12-0	Sarangkhede ; Sun. 4-0	Local; ..	..	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 3tl ; mq; dg ; lib.
Añcāḍe DHL (अंचाडे) ..	SE ; 15-0	4·4; 1269 ; 220 ; 657	Chinchkhede ; 0-4	Shirud ; 7-0	Shirud ; Fri. 7-0	 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 4 tl.
Añjanavihire SDK (अंजनविहिरे) ..	W ; 12-0	8·3 ; 857 ; 151 ; 319	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 5-0	Dhondaicha; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Aṅkuśavihir AKA (अंकुशविहिर) ..	W ; 6-0	0·9 ; 589 ; 101 ; 285	Akkalkuva ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 6-0	 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c).
Aṅkuśavihīr TLD (अंकुशविहीर) ..	W ; 18-0	0·5 ; 486 ; 100 ; 304	Akkalkuva ; 4-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 4-0	Akkalkuva ; 3-0	W.	Cs (c).
Anturli SPR (अंतुर्ली) ..	W ; 14-0	2·7 ; 726 ; 128 ; 400	Tekvade ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 11-0	Shirpur ; Mon1.4-0	Varul ; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Arāḷe NDR (अराळे) ..	E ; 18-0	3·2 ; 707 ; 107 ; 257	Koparli ; 4-0	Ranale ; 4-0	Koparli ; Sat. 4-0	Koparli ; 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 4tl ; 3dg ; ch.
Ārāve SDK (आरावे) ..	SW ; 10-0	8·3 ; 1145 ; 195 ; 463	Shevade ; 3-0	Shindkhed ; 9-0	Chimthane ; Sun. 3-0	 0-1	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl; ch.
Ārḍitārā NDR (आर्डीतारा) ..	W ; 15-0	0·3 ; 546 ; 92 ; 307	Natavad; ..	Nandurbar ; 15-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 2-0	Dhanora;..	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Areṭhī AKA (अरेठी) ..	NW ; 45-0	0·05 ; 37 ; 8 ; 25	Mulgi ; 23-0	Nandurbar ; 67-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 45-0	Mulgi ; 23-0	rv.	....
Ārṇī DHL (आर्णी) ..	NE ; 6-0	4·3 ; 574 ; 114 ; 235	Kundane 2-0 Pr. Varkhed ;	Dhulia 7-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 6-0	Dhulia ; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Maha shivaratra Fr. Mg; 3tl ; dg.
Arthe Bk. SPR (अर्थे बु.) ..	NW ; 6-0	3·3 ; 1740 ; 320 ; 616	Local; ..	Nardane; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs; 3tl ; m ; lib ; dp.
Arthe Kh. SPR (अर्थे खु.) ..	NW; 5-0	1·6 ; 1222 ; 234 ; 594	Arthe Bk. ; 0-1	Nardane; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 5-0	Arthe Bk; 0-1	W.	pyt ; Cs.

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Ārvī DHL (आर्वी) ..	SW ; 12-0	11·6 ; 3015 ; 555 ; 1173	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 12-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Local; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m); pyt ; .. 2Cs (mp, mis) ; Rokadobaba Fr.sud. 2 ; 4tl ; 2dg ; gym ; 2 lib ; 2dp.
Asalī AKR (असली) ..	SW ; 17-0	2·3 ; 716 ; 111 ; 432	Shisa ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Taloda ; Fri. 15-0	Dhad- gaon ; 17-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Asaḷī SPR (असळी) ..	SE ; 8-0	1·3 ; 227 ; 49 ; 123	Thalner; 4-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Bhor- kheda ; 0-4	W; n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Asalod SHD (असलोद) ..	E ; 8-0	3·6 ; 1391 ; 277 ; 570	Manda- ne ; 8-0	Dondaicha ; 15-0	Mandane ; Thu. 2-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; .. Nageshvar Maharaj Fr. Mrg. Sud. 5 ; 3tl ; dh ; lib.
Asāṇe NDR (असाणे) ..	E ; 13-0	3·5 ; 549 ; 92 ; 343	Nihali ; 3-0	Ranale ; 6-0	Ranale ; Sun. 2-0	Gho- tane ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp); 2tl; ch.
Astambā AKR (अस्तंबा) ..	SW ; 18-0	2·0 ; 397 ; 96 ; 245	Shisa ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Taloda ; Fri. 14-0	Dhad- gaon ; 18-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; Ashvathama Fr. Kt. Vad. 15.
Aṣṭāṇe SKI (अष्टाणे) ..	W ; 4-0	4·0 ; 1127 ; 196 ; 535	Ghoda- de ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 28-0	Sakri ; Sun. 4-0	Stage ; 0-1	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl ; ch; lib.
Āṣṭe NDR (आष्टे) ..	S ; 8-0	35·2 ; 3766 ; 660 ; 1943	Local; ..	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs. Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 8tl ; dh ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Aṣṭe Tarf Borad TLD (अष्टे तर्फ बोरद) ..	E ; 6-0	0·7 ; 171 ; 36 ; 95	Mod ; 0-1	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda ; Fri. 6-0	....	W.	Cs (c-gr) ; tl.
Āsūs SHD (आसूस) ..	NE ; 3-0	0·7 ; 165 ; 26 ; 89	....	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Shahada ; Tue. 3-0	Lon- khede ; 1-2	rv.	
Auraṅgapūr SHD (औरंगपूर) ..	NW ; 6-6	1·8 ; 418 ; 83 ; 204	Kudha- vad ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 24-6	Mhasavad; Mon. 5-0	 2-6	W ; rv.	Sl/(pr) ; Cs/(fmg) ; tl.
Avadhān DHL (अवधान) ..	S ; 3-4	2·4 ; 1322 ; 231 ; 473	Laling ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 3-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs (mp); 3 tl ; 2 dg ; gym.
Āvage SHD (आवगे) ..	N ; 5-4	1·1 ; 71 ; 14 ; 45	Mhasa- vad ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	3 Cs (2c-gr, fmg-gr).
Āyane SKI (आयने) ..	E ; 20-0	6·2 ; 519 ; 99 ; 243	Shira- dhane ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 24-0	Ner ; Thu. 6-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; ch ..
Babhaḷāj SPR (बभळाज) ..	SE ; 15-0	3·2 ; 1129 ; 232 ; 575	Thalner; 11-0	Nardane ; 34-0	Hol ; Sat. 5-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl. ..

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Bābhaḷe SDK (बाभळे)	SE ; 12-0	2·8 ; 250 ; 46 ; 103	Pimpar-khede ; 1-0	Nardane ; 5-0	Songir; Thu. 3-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; Rajasbai Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4, 3tl ; ch.
Bābhuḷade SDK (बाभुळदे) ..	S ; 6-0	0·9 ; 350 ; 64 ; 137	Kadane ; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 3-4	Sindkhed; Mon. 6-0	Hat-nur; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl; ch ; lib.
Bābhuḷade SPR (बाभुळदे) ..	SW ; 6-0	1·2 ; 419 ; 97 ; 178	Gidhade ; 2-0	Nardane ; 10-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. ..	Local; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; dh ; ch.
Bābhuḷavāḍī DHL (बाभुळवाडी)	SE ; 6-0	5·2 ; 853 ; 154 ; 366	Vadjai ; 4-0	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 6-0	Saun-dane ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 5tl ; ch.
Bābre DHL (बाब्रे)	SE ; 18-0	3·3 ; 1010 ; 186 ; 579	Dhaman-gaon ; 1-0	Shirud ; 7-1	Shirud; Fri. 6-2	.. 0-1	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 3tl ; m; ch ; lib.
Bagadā AKA (बगदा) ..	NW ; 26-0	0·2 ; 158 ; 24 ; 96	Mulgi ; 16-0	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	Akkal-kuva ; 26-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr).
Bahirapūr SHD (बहिरपूर) ..	NE ; 13-0	0·8 ; 286 ; 50 ; 129	Raikhed ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 33-0	....	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs(mp) ; 4tl.
Baḷadāṇe NDR (बळदाणे) ..	E ; 14-0	2·3 ; 297 ; 55 ; 166	Nihali ; 2-0	Ranale ; 3-0	Ranale; Sun. 6-0	Nihali ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Bāḷade SPR (बाळदे) ..	W ; 7-0	1·3 ; 690 ; 127 ; 179	Gidhade ; 2-0	Nardane ; 9-0	Shirpur; Mon. 7-0	Gidha-de ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Bālāghāṭ AKA (बालाघाट) ..	N ; 26-0	0·1 ; 118 ; 23 ; 72	Mulgi ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	....	rv.	....
Baḷakuve SPR (बळकुवे) ..	NW ; 7-0	1·1 ; 1350 ; 244 ; 551	Local; ..	Nardane ; 27-0	Shirpur; Mon. 7-0	Vikha-ran ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 3tl ; m ; ch ; lib.
Bāḷāpūr DHL (बाळापूर) ..	E ; 4-2	2·4 ; 1199 ; 228 ; 529	Phagane ; 0-2	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 4-0	Phaga-ne ; 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; dg ; 2gym.
Baḷasāṇe SKI (बळसाणे) ..	NE ; 22-0	16·2 ; 2078 ; 381 ; 1023	Local; ..	....	....	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Balavaṇḍ NDR (बलवंड) ..	SE ; 15-0	5·9 ; 840 ; 142 ; 389	Kharde Kh.; 2-0	Ranale ; 12-0	Ranale ; Sun. 6-0	Rajale; 1-4	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Balhāṇe DHL (बल्हाणे) ..	SE ; 12-0	4·2 ; 611 ; 106 ; 318	Chau-gaon ; 4-0	Dhulia ; 12-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 12-0	Sad-gaon ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dh.
Balhāṇe SKI (बल्हाणे) ..	SE ; 17-0	2·3 ; 1194 ; 191 ; 507	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 40-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 5-0	.. 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl; ch.

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Bāmaḍod NDR (बामडोद) ..	NE ; 9-0	1·4 ; 156 ; 33; 78	Khondamali; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 9-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 9-0	Khondamali ; 1-0	W.	2tl.
Bāmakheḍe Tarf Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (बामखेडे तर्फ सारंगखेडे) ..	S ; 9-0	1·4 ; 508 ; 91 ; 240	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 12-0	Sarangkhede; Sun. 4-0	Anarad ; 3-0	rv.	Cs (mp) ; 3tl ; lib.
Bāmakheḍe Tarf Tārhāḍ SHD (बामखेडे तर्फ तऱ्हाड)	SE ; 16-0	5·2 ; 1599 ; 276 ; 749	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Torkhede; Mon. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 2tl ; dh.
Bāmanagāṅv AKA (बामनगांव) ..	SW ; 7-0	1·1 ; 703 ; 108 ; 448	Navagaon ; 0-6	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Khapar ; Tue. 1-0	Khapar; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr) ; tl.
Bāmanī AKA (बामनी) ..	N ; 42-0	0·2 ; 242 ; 39 ; 139	Mulgi ; 20-0	Nandurbar 68-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 42-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr).
Bāmburle DHL (बांबुर्ले) ..	NW ; 25-0	1·2 ; 272 ; 55 ; 143	Shirdhane Pr. Ner; 1-0	Dhulia ; 25-0	Ner ; Thu. 5-0	.. 25-0	W.	tl ; 2m.
Bāmhaṇe SDK (बाम्हणे) ..	NW ; 12-0	5·1 ; 1906 ; 329 ; 647	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 5-0	Stage ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, h) ; pyt ; Cs (mp) ; Ganapati Fr. ; 5tl ; lib ; dp (vet.).
Ban TLD (बन) ..	NE ; 13-0	1·0 ; 218 ; 43 ; 117	Borad ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 29-0	Borad ; Thu. 4-0	Borad ; 4-0	n.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (c, fmg); tl.
Bandhārā TLD (बंधारा) ..	N ; 8-0	1·3 ; 175 ; 35 ; 105	Pratapapur ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Bāndhārapāḍā NVP (बंधारपाडा) ..	E;	2·8 ; 1389; 222 ; 794	Chitavi; 1-0	Chinchpada ; 7-0	Visarwadi ; Thu. 3-0	Visarwadi ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs.
Baraḍī AKA (बरडी) ..	NW; 22-0	0·1 ; 249 ; 39 ; 126	Mulgi; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Akkalkuva; Wed, 22-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Bārī NVP (बारी) ..	S; 6-0	4·3 ; 323 ; 55 ; 170	Navapur; 6-0	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; Sat. 6-0	Navapur; 6-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Bārīsuragas AKA (बारीसुरगस) ..	N; 27-0	0·4 ; 77 ; 14 ; 43	Mulgi; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 85-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 27-0	....	W ; n.	....
Bāsar SKI (बासर) ..	N; 20-0	3·9 ; 676 ; 123 ; 320	Bramhanvel ; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; Fri. 2-4	Kasbe Chhadavel ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp) ; tl ; lib ; dp.
Bahyāne NDR (बह्याने) ..	E; 16-0	2·7 ; 715 ; 125 ; 293	Koparli ; 4-0	Ranale ; 4-0	Koparli ; Sat. 4-0	Ranale; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; 2 tl ; ch.
Bedākuṇḍ AKA (बेडाकुंड) ..	N; 19-0	0·3 ; 382 ; 72 ; 257	Mulgi ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 19-0	....	W ; n.	....

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Beheḍ DHL (बेहेड) ..	NW; 27-0	2·9 ; 571; 106; 262	Shevade; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 14-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 4-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Beheḍ SKI (बेहेड) ..	S; 12-0	5·4; 1364; 228; 456	Nadase; 2-0	Dhulia ; 32-0	Kasare ; Fri. 8-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 5 tl ; ch ; lib.
Beṭāvad SDK (बेटावद) ..	SE; 21-0	5·8; 5189; 1013; 1845	Local; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	5 Sl (pr, m, 3h); Cs ; 3 tl ; m; mq ; dg ; lib ; 3dp.
Beṭī AKA (बेटी) ..	NW; 20-0	0·1; 81; 16; 41	Akkal-kuva ; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 20-0	....	W n.	....
Bhābalapūr AKA (भाबलपूर) ..	NE; 6-0	0·3; 595; 107; 394	Akkal-kuva ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 6-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr) ; 2 tl ; lib.
Bhaḍagāṅv SHD (भडगांव) ..	SE; 13-0	1·4; 93; 20; 42	Vadali ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 13-0	Shahada ; Tue. 13-0	Vadali; 3-0	rv.	2 tl ; ch.
Bhaḍagāṅv (Malegāṅv) SKI भडगांव (मालेगांव) ..	SE; 25-0	6·3; 283; 49; 118	Mhasadi Pr. Ner ; 5-0	Dhulia ; 30-0	Mhasadi Pr. Ner ; Mon. 5-0	Mhasa-di Pr. Ner; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Bhaḍagāṅv (Ubhaṇḍ). SKI भडगांव (उभंड) ..	NE; 9-0	5·1; 267; 46; 105	Vardha-ne ; 1-4	Dondaicha ; 25-0	Vardhane ; Tue. 1-4	Vardha-ne ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 tl ; ch.
Bhadāṇe DHL (भदाणे) ..	W; 22-0	7·9; 1205; 241; 574	Ner ; 1-4	Dhulia ; 22-0	Ner ; Thu. 1-4	Stage ; 0-4	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; 4 tl.
Bhaḍaṇe SDK (भडणे) ..	SW; 6-0	4·8; 1666; 327; 623	Local; ..	Sindkhed ; 3-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 6-0	Sind-khed ; 3-0	W.	Sl (m); 3 Cs (mp, 2 mis) ; 5 tl ; lib.
Bhāḍaṇe SKI (भाडणे) ..	S; 0-4	5·1; 2115; 372; 712	Sakri ; 0-2	Dhulia ; 32-0	Sakri ; Sun. 0-2	Sakri ; 0-2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs ; 2 tl.
Bhādavaḍ NDR (भादवड) ..	E; 16-0	2·0; 976; 168; 413	Nihali ; 1-0	Ranale ; 2-0	Ranale ; Sun. 6-0	.. 2-0	W rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 5 tl ; dh.
Bhādavaḍ NVP (भादवड) ..	NE; 25-0	8·6; 3327; 545; 1666	Local ; ..	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Local; ..	W ; rv.	4 Sl (pr) ; 3 tl ; lib.
Bhāde SHD (भादे) ..	W; 2-0	2·6; 1037; 176; 613	....	Dondaicha ; 22-0	Shahada ; Tue. 2-0	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs (mp, fmg) ; 2tl ; lib.
Bhagadarī AKA (भगदरी) ..	N; 26-0	2·3; 1622; 300; 925	Mulgi ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	Mulgi ; 4-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mis, fmg).
Bhāgāpūr SHD (भागापूर) ..	NE; 8-4	0·8; 326; 62; 175	Bramban-puri ; 2-4	Dondaicha ; 25-0	Shahada ; Tue. 8-4	Bram-han-puri ; 2-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Bhāgasarī NDR (भागसरी) ...	NE; 9-0	1·6; 381; 68; 146	Khonda-mali ; 0-3	Nandurbar ; 9-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 9-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; 3 tl ; ch.

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Bhāler NDR (भालेर) ..	E; 10-0	4·4; 1563 ; 271 ; 440	Local; ..	Tishi ; 1-0	Koparli ; Sat. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 3 tl ; lib ; dp.
Bhāmaṭe SPR (भामटे) ..	NW; 8-0	3·9 2353 ; 428 ; 986	Local; ..	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Stage ; 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 4Cs (3c, mis) ; dh.
Bhāmer SKI (भामेर) ..	N ; 10-0	24·0 ; 2146 ; 360 ; 1065	Local; ..	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 4-0	.. 1-6	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 6 Cs (mp, 5 fmg) ; Sati Devi Fr. Bdp. 1, Bhavani Devi Fr. Ct. Vad.4; 7tl ; 2 mq ; 2 dg.
Bhāṇe NDR (भाणे) ..	S ; 3-0	1·9 ; 1007 ; 183 ; 387	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 3-0	Nan- durbar ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl.
Bhāṅgaḍe NDR (भांगडे) ...	W ; 15-0	0·6 ; 754 ; 112 ; 386	Dhanora ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 15-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 3-0	Dhanora ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp); t1.
Bhāṅgarāpāṇī AKA. (भांगरापाणी) ..	N ; 26-0	0·6 ; 459 ; 87 ; 231	Kathi ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 52-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	Akkal-26-0 kuva ;	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; t1.
Bhānolī AKR (भानोली) ...	NW ; 7-0	0·3 ; 110 ; 16 ; 57	Dhad- gaon ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 49-0	Taloda ; Fri. 35-0	Dhad- gaon ; 7-0	W ; n.	....
Bharāḍīpādar AKA (भराडीपादर) ..	NW ; 10-0	0·1 ; 211 ; 37 ; 116	Khapar ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Khapar ; Tue. 8-0	....	rv.	....
Bharaḍū NVP (भरडू) ..	NE ; 11-0	2·5 ; 914 ; 156 ; 594	Sonare- digar ; 4-0	Khatgaon ; 3-0	Visarwadi ; Thu. 2-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Bharakuṇḍ AKA (भरकुंड) ..	NE ; 19-0	0·3 ; 280 ; 43 ; 192	Mulgi ; 4-1	Nandurbar ; 45-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 19-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Bharavāḍe SPR (भरवाडे) ..	W ; 7-0	1·1 ; 1278 ; 217 ; 498	Shirpur; ..	Nardane ; 21-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 7-0	Tekva- de ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp) ; t1 ; ch.
Bhaṭāṇe SHD (भटाणे) ..	SE ; 24-0	2·2 ; 1191 ; 193 ; 545	Bhamte ; 3-0	Nardane ; 28-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 10-0	Varul ; 0-3	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Ananda Devi Fr. Vs k. Sud. 5 ; 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Bhāṭapūre SPR (भाटपूरे) ..	SE ; 14-0	6·2 ; 2454 ; 471 ; 1100	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 30-0	Hol ; Sat. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; 5 tl ; lib.
Bhavar TLD (भवर) ...	W ; 2-0	1·4 ; 548 ; 106 ; 238	Taloda ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Taloda ; Fri. 2-0	Talo- da ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.

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Bhavare NVP (भवरे) ..	SW ; 4-0	6·8 ; 685 ; 107 ; 404	Navapur; 4-0	Navapur ; 4-0	Navapur ; Sat. 4-0	Navapur ; 4-0	W ; rv.	tl.
Bhāver SPR (भावेर) ..	SE ; 17-0	2·2 ; 1007 ; 190 ; 508	Hol ; 0-6	.. ..	Hol ; Sat. 0-6	Hol ; 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 4 tl ; dg ; dp.
Bhilāṇe SDK (भिलाणे) ..	E ; 22-0	1·7 ; 104 ; 21 ; 63	Betavad ; 4-0	Betavad ; 4-0	Betavad ; Fri. 6-4	Betavad ; 4-0	W.	tl.
Bhiraḍāī DHL (भिरडाई) ..	E ; 12-0	1·1 ; 211 ; 39 ; 97	Mukti ; 0-4	Dhulia ; 12-0	Mukti ; Mon. 0-4	Mukti ; 0-4	W ; rv.	Cs ; 2tl.
Bhiraḍāṇe DHL (भिरडाणे) ..	E ; 12-0	1·0 ; 412 ; 73 ; 153	Mukti ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 12-0	Mukti ; Mon. 1-0	Mukti ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; 2 tl ; ch.
Bhogavāḍe Bk. AKR (भोगवाडे बु.) ..	NE ; 4-0	0·3 ; 39 ; 8 ; 28	Dhad-gaon ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Taloda; Fri. 32-0	Dhad-gaon ; 4-0	W; rv.	Cs (gr) ; Bhangorya Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Bhogavāḍe Kh. AKR (भोगवाडे खु.) ..	NE ; 4-0	1·2 ; 173 ; 26 ; 99	Dhad-gaon ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Taloda ; Fri. 32-0	Dhad-gaon ; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; Bhangorya Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Bhoiṭī SPR (भोइटी) ..	E ; 18-4	2·1 ; 840 ; 164 ; 457	Shirpur; 18-0	Nardane ; 36-4	.. .. ..	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Bhokar DHL (भोकर) ..	N ; 2-0	3·2 ; 511 ; 75 ; 180	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Bhonagāṅv SKI (भोनगाव) ..	NW ; 10-0	4·5 ; 633 ; 106 ; 336	Dahivel ; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 22-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 2-0	.. 0-1	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr) ; 2 tl ; 2 gym.
Bhorakheḍā SPR (भोरखेडा) ..	SE ; 8-0	3·3 ; 1136 ; 215 ; 537	Thalner ; 4-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 5tl ; dh.
Bhoraṭek SHD (भोरटेक) ..	NE ; 15-0	1·4 ; 326 ; 58 ; 149	Mandane;4-0	Dondaicha ; 33-0	Mandane; Thu. 4-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (gr) ; tl.
Bhoraṭek SPR (भोरटेक) ..	SE ; 16-0	2·6 ; 873 ; 162 ; 435	Thalner ; 3-0	Amalner ; 14-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 16-0	.. 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(c) ; 5 tl.
Bhoyarā AKA (भोयरा) ..	W ; 7-0	0·3 ; 112 ; 18 ; 78	Raising-pur ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar ; Tue. 3-0	Khapar;3-0	W.	..
Bhujagāṅv AKR (भुजगांव) ..	W ; 3-0	0·6 ; 258 ; 40 ; 139	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 43-0	Taloda; Fri. 28-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl(pr).
Bhute SHD (भुते) ..	NW ; 11-0	0·3 ; 184 ; 34 ; 94	Kudha-wad ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 28-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 6-0	Padalde 6-0 Bk. ;	W.	tl.

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Bijagāṅv NVP (बिजगांव) ..	NE ; 31-0	1·6 ; 657 ; 114 ; 372	Mogarani;1-4	Khandbara ; 5-0	Khandbara; Sun. 5-0	Bijgaon; 3-0	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(gr).
Bijalīgavhāṇ AKA (बिजलीगव्हाण) ..	N ; 26-0	0·3 ; 392 ; 68 ; 227	Mulgi ; 3-0	.. 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	....	rv.	Sl(pr).
Bijarīpāṭī AKA (बिजरीपाटी) ..	N ; 21-0	0·3 ; 335 ; 62 ; 185	Mulgi ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 21-0	....	rv.	Sl(pr).
Bilabārapāḍā AKR (बिलबारपाडा) ..	S ; 1-0	0·5 ; 68 ; 13 ; 40	Dhad-gaon ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 60-0	Shahada ; Tue. 39-0	....	rv.	Cs (gr).
Bilāḍī DHL (बिलाडी) ..	NE ; 6-0	4·7 ; 1117 ; 194 ; 497	Nagaon Bk ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia ; Thu. 6-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Mahadev Fr. Vsk.Sud. 9 ; tl ; dh.
Bilāḍī NDR (बिलाडी) ..	W ; 2-0	1·4 ; 335 ; 61 ; 162	Dhekvad; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-0	Nandur-bar ; 2-0	rv.	2Sl(pr, m) ; tl.
Bilāḍī Tarf Havelī SHD (बिलाडी तर्फ हवेली) ..	NE ; 12-0	0·9 ; 415 ; 71 ; 222	Raikhed; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 32-0	..	....	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs(mp) ; 4tl.
Bilāḍī Tarf Sāraṅgakhede SHD बिलाडी तर्फ सारंगखेडे	S ; 9-0	2·1 ; 863 ; 156 ; 372	....	Dondaicha ; 12-0	Sarangkhede; Sun. 4-0	Anarad; 4-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs(mp, fmg) ; 4tl.
Bilamāñjare NVP (बिलमांजरे) ..	SW ; 3-0	3·0 ; 401 ; 74 ; 175	Navapur; 3-0	Navapur ; 3-0	Navapur ; Sat. 3-0	Nava-pur ; 3-0	W ; rv.	2Sl(pr) ; tl.
Bodagāṅv DHL (बोदगांव) ..	SE ; 18-0	1·2 ; 530 ; 101 ; 301	Dhaman-gaon ; 0-5	Shirud; 6-0	Shirud ; Fri. 6-0	Babre ; 1-4	W ; Str.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp); 2tl; m ; ch ; lib.
Bodagàṅv SKI (बोदगांव) ..	NW ; 16-0	4·4 ; 950 155 ; 516	Ghodade; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 24-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 4-0	.. 4-0	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Bokalajhar NVP (बोकलझर).	SE ; 6-0	0·8 ; 321 ; 50 ; 195	Navapur; 6-0	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; Sat. 6-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr); Cs(mp) ; tl.
Bokhāḍī AKA (बोखाडी) ..	N ; 19-0	0·2 ; 237 ; 44 ; 149	Kathi ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 19-0	....	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Bopakhel SKI (बोपखेल) ..	W ; 20-0	3·2 ; 931 ; 156 ; 425	Dagshir-vade; 2-0	....	Warse ; Mon. 3-0	.. 3-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; tl.
Boracak NVP (बोरचक) ..	NE ; 24-0	1·0 ; 701 ; 131 ; 379	Khand-bara ; 3-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khand-bara; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; lib ; Cch.
Borad TLD (बोरद) ..	NE ; 10-0	12·2 ; 4480 ; 887 ; 2380	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Local ; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	4Sl(3pr, m) ; pyt ; 3 Cs ; 4tl ; ch ; lib ; 3dp.

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Borāḍī SPR (बोराडी) ..	N ; 14-0	3·5 ; 2477 ; 450 ; 814	....	Nardane ; 32-0	Local; Thu. ..	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; 5Cs (2fmg, 3mis) ; 3tl; dh ; gym ; lib ; dp.
Boragāṅv SPR (बोरगांव) ..	W ; 4-0	1·3 ; 295 ; 51 ; 138	Jatode ; 0-2	Nardane ; 14-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 4-0	Shir-pur ; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Borajhar NVP (बोरझर) ..	S ; 10-0	3·7 ; 169 ; 29 ; 84	Nava-pur ; 10-0	Navapur ; 10-0	Navapur; Sat. 10-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp).
Borakuṇḍ DHL (बोरकुंड) ..	S ; 16-0	3·3 ; 4949 ; 877 ; 2055	Local ; ..	Shirud; 4-0	Local; Wed. ..	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; 4 Cs. ; Janjani Devi Fr. ct. Sud. 15 ; 9tl ; mq;dg ;2dh ;gym; ch;dp.
Borāḷe NDR (बोराळे) ..	NE ; 16-0	2·2 ; 1140 ; 205 ; 541	Vikha-ran ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 16-0	 0-2	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Borāḷe SHD (बोराळे) ..	SE ; 11-0	1·4 ; 593 ; 103 ; 243	Vadali ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 14-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 5-0	Vadali; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl.
Borapāḍā NVP (बोरपाडा) ..	SE ; 12-0	2·2 ; 965 ; 168 ; 597	Nava-pur ; 12-0	Kolade ; 4-0	Chinch-pada ; Fri. 6-0	Sava-rat ; 4-4	W.	2Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp).
Borasule DHL (बोरसुले) ..	NW ; ..	2·5 ; 306 ; 52 ; 113	Boris ; 0-1	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Boris; Fri. 0-1	Boris ; 0-1	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Boravaṇ AKR (बोरवण) ..	E ; 0-4	1·0 ; 318 ; 51 ; 161	Dhad-gaon ; 0-4	Dondaicha ; 59-4	Shahada ; Tue. 39-4	Dhad-gaon ; 0-4	W.	Cs (mp-gr).
Boravihīr DHL (बोरविहिर) ..	SE ; 10-0	5·4 ; 1436 ; 256 ; 465	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Dhulia; Tue. 10-0	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt; 3Cs(fmg-2mis) ; 4tl; dh ; gym ; ch ; 3lib ; dp.
Borīpāḍā AKA (बोरीपाडा) ..	NE ; 2-4	0·2 ; 15 ; 3 ; 12	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 22-4	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 1-0	Vanya-vihir-Phata ; 1-0	W.	Cs (mp).
Borīs DHL (बोरीस) ..	NW ; 22-0	6·6 ; 3073 ; 543 ; 1082	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Local; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt; 5Cs (mp, mis) ; Sati Devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 14 ; 6tl ; dh ; ch ; lib ; dp.

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Brāmhaṇapurī SHD (ब्राह्मणपुरी)	NE ; 6-0	1.1 ; 1481 ; 242 ; 749	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs(C, mp) ; 3tl.
Brāmhaṇavel SKI (ब्राह्मणवेल) ..	N ; 20-0	18.0 ; 4626 ; 778 ; 2292	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Local ; Wed. ..	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; Dhanai Punai Fr. Ct. Sud. 14 ; 3tl ; dh ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Budhāval TLD (बुधावल) ..	W ; 3-0	2.2 ; 1419 ; 271 ; 776	Taloda ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 17-0	Taloda ; Fri. 3-0	.. 3-0	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Gudhipadava Fr. Ct. Sud. 1 ; 2tl.
Budhāvalī TLD (बुधावली) ..	W ; 4-0	0.9 ; 438 ; 80 ; 239	Taloda ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Buḍīgavhāṇ SHD (बुडीगव्हाण) ..	N ; 5-6	1.1 ; 323 ; 49 ; 169	Padalde; 1-6	Dondaicha ; 23-0	Mhasavad ; Mon. 1-4	Padalde 1-6 Bk. ;	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(fmg); tl.
Bupakarī SHD (बुपकरी) ..	SW ; 6-0	0.9 ; 647 ; 96 ; 327	Damar- khede ; 0-2	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	Damar- khede ; 0-2	rv.	pyt.
Burajhaḍ DHL (बुरझड) ..	NW ; 18-0	5.7 ; 1633 ; 276 ; 781	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 18-0	Songir ; Thu. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	2Sl(pr, m) ; pyt; 2Cs ; 3tl ; lib.
Buruḍakhe SKI (बुरूडखे) ..	NW ; 20-0	7.1 ; 1405 ; 229 ; 698	Pinjarzadi ; ..	Chinchpada ; 20-0	Brahmanvel ; Wed. 4-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2 Cs(c, mis); 2tl ; lib ; dp.
Cākaḷe NDR (चाकळे) ..	SE ; 6-0	3.4 ; 508 ; 84 ; 292	Nandur- bar ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 6-0	Wavad ; 2-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs ; (mp-gr); tl.
Caṇavāī AKA (चणवाई) ..	NW ; 26-0	0.3 ; 287 ; 55 ; 157	..	Nandurbar ; 52-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 26-0	..	n.	Sl (pr).
Cāndagaḍ SDK (चांदगड) ..	S ; 10-0	4.3 ; 423 ; 61 ; 164	Pimpar- khede ; 3-0	Nardane ; 8-0	Songir ; Thu. 6-0	.. 2-4	W; w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2tl ; ch.
Cāndapūr AKA (चांदपूर) ..	W ; 7-0	0.1 ; 187 ; 38 ; 110	Kukur- munde ; 13-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Khapar ; Tue. 1-0	Kha- par ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp-gr).
Cāndapurī SPR (चांदपुरी) ..	W ; 7-0	0.6 ; 509 ; 95 ; 258	Arthe Bk. ; 2-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 7-0	Arthe Bk ; 2-0	W; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Cāndasailī SHD (चांदसैली) ..	N ; 5-0	1.8 ; 156 ; 31 ; 82	Bramhan- puri ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 23-0	Shahada ; Tue. 5-0	Bramhan- puri ; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Cāndase SPR (चांदसे) ..	N ; 10-0	2.3 ; 173 ; 38 ; 83	Shirpur ; 10-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirapur ; Mon. 10-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; 2 tl.

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Cāndhe DHL (चांधे) ..	SE ; 27-0	5·6 ; 1012 ; 203 ; 507	Talvade ; 1-4	Shirud ; 5-0	Shirud ; Fri. 5-0	Talva-de; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 2 tl.
Cāpaḍī AKA (चापडी) ..	NW ; 42-0	0·1 ; 72 ; 13 ; 36	Mulgi ; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 64-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 42-0	Mulgi; 20-0	rv.	....
Caugāṅv DHL (चौगांव) ..	W ; ..	11·2 ; 1886 ; 309 ; 774	..	....	....	....	W; n.	Sl (m).
Caugāṅv Bk. SDK (चौगांव बु.) ..	W ; 5-0	3·8 ; 956 ; 183 ; 408	Varul ; 2-0	Virdel Road ; 3-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 6-0	.. 2-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr) ; 2tl; ch ; lib.
Caugāṅv Bk. TLD (चौगांव बु.) ..	E ; 4-4	1·2 ; 394 ; 74 ; 217	Pratapa-pur ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 18-4	Taloda ; Fri. 4-4	.. 0-1	W.	2 tl ; dg.
Caugāṅv Kh. SDK (चौगांव खु.) ..	W ; 5-0	2·1 ; 306 ; 56 ; 155	Varul ; 2-0	Virdel Road ; 3-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 6-0	.. 2-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr) ; 2tl ; ch.
Caugāṅv Kh. TLD (चौगांव खु.) ..	N ; 8-0	1·6 ; 254 ; 53 ; 145	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	W; n.	Sl (pr).
Caukī NVP (चौकी) ..	SE ; 8-0	3·0 ; 745 ; 120 ; 396	Navapur ; 8-0	Navapur ; 8-0	Navapur ; Sat. 8-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp); Tulaja Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; lib.
Caupāḷe NDR (चौपाळे) ..	E ; 4-0	5·3 ; 1527 ; 282 ; 521	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 4-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 4-0	Stage ; 0-5	W; rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5tl.
Caupāḷe SKI (चौपाळे) ..	W ; 24-0	26·9 ; 4399 ; 721 ; 2414	Dhaner ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 24-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 12-0	.. 4-0	W ; rv.	3 Sl (pr).
Cāvaḷade SDK (चावळदे) ..	NW ; 21-0	1·4 ; 103 ; 16 ; 47	Tavkhede Pr. N. ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 6-0	Takar-kheda; 3-0	rv.	....
Chāīl SKI (छाईल) ..	S ; 9-0	4·6 ; 1597 ; 275 ; 561	Nadase ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 39-0	Kasare ; Fri. 5-0	Local ;	W; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (mp).
Chāparī AKR (छापरी) ..	NW ; 5-0	1·1 ; 233 ; 37 ; 123	Dhad-gaon ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Taloda ; Fri. 33-0	Dhad-gaon ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Chāvaḍī SKI (छावडी) ..	NE ; 21-0	7·5 ; 799 ; 145 ; 427	.. 3-0	Dondaicha ; ..	Lamkani ; Sat. 7-0	Stage ; 0-1	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mis); tl; ch.
Chirave NVP (छिरवे) ..	NE ; 20-0	1·4 ; 494 ; 87 ; 278	Khat-gaon ; 2-0	Khatgaon ; 2-0	Khandbara; Sun. 6-0	....	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Cikase SKI (चिकसे) ..	W ; 15-2	2·7 ; 907 ; 159 ; 375	Pimpal-ner ; 2-0	Navapur ; 33-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 1-2	Pimpal-ner ; 1-2	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Gangveshwar Maha-raj Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 4tl.

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Cikhalī AKA (चिखली) ..	NW ; 14-0	0·2 ; 205 ; 30 ; 117	Akkal-kuva ; 14-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 14-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Cikhalī Bk. SHD (चिखली बु.) ..	N ; 6-0	2·1 ; 394 ; 72 ; 177	Kudha-vad ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Mhasa-vad ; Mon. 4-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Cikhalī Kh SHD (चिखली खु.) ..	NE ; 16-0	0·6 ; 221 ; 35 ; 109	Mandane ; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 33-0	Mandane ; Thu. 4-0	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr).
Ci aṇe SDK (चिलाणे) ..	NW; 6-2	3·9; 2208; 395; 668	Local ; ..	Virdel Road ; 4-0	Virdel ; Fri, 1-0	Stage ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 11 Cs (9 fmg); 2tl; ch; lib; dp.
Cimalakhaḍī AKA (चिमलखाडी)	NW; 42-0	0·2; 146; 21; 78	Mulgi; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 66-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 42-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr).
Cimaṭhaṇe SDK (चिमठाणे) ..	SW; 8-0	3·6; 2388; 396; 891	Local; ..	Sindkhed ; 5-0	Local ; Sun. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w.	2 Sl (pr, h) ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 6tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 3dp.
Cimaṭhaval SDK (चिमठावळ) ..	S; 15-0	3·4; 410; 61; 118	Mukti; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 13-0	Songir ; Thu. 6-0	Dangur-ne; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl; ch.
Ciñcakheḍe DHL (चिचखेडे) ..	SE; 14-0	2·8; 1860; 331; 674	Local ; ..	Shirud ; 8-0	Mukti ; Mon. 3-0	....	W.	Sl (pr); pyt ; 2Cs (mp, mis); Guru-datta Maharaj Fr. Kt. Vad 8; 10tl; lib.
Ciñcakheḍe SKI (चिचखेडे) ..	E; 11-0	2·6; 792; 140; 380	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 22-0	Vasmar ; Sat. 2-0	Akkal-pade; 0-2	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 3tl.
Ciñcapāḍā NVP (चिचपाडा) ..	E; 9-0	5·8; 3556; 655; 1170	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w.	6Sl (5pr, h); 3Cs; Mahadeo Fr. phg; 2tl; mq; dh; lib; 2dp; Cch.
Ciñcavār DHL (चिचवार) ..	NW; 18-0	18·6; 2602; 456; 1377	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 18-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Local ; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr); pyt; 2Cs; 2tl; mq; dg; dh; lib.
Cinode TLD (चिनोदे) ..	N; 1-5	2·2; 1539; 298; 784	Taloda; 1-5	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Taloda ; Fri. 1-5	Taloda ;1-5	W ; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 3 tl; dg; gym; ch; lib.
Ciraḍe SHD (चिरडे) ..	N; 13-0	2·5; 221; 41; 99	Kudhavad; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 30-0	Mhasavad ; Mon. 7-0	Rani-pur; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Ciraṇe SDK (चिरणे) ..	S; 6-0	1·6; 815; 160; 256	Kadane ; ..	 1-4	Chimthane ; Sun. 4-0	.. 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (gr); 2tl; ch; lib.

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Citavī NVP (चितवी) ..	E; 16-0	3·9; 1413; 236; 790	Local; ..	 7-0	Visar-wadi; Thu. 4-0	Visar-wadi; 4-0	W.	2Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Civalautar AKA (चिवलउतर) ..	NE; 15-0	0·4; 503; 78; 294	Mulgi; 8-0	Nandurbar; 40-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 15-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp).
Condavaḍe Bk. AKR (चोंदवडे बु.) ..	SE; 4-0	1·5; 276; 45; 133	Dhad-gaon; 4-0	Dondaicha; 56-0	Shahada; Tue. 36-0	Dhad-gaon; 4-0	W.	Cs (c).
Condavaḍe Kh. AKR (चोंदवडे खु.)	SE; 3-4	0·2; 89; 15; 42	Dhad-gaon; 3-4	Dondaicha; 56-4	Shahada; Tue. 36-4	Dhad-gaon; 3-4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(gr).
Coravaḍ SKI (चोरवड) ..	W; 16-0	5·1; 983; 148; 552	Varse; 4-0	Navapur; 24-0	Varse; Mon. 4-0	Varse; 4-0	W.	2Sl (pr).
Coravihīr NVP (चोरविहीर) ..	NE; 22-0	1·2; 479; 80; 277	Khat-gaon; 2-0	Khatgaon; 3-0	Khand-bara; Sun. 6-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(gr).
Cuḍaṇe SDK (चुडाणे) ..	W; 24-0	1·2; 269; 45; 147	Malpur; 1-4	Dondaicha; 6-0	Dondai-cha; Thu. 6-0	Mal-pur; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); tl; ch.
Culavaḍ AKR (चुलवड) ..	S; 5-0	1·7; 362; 53; 180	Shisa; 3-0	Nandurbar; 39-0	Taloda; Fri. 23-0	Dhad-gaon; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(gr).
Ḍab AKA (डाब) ..	N; 15-0	0·6; 781; 117; 442	Mulgi; 9-0	Nandurbar; 42-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 15-0	Akkal-kuva; 15-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Ḍabalī SDK (डाबली) ..	S; 6-0	2·2; 802; 151; 323	Hol P. B; 1-0	Hol P. B; 1-0	Nardane; Sat. 2-0	Stage; ..	W; w.	Sl(pr); pyt; Cs; Gorakshanatha Fr. Mg. Sud. 2; 3tl; ch.
Dabhāśī SDK (दभाशी) ..	E; 6-0	2·9; 880; 160; 375	Kam-khede; 3-0	Nardane; 3-0	Varshi; Tue. 2-0	Varshi; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; dh; ch.
Dahel AKA (दहेल) ..	N; 13-0	0·4; 312; 60; 177	Akkal-kuva; 13-0	Nandurbar; 40-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 13-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr).
Dahindūle Bk. NDR (दहिंदूलें बु.) ..	NE; 5-0	0·6; 600; 111; 350	Patonde; 2-0	Nandurbar; 5-0	Nandur-bar; Tue. 5-0	Paton-de; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(gr); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; tl.
Dahindūle Kh. NDR (दहिंदूले खु.) ..	NE; 6-0	1·0; 316; 57; 93	Patonde; 2-0	Nandurbar; 6-0	Nandur-bar; Tue. 6-0	Paton-de; 2-0	rv.	Cs; 2tl.
Dahivad SPR (दहिवद) ..	E; 5-0	12·0; 1955; 355; 641	Local; ..	Nardane; 22-0	Shirpur; Mon. 5-0	Local; ..	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 5tl; 2dh; ch.

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Dahivel SKI (दहिवेल) ..	NW; 12-0	20·0; 5215; 873; 2436	Local; ..	Chinchpada; 20-0	Local; Thu. ..	Local; ..	W; w.	10Sl (8pr, m, h); 2Cs; Khambachi Fr. Ct; 4tl; 4dg; 3dh; 2gym; 2lib; 2dp.
Dahyāne DHL (दह्याने) ..	SW; 6-0	7·0; 660; 113; 332	Local; ..	Dhulia; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 6-0	Dhulia; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Dalavāḍe Pr. N. SDK (दलवाडे प्र. न.) ..	NW; 5-4	2·6; 1399; 225; 626	Virdel; 0-4	Virdel Road; 6-0	Virdel; Fri. 0-4	Virdel; 0-4	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl; ch.
Dalavāḍe Pr. S. SDK (दलवाडे प्र. सो.) ..	SW; 8-0	2·4; 238; 36; 93	Chimthane; 0-4	Sindkhed; 5-0	Chimthane; Sun. 0-4	Chimthane; 0-4	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Dalelapūr TLD (दलेलपूर) ..	N; 2-0	2·5; 946; 912; 465	Taloda; 2-0	Nandurbar; 14-0	Taloda; Fri. 2-0	Taloda; 2-0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Ḍāmaḷade SHD (डामळदे) ..	NE; 11-0	2·5; 682; 124; 368	Mandane; 3-0	Dondaicha; 21-0	Mandane; Thu. 3-0	Mandane; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl.
Ḍāmarakheḍe SHD (डामरखेडे) ..	SW: 6-0	1·8; 1615; 258; 855	Local; ..	Dondaicha; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; 3Cs (mp, mis, fmg); 2tl; lib.
Ḍanel AKA (डनेल) ..	N; 42-0	0·3; 368; 56; 196	Mulgi; 18-0	....	....	Mulgi; 18-0	n; str.	Sl (pr).
Ḍāṅg Śiravāḍe SKI (डांग शिरवाडे) ..	W; 22-0	5·4; 832; 137; 386	Local; ..	Navapur; 26-0	Pimpalner; Fri. ..	....	W; n.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs; 2tl; dh; ch.
Ḍāṅguraṇe SDK (डांगुरणे) ..	S; 14-0	6·0; 755; 135; 354	Mukti; 3-0	Sindkhed; 12-0	Songir; Thu. 5-0	Stage; 0-1	W.	Sl (pr); 4Cs; 2tl; dh; ch.
Dāpūr NVP (दापूर) ..	E; 14-0	1·8; 369; 57; 189	Navapur; 14-0	Chinchpada; 9-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 6-0	Visarwadi; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs.
Dāpūr SKI (दापूर) ..	NW; 16-0	5·2; 660; 93; 359	Jebapur; 1-0	Dhulia; 45-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 4-0	Rohan; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; lib.
Dāpurā DHL (दापुरा) ..	N; 14-0	0·9; 375; 72; 197	Songir; 1-0	Nardane; 16-0	Songir; Thu. 1-0	Songir; 1-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Dāpurī DHL (दापुरी) ..	N; 13-0	2·4; 220; 38; 112	Songir; 3-0	Nardane; 11-0	Songir; Thu. 3-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Darā SHD (दरा) ..	NW; 14-0	2·2; 246; 44; 119	....	Dondaicha; 31-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 6-0	Stage; ..	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.

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Darakheḍe SDK (दरखेडे)	S; 6-0	1·1; 408 ; 59 ; 114	Kadane; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 3-4	Sind-khed; Mon. 6-0	Hatnur phata; 1-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch; lib.
Dārakhel SKI (दारखेल)	S; 12-0	2·5; 278 ; 49; 75	Nadase; 1-4	Dhulia ; 32-0	..	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2tl ; 1ib. ..
Darāṇe SDK (दराणे)	SW; 11-0	4·9; 1061; 178 ; 337	Mukti ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 8-0	Chim-thane ; Sun. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp) ; 3tl; ch.
Dasarāpādar AKA (दसरापादर)	NW ; 10-0	0·3 ; 95 ; 18 ; 45	Khapar ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Khapar; Tue. 7-0	..	n.	..
Dasavaḍ TLD (दसवड)	E ; 4-0	1·1 ; 335 ; 60 ; 162	Taloda ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	Stage ; 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Dasavel SDK (दसवेल)	SE ; 4-0	2·8 ; 750 ; 128 ; 243	Hol P. B. ; 1-0	Hol P.B. ; 2-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 4-0	Hol P.B.; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); 2tl.
Dātartī SKI (दातर्ती)	SE ; 5-0	11·6 ; 1955 ; 348 ; 981	Shevali ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 37-0	Sakri ; Sun. 5-0	She-vali ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs(mp) ; 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Dattāṇe SDK (दत्ताणे)	SE ; 6-0	2·5 ; 792 ; 145 ; 265	Ajande Kh. ; 1-0	Nardane ; 4-0	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs(mp);2tl. ch.
Dāuḷ SDK (दाऊळ)	NW ; 14-0	4·6 ; 1399 ; 279 ; 453	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 2-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 2-0	Dondai-cha ; 2-0	W ; w	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl; m; ch ; lib.
Degāṅv SDK (देगांव)	SW ; 16-0	8·4 ; 1063 ; 188 ; 394	Shevade ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 10-0	She-vade ; 3-0	W ; w	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Degāṅv SKI (देगांव)	W ; 14-0	5·9 ; 1522 ; 226 ; 747	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 46-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 4-0	Pimpal-ner ; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs; 2tl.
Deśaśiravāḍe SKI (देशशिरवाडे)	SW ; 16-0	2·4 ; 1281 ; 198 ; 490	Local; ..	Chinchpada ; 20-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 2-0	Stage ; 0-½	W.	2Sl(pr,m); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Deur SHD (देऊर)	SE ; 16-0	2·0 ; 667 ; 115 ; 334	Vadali ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 13-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 4-0	Vadali ; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Deur Bk. DHL (देऊर बु.)	W ; 22-1	6·1 ; 2844 ; 472 ; 1357	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 22-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner) ; Thu. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; 3Cs (mp, mis, fmg) ; Dhanadai Devi Fr. Vsk. sud. 11 ; 7tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Deur Kh. DHL (देऊर खु.)	W ; 22-1	4·7 ; 652 ; 107 ; 353	Deur Bk. ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 22-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); Thu. 4-0	Deur Bk ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch ; lib.

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Devabhāne DHL (देवभाने) ..	N ; 10-0	7·0 ; 1068 ; 189 ; 295	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 10-0	Songir ; Thu. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl.
Devaḷīpāḍā NVP (देवळीपाडा) ..	E ; 17-0	6·6 ; 1535 ; 279 ; 938	Chitali ; 2-0	.. 9-0	Visarwadi ; Thu. 8-0	.. 2-0	W.	3Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp).
Devapūr DHL (देवपूर) ..	..	3·7 ; 8 ; 2 ; 6	..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	.. ..
Dhaḍagāṅv AKR (धडगांव) ..	HQ ; ..	1·1 ; 384 ; 66 ; 177	Roshamal 0-2 Bk.;	Dondaicha ; 60-0	Taloda ; Fri. 28-0	Local ; ..	W.	Cs(c).
Dhāḍaṇe SKI (धाडणे) ..	W ; 8-0	4·5 ; 2725 ; 453 ; 1157	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 40-0	Sakri ; Sun. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl(pr,h) ; pyt ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 5 ; 4tl ; lib ; dp.
Dhāḍre DHL (धाड्रे) ..	S ; 14-0	6·6 ; 920 ; 159 ; 418	Purme-pada ; 2-0	Shirud ; 14-0	Arvi ; Mon. 2-0	Arvi ; 2-0	W. W	Sl(pr) ; 2 Cs ; Navanath Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 4tl; dh ; ch; lib.
Dhāḍrī DHL (धाड्री) ..	S ; ..	6·3 ; 570 ; 98 ; 288	..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W; rv.	Sl (Pr).
Dhamaḍāi NDR (धमडाई) ..	N ; 6-4	1·9 ; 842 ; 133 ; 420	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 6-4	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 6-4	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 2tl.
Dhāmaḍod NDR (धामडोद) ..	NE ; 5-0	4·2 ; 625 ; 119 ; 351	Umarde 2-0 Kh. ;	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandur-bar; Tue. 5-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Dhamalāḍ SHD (धमलाड) ..	W ; 6-0	1·0 ; 28 ; 6 ; 20	Katharde 1-6 Bk.;	Nandurbar; 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	Vaijali ; 4-0	W.	tl.
Dhāmaṇadhar SKI (धामणधर) ..	SE ; 30-0	4·8 ; 222 ; 36 ; 120	Balhane ; 8-0	Navapur ; 35-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 11-0	.. 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Dhāmaṇagāṅv DHL (धामणगांव)	SE ; 18-0	2·4 ; 1185 ; 205 ; 576	Local ; ..	Shirud ; 5-0	Shirud ; Fri. 5-0	Babre ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; dg ; dh ; lib.
Dhamanār SKI (धमनार) ..	SE ; 16-0	17·6 ; 2203 ; 381 ; 903	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 28-0	Mhasadi ; Mon. 4-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl; ch ; lib.
Dhamāṇe DHL (धमाणे) ..	N ; 8-0	1·7 ; 1011 ; 188 ; 588	Nagaon 2-0 Bk. ;	Dhulia ; 8-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 8-0	Nagaon 1-0 Bk. ;	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Dhamāṇe SDK (धमाणे) ..	NW ; 10-0	2·6 ; 1992 ; 346 ; 706	Bamhane; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 6-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 2tl ;ch.

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Dhanāje Bk. AKR (धनाजे बु.) ..	E ; 1-4	3·3 ; 880 ; 146 ; 465	Dhad-gaon ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 43-0	....	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Bhongarya Fr. Phg. Sud . 15 ; tl.
Dhanāje Kh. AKR (धनाजे खु.) ..	E ; 2-0	0·4 ; 166 ; 28 ; 82	Dhad-gaon ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Taloda ; Fri. 30-0	Dhad-gaon ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr).
Dhanakhāḍī AKA (धनखाडी) ..	NW ; 67-0	0·03 ; 97 ; 15 ; 50	Mulgi ; 38-0	Nandurbar; 97-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 67-0	Mulgi ; 38-0	rv.	....
Dhanapūr TLD (धनपूर) ..	NE ; 8-0	4·9 ; 1233 ; 219 ; 623	Pratapa-pur ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Pratapa-pur ; 3-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) Cch.
Dhanarāṭ NVP (धनराट) ..	SE ; 6-0	5·8 ; 1716 ; 273 ; 1011	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; Sat. 6-0	.. 2-0	W.	3Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp) ; Hindala Devi Fr. Mg. Sud. 15 ; tl ; dh.
Ḍhaṇḍāṇe NDR (ढंडाणे) ..	SE ; 13-0	3·7 ; 773 ; 132 ; 434	Ranale ; 3-0	Ranale ; 8-0	Ranale ; Sun. 3-0	Ranale; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2tl ; ch.
Dhandaraṇe SDK (धांदरणे) ..	S ; 6-0	4·1 ; 427 ; 78 ; 181	Hol. P. B. ; 1-0	Hol P. B. ; 1-0	Nardane ; Sat. 2-0	Stage; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Ḍhaṇḍhāṇe DHL (ढंढाणे) ..	N ; ..	3·5 ; 472 ; 79 ; 214	....	.....	....	....	W.	....
Dhāndre Bk. SHD (धांद्रे बु.) ..	SE ; 9-0	1·8 ; 334 ; 61 ; 165	Vadali ; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Shahada ; Tue. 9-0	Kuka-val ; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 2tl.
Dhaner SKI (धनेर) ..	NW ; 22-0	8·3 ; 1682 ; 284 ; 818	Local; ..	Chinchpada; 18-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 10-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; dh.
Dhānorā NDR (धानोरा) ..	NW ; 12-0	14·2 ; 4605 ; 808 ; 2592	Local; ..	Nandurbar ; 12-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Local; ..	W ; rv.	4Sl (2pr, m, h) ; pyt ; Cs ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Ct. Vad. 10 ;2 tl ; dg ; dh; lib ; dp ; Cch.
Dhānore TLD (धानोरे) ..	E ; 6-0	1·2 ; 392 ; 83 ; 201	Taloda ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 6-0	.. 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Dhanūr DHL (धनूर) ..	N ; 12-0	3·4 ; 1499 ; 254 ; 630	Kapa-dane ; 0-4	Nardane ; 12-0	Songir ; Thu. 4-0	Local; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; 4 tl ; lib..
Dhāvaḍe SDK (धावडे) ..	W ; 19-0	4·2 ; 745 ; 137 ; 331	Dondai-cha ; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 4-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 4-0	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Dhāyaṭe NVP (धायटे) ..	NE ; 8-0	31·1 ; 12120 ; 2077 ; 7004	Local; ..	Chinchpada ; 4-0	Chinch-pada ; Fri. 4-0	Sava-rat ; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 6Cs (mp) ; lib.

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Ḍhekāṭī TLD (ढेकाटी) ..	NW ; 6-4	1·4 ; 127 ; 26 ; 89	Taloda ; 6-4	Nandurbar ; 20-4	Taloda ; Fri. 6-4	Budhavali ; 3-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Ḍhekavad NDR (ढेकवद) ..	W ; 8-0	8·2 ; 2006 ; 387 ; 846	Local ; ..	Local; ..	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	Local; ..	W; w.	4 Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs; 5 tl ; lib.
Ḍhoṅg NVP (ढोंग) ..	NE ; 27-0	4·5 ; 1846 ; 316 ; 978	Khandbara ; 4-0	Khandbara ; 4-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 4-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	W; rv.	3Sl (pr) ; Cs(c) ; tl.
Dhoṅgaḍe Digar SKI (धोंगडे दिगर) ..	SW ; 17-0	1·2 ; 449 ; 63 ; 255	Balhane ; 2-0	Dhulia; 50-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 3-0	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Dhuḷavad NDR (धुळवद) ..	N ; 9-0	2.6 ; 881 ; 152 ; 553	....	Nandurbar ; 9-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 9-0	.. 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl.
Dhuḷe (Rural Area) DHL (धुळे—ग्रामीण विभाग) ..	....	10·3 ; 1082 ; 238 ; 267	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Dhuḷe (Urban Area-1) DHL (धुळे—नागरी विभाग-१) ..	HQ; ..	10.3 ; 98893; 17827; 1808	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Dhurakheḍe SHD (धुरखेडे) ..	W ; 5-0	3·3 ; 1401 ; 245 ; 747	Shahada ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 23-0	Shahada ; Tue. 5-0	Shahada ; 5-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 2tl ; lib.
Dighāve SKI (दिघावे) ..	SW ; 11-0	15·7 ; 2322 ; 435 ; 1049	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 40-0	Kasare ; Fri. 6-0	Local; ..	pl.	2Sl (pr, h) ; pyt ; 2Cs (c, fmg) ; 7 tl; mq ; ch ; lib.
Ḍigiāmbā AKA (डिगिआंबा) ..	W ; 5-0	0·7 ; 278 ; 53 ; 170	Raisingpur ; 2-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Khapar ; Tue. 4-0	Khapar ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Divī SDK (दिवी) ..	SW ; 20-0	1·8 ; 1051 ; 188 ; 429	Shevade ; 4-0	Sindkhed; 16-0	Lamkani; Sat. 4-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Ḍoṅgripāḍā AKA (डोंग्रीपाडा) ..	W ; 9-0	1·4 ; 98 ; 21 ; 58	Kukurmunde ; 14-0	Nandurbar; 31-0	Khapar; Tue. 3-0	Khapar; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp).
Ḍomakānī SKI (डोमकानी) ..	N ; 9-0	13·5 ; 612 ; 103 ; 336	Vaskhedi ; 1-0	Nandurbar; 30-0	Nijampur; Mon. 5-0	Nijampur; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl; dg; ch.
Doṇḍāīchā SDK (दोंडाईचा) ..	W; ..	10·5 ; 18 ; 4 ; 11	....	....	....	....	W; rv.	....
Doṇḍāīcā (Urban Area-1) SDK (दोंडाईचा—नागरी विभाग-१)	W ; 14-0	9·3 ; 15578; 2960 ; 2394	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local, Thu. ..	Local; ..	W; rv.	12Sl (4 pr, 4m, 4h) Satimai Fr. Phg. Vad. 7; 10tl; mq; dh; 2lib; 5dp.

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Dòṇḍavaḍ DHL (दोंडवड) ..	S;	1·5; 498; 88; 263	....	....	....	....	W; rv	Sl (pr).
Dondavāḍe SHD (दोंदवाडे) ..	SE; 21-0	1·3; 439; 80; 241	Torkhede; 1-0	Dondaicha; 20-0	Torkhede; Mon. 1-0	Local; ..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv SDK (डोंगरगांव) ..	SE; 20-0	1·8; 561; 107; 280	Vaghadi Bk.; 2-0	Nardane; 8-0	Songir; Thu. 3-0	Songir; 3-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; ch.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv SHD (डोंगरगांव) ..	E; 3-6	4·3; 1298; 228; 582	.. 2-0	Dondaicha; 21-0	Shahada; Tue. 3-6	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c, fmg); 4tl; 2dg; lib.
Dudhāḷe NDR (दुधाळे) ..	S; 2-0	5·0; 640; 109; 341	Nandurbar; 2-0	Nandurbar; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-0	Nandurbar; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt (gr); tl.
Dusāṇe SKI (दुसाणे) ..	NE; 17-0	14·9; 3403; 620; 1406	Local; ..	Dondaicha; 17-0	Local; Sat. ..	Local; ..	W; w; rv.	2Sl (pr, h); 2Cs; 3tl; 3dg; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Eḳadhaḍ TLD (एकधड) ..	NW; 8-0	0·5; 119; 23; 80	Taloda; 8-0	Nandurbar; 23-0	Taloda; Fri. 8-0	Somaval Bk.; 5-0	rv.	....
Gaḍat NVP (गडत) ..	W; 4-0	5·7; 1726; 297; 922	Navapur; 4-0	Navapur; 3-0	Navapur; Sat. 4-0	Navapur; 4-0	W; str.	3Sl (pr); Cs.
Gāḍautār DHL (गाडउतार) ..	S; 5-0	1·9; 795; 141; 322	Laling; 6-0	Borvihir; 3-0	Dhulia; Tue. 5-0	....	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Gadavāṇī AKA (गदवाणी) ..	NE; 22-0	0·2; 164; 27; 92	Jamana; 1-0	Nandurbar; 38-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 22-0	Akkalkuva; 22-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Gāḍhavalī TLD (गाढवली) ..	N; 8-0	0·5; 69; 10; 38	Pratapapur; 4-0	Nandurbar; 42-0	Taloda; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	rv.	....
Galoṭhe Bk. AKA (गलोठे बु.) ..	W; 1-4	0·5; 101; 19; 55	Akkalkuva; 1-4	Nandurbar; 27-4	Akkalkuva; Wed. 1-4	Akkalkuva; 1-4	w.	....
Galoṭhe Kh. AKA (गलोठे खु.) ..	N; 0-4	0·9; 195; 40; 104	Akkalkuva; 0-4	Nandurabar; 26-4	Akkalkuva; Wed. 0-4	Akkalkuva; 0-4	W.	Sl (pr).
Gamoṇ AKA (गमोण) ..	N; 34-0	0·3; 424; 63; 213	Mulgi; 12-0	Nandurbar; 60-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 34-0	....	n.	....
Gaṇeśapūr SKI (गणेशपूर) ..	SW; 9-0	2·8; 659; 112; 275	Kasare; 4-0	Dhulia; 38-0	Kasare; Fri. 4-0	Kasare; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Gaṅgāpūr AKA (गंगापूर) ..	N; 5-0	0·9; 439; 72; 246	Akkalkuva; 3-0	Nandurabar; 26-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 2-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).

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Gaṅgāpūr NVP (गंगापूर) ..	E; 10-0	5·0; 1584; 266; 936	Chinchpada; 1-4	Chinchpada; 1-0	Chinchpada; Fri. 1-4	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; lib.
Gaṇor SHD (गणोर) ..	N; 12-0	2·5; 1246; 201; 604	Ambapur; 1-0	Dondaicha; 30-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 4-0	Ambapur; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2Cs(c, mp); tl; gym; lib; dp.
Garatāḍā SPR (गरताडा) ..	SE; 3-0	0·8; 1157; 225; 535	Local; ..	Nardane; 16-0	Shirpur; Mon. 3-0	Shirpur; 3-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 3tl.
Gavhāḷī AKA (गव्हाळी) ..	W; 14-0	2·3; 1344; 236; 836	Kukurmunde; 21-0	Nandurbar; ..	Khapar; Tue. 7-0	.. 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 4tl; lib; dp.
Gavhāṇe SDK (गव्हाणे) ..	SE; 6-0	1·7; 928; 165; 266	Ajande Kh.; 0-4	Nardane; 3-0	Nardane; Sat. 3-0	Agra Road; 0-2	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 2tl; ch; lib.
Ghaṇṭāṇī AKA (घंटाणी) ..	N; 3-0	0·7; 337; 62; 177	Akkalkuva; 3-0	Nandurabar; 29-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 3-0	Akkalkuva; 3-0	W; w.	Sl (pr).
Ghīrasagāṅv NDR (घीरसगांव) ..	W; 7-0	1·6; 310; 55; 163	Sundarde; 4-0	Dhekvad; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 7-0	Umarde Phata; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Ghoḍade SKI (घोडदे) ..	W; 8-0	9·4; 2402; 431; 1205	Local; ..	Chinchpada; 24-0	Dahivel; Thu. 4-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	2Sl (pr); 2Cs; 5tl; dh.
Ghoḍajāmaṇe NVP (घोडजामणे) ..	S; 3-0	2·4; 911; 139; 555	Navapur; 3-0	Navapur; 3-0	Navapur; Sat. 3-0	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ghoḍasagāṅv SPR (घोडसगांव) ..	SE; 17-0	2·9; 682; 121; 351	Hol; 0-6	Amaler; 9-0	Hol; Sat. 0-6	.. 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Ghoṭaṇe NDR (घोटाणे) ..	E; 13-0	3·0; 717; 122; 448	Nihali; 2-0	Ranale; 4-0	Ranale; Sun. 2-0	Stage; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 3tl; ch.
Ghulī NDR (घुली) ..	N; 6-0	2·4; 153; 32; 84	Kolade; 4-0	Nandurbar; 6-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	tl.
Ghunśī AKA (घुंशी) ..	W; 7-0	0·5; 154; 27; 93	Raisingpur; 1.0	Nandurbar; 34-0	Khapar; Tue. 3-0	Khapar; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Ghusare SDK (घुसरे) ..	W; 4-0	2·0; 93; 20; 50	Varul; 0-6	Sindkhed; 3-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 4-0	Sindkhed; 4-0	W.	tl.; ch.
Gidhāḍe SPR (गिधाडे) ..	SW; 8-0	1·4; 608; 115; 188	Local; ..	Nardane; 8-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 3-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs; 5tl; m; dg; dh; ch; lib.
Godī SPR (गोदी) ..	SE; 9-0	2·0; 85; 21; 55	Thalner; 5-0	Nardane; 28-0	Shirpur; Mon. 9-5	....	n.	Sl (pr).

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Godipūr SHD (गोदिपूर) ..	N; 6-0	1·5; 284; 53; 157	Bramhanpuri; 1-0	Dondaicha; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Bramhanpuri; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2tl.
Gogāpūr SHD (गोगापूर) ..	NE; 10-0	3·5; 841; 140; 361	Mandane; 4-0	Dondaicha; 28-0	Mandane; Thu. 4-0	....	W; rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs(c, fmg); 2tl.
Goṇḍāle TLD (गोंडाळे) ..	NE; 12-0	0·7; 463; 90; 263	Borad; 2-0	Nandurbar; 28-0	Borad; Thu. 2-0	Borad; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Gondās SKI (गोंदास) ..	S; 1-4	1·4; 125; 26; 67	Sakri; 1-4	Dhulia; 34-0	Sakri; Sun. 1-4	Sakri; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr); ch.
Gondūr DHL (गोंदूर) ..	NW; 5-0	4·2; 1790; 317; 691	Nimdale; 2-0	Dhulia; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 6-0	Stage; 0-1	W; w.	Sl (pr); 2Cs; Maria Fr. Srn.; 3tl; ch.
Gopāḷapūr TLD (गोपाळपूर) ..	N; 6-0	1·5; 165; 42; 93	Pratapapur; 2-0	Nandurbar; 20-0	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	.. 2-0	W.	Cs(mp); dg.
Gorāṇe SDK (गोराणे) ..	SE; 9-0	3·1; 1113; 225; 411	Local; ..	Nardane; 3-0	Nardane; Sat. 4-0	Nardane; 3-0	W.	2Sl (pr, m); 2Cs (mp, fmg); Mariai Fr. Vsk. Sud. 9; 3tl; dg; 2lib.
Gotāṇe DHL (गोताणे) ..	W; 12-0	3·7; 1386; 199; 482	Chaugaon; 2-0	Dhulia; 12-0	Kusumbe; Wed; 2-0	Kusumbe; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2Cs (mp, mis); Pimpala Devi Fr. Ct. Vad. 12; 4tl; m; lib; dp.
Goṭapāḍā AKA (गोटपाडा) ..	W; 12-0	0·6; 391; 63; 215	Khapar; 1-0	Nandurbar; 25-0	Khapar; Tue. 1-0	Khapar; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp).
Gujarabhavālī NDR (गुजरभवाली) ..	NW; 7-0	3·9; 1618; 265; 934	Sundarde; 4-0	Nandurbar; 7-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 7-0	Sundarde; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (mp); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3tl.
Gujarajāmbolī NDR (गुजरजांबोली) ..	NW; 6-0	3·0; 836; 147; 469	Sundarde; 2-0	Nandurbar; 6-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 6-0	Sundarde; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl.
Guleumbar AKA (गुलेउंबर) ..	W; 8-0	0·5; 356; 70; 229	Kukurmunde; 14-0	Nandurbar; 30-0	Khapar; Tue. 2-0	Khapar; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Gulīambā AKA (गुलीअंबा) ..	N; 9-0	0·2; 58; 12; 36	....	Nandurbar; 30-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 9-0	Akkalkuva; 9-0	W; rv.	....
Guñjāḷī TLD (गुंजाळी) ..	NE; 6-0	0·4; 195; 30; 103	Taloda; 6-0	Nandurbar; 22-0	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	Taloda; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

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Haḍasunī DHL (हडसुनी) ..	SE ; 12-0	5·0 ; 602 ; 98 ; 298	Borvihir ; 2-0	Borvihir ; 2-0	Shirud ; Fri. 2-0	Local ; ..	w.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; 2tl.
Haḷadāṇī NVP (हळदाणी) ..	E ; 14-0	18·1 ; 2916 ; 486 ; 1818	Local ; ..	Chinchpada ; 6-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 2-0	Visar- wadi ; 4-0	W ; rv ; n.	6Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; m ; dg.
Halālapūr TLD (हलालपूर) ..	NW ; 2-0	0·5 ; 85 ; 15 ; 31	Taloda ; 2-0	Nandurbar; 14-0	Taloda ; Fri. 2-0	Taloda; 2-0	W.	tl.
Haraṇakhurī AKR (हरणखुरी) ..	W ; 1-0	1·4 ; 197 ; 30 ; 104	Dhad- gaon ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 43-0	Taloda ; Fri. 28-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr).
Hātaghuī AKR (हातघुई) ..	W ; 8-0	0·7 ; 119 ; 21 ; 74	Dhad- gaon ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Taloda ; Fri. 20-0	Dhad- gaon ; 8-0	W.	....
Haṭamohide NDR (हाटमोहिदे) ..	NE ; 13-0	4·2 ; 1107 ; 187 ; 544	Koparli ; 2-0	Ranale ; 6-0	Koparli ; Sat. 2-0	.. 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Hātanūr SDK (हातनूर) ..	SW ; 6-4	3·4 ; 1613 ; 278 ; 534	Bhadane ; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 3-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 3-0	Chim- thane ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mariai Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4; 3tl; ch.
Haṭṭī Urph Indī NDR (हट्टी उर्फ इंदी) ..	SE ; 18-0	3·5 ; 228 ; 33 ; 98	Mandal ; 2-0	Ranale ; 10-0	Ranale ; Sun. 4-0	Mandal; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Haṭṭī Bk. SKI (हट्टी बु.) ..	E; 25-0	12·7 ; 1099; 196 ; 602	Phopha- re ; 1-0	Dhulia; 24-0	Lamkani; Sat. 5-0	.. 1-0	rv.	2Sl(pr, m); 2Cs; 6tl ; ch.
Haṭṭī Kh. SKI (हट्टी खु.) ..	NE ; 23-0	4·1 ; 1406; 249 ; 827	Indave ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 11-0	Dusane ; Sat. 6-0	Indave; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); 7tl ; ch.
Heḍākheḍ SPR (हेडाखेड) ..	NE ; 15-0	1·7 ; 720 ; 142 ; 213	Shirpur ; 15-0	Nardane ; 30-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 15-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Heṇdrūṇ DHL (हेंद्रूण) ..	S ; 16-0	5·5 ; 2500; 406 ; 1150	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 16-0	Arvi ; Mon. 4-0	Local; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m); pyt; 2Cs (c, mis) ; 3tl ; lib.
Heṅkaḷavāḍī DHL (हेंकळवाडी) ..	NE ; 18-0	2·0 ; 300 ; 63 ; 121	Kapa- dane ; 5-0	Betavad ; 10-0	Songir ; Thu. 2-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Nandra Dev Fr. Vsk. Vad. 14 ; 3tl ; ch.
Higāṅv SPR (हिगांव) ..	E ; 23-0	0·9 ; 218 ; 40 ; 109	Shirpur ; 23-0	Nardane ; 38-0	....	.. 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Hiṅgaṇe DHL (हिंगणे) ..	....	6·4 ; 73 ; 14 ; 30	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Hiṅgaṇī SHD (हिंगणी) ..	SE ; 20-0	2·4 ; 513 ; 83 ; 255	Torkhe- de ; 0-4	Dondaicha ; 14-0	Torkhede; Mon. 0-4	Torkhe- de ; 0-1	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; tl.

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Hiṅgoṇī Bk. SPR (हिंगोणी बु.) ..	W ; 3-0	3·2 ; 647 ; 114 ; 353	Shirpur ; 3-0	Nardane ; 14-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 3-0	Shirpur; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 2tl. ch.
Hisāḷe SPR (हिसाळे) ..	SE ; 16-0	1·3 ; 1075 ; 196 ; 360	Local ; ..	Amalner ; 14-0	Velde ; Fri. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; 4tl ; dh ; dp.
Hisapūr SDK (हिसपूर) ..	N ; 8-4	1·7 ; 574 ; 91 ; 215	Varpade ; 3-4	Sindkhed ; 11-0	Virdel ; Fri. 3-0	.. 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 4tl.
Hoḍadāṇe SKI (होडदाणे) ..	NE ; 10-0	2·7 ; 72 ; 14 ; 35	Dusane ; 3.0	Nandurbār ; 26-0	Dusane ; Sat. 3-0	.. 1-2	n.	....
Hoḷ SHD (होळ) ..	N ; 3-0	0·8 ; 263 ; 47 ; 143	Shahada ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 21-0	Shahada ; Tue. 3-0	.. 1-0	W.	tl.
Hoḷ SPR (होळ) ..	SE ; 16-0	2·0 ; 2048 ; 392 ; 814	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 38-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt ; Cs ; 4tl ; dh ; lib ; dp.
Hoḷ Gujarī SHD (होळगुजरी) ..	NE ; 3-0	0·7 ; 181 ; 28 ; 92	Lon-khede; 1-0	Dondiacha ; 20-0	Shahada ; Tue. 3-0	Lon-khede ; 1-0	w ; str.	tl ; ch.
Hoḷ Pr. B. SDK (होळ प्र. बे.) ..	SE ; 6-0	5·0 ; 1883 ; 332 ; 764	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs (mp); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; tl ; dh ; ch.
Hoḷ Tarf Havelī NDR (होळ तर्फ हवेली) ..	N ; 1-4	2·6 ; 318 ; 55 ; 157	Nandur-bar ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; Tue. 1-4	Nan-durbar ; 1-4	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Hoḷ Tarf Ranāḷe NDR (होळ तर्फ रनाळे) ..	E ; 12-0	1·4 ; 695 ; 124 ; 281	Koparli ; 3-0	Tishi ; 2-0	Koparli ; Sat. 3-0	Kopar-li ; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; dh ; ch.
Horāphaḷī AKA (होराफळी) ..	NW ; 18-0	0·2 ; 359 ; 65 ; 217	Akkal-kuva; 18-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 18-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Humbarḍe SDK (हुंबर्डे) ..	E ; 11-0	1·6 ; 763 ; 137 ; 243	Kam-khede; 1-0	Nardane ; 10-0	Nardane ; Sat. 10-0	Kam-khede; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dh.
Huṇakhāmb AKA (हुणाखांब) ..	NW ; 20-0	0·2 ; 180 ; 33 ; 87	Mulgi ; 10-0	Nandurbar; 60-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 20-0	....	W ; str.	....
Icchāgavhāṇ TLD (इच्छागव्हाण).	NW ; 15-0	1·3 ; 378 ; 70 ; 138	Taloda ; 15-0	Nandurbar ; 29-0	Taloda ; Fri. 15-0	.. 6-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Indave SKI (इंदवे) ..	NE ; 22-0	5·2 ; 1517 ; 231 ; 791	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 11-0	Dusane ; Sat. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Indai Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Isaraṇe DHL (इसरणे) ..	SE ; 12-0	2·3 ; 735 ; 112 ; 253	Borvihir; 2-0	Borvihir ; 2-0	Shirud ; Fri. 2-0	Had-suni ; 1-0	W. n.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp; mis) ; 3tl.
Isarḍe SKI (इसर्डे) ..	N ; 21-0	3·5 ; 181 ; 30 ; 76	Titane ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Kasbe Chhadvel; Fri. 3-0	Kasbe Chhad-vel ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).

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Jaitapūr SPR (जैतपूर) ..	S ; 6-0	1·5 ; 489 ; 82 ; 168	Savalde ; 2-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 5-0	Shir- pur ; 5-0	rv.	Sl(pr); 2Cs ; tl.
Jakhāṇe SDK (जखाणे) ..	SW ; 15-0	1·5 ; 761 ; 131 ; 290	Shevade ; 4-0	Sindkhed ; 12-0	Chimthane ; Sun. 6-0	Sheva- de ; 2-0	W ; w ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; m ; dg ; ch.
Jaḷakhe NDR (जळखे) ..	W ; 8-0	2·3 ; 581 ; 102 ; 323	Kothali Kh ; 3-0	Dhekvad ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 8-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Jaḷod SPR (जळोद) ..	NW ; 14-0	2·2 ; 134 ; 28 ; 73	Bhamte ; 3-0	Nardane ; 32-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 14-0	Bhamte ; 3-0	n.	Sl(pr).
Jalolā AKR (जलोला) ..	NW ; 8-0	0·5 ; 48 ; 8 ; 25	Dhad- gaon ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Taloda ; Fri. 36-0	Dhad- gaon ; 8-0	W ; n.	....
Jām SHD (जाम) ..	NE ; 17-0	1·2 ; 510 ; 72 ; 261	Man- dane ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 36-0	Mandane ; Thu. 5-0	Javade Tarf Haveli ; 1-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Jāmakhel SKI (जामखेल) ..	W ; 22-0	2·1 ; 433 ; 70 ; 250	Chau- pale ; 3-0	Chinchpada ; 14-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 10-0	Dahi- vel ; 10-0	w.	Sl (pr).
Jāmakī SKI (जामकी) ..	NW ; 20-0	3·7 ; 104 ; 17 ; 47	Vaskhedi ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Bramhan- vel ; Wed. 2-0	Vaskhe- di ; 2-0	w ; n.	....
Jāmalī AKA (जामली) ..	NE ;	0·7 ; 548 ; 105 ; 284	....	....	....	....	w; rv.	Sl (pr).
Jāmalī-Umarakuvā TLD (जामली उमरकुवा) ..	W ; 15-0	1·2 ; 195 ; 37 ; 95	Akkal- kuva ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 29-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 1-0	Akkal- kuva ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Jamānā AKA (जमाना) ..	NE ; 22-0	0·6 ; 457 ; 80 ; 211	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 37-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 22-0	Akkal- kuva ; 22-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; lib.
Jāmaṇavahī AKI (जामणवही) ..	NW ; 5-0	1·0 ; 160 ; 29 ; 84	Dhad- gaon ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 47-0	Taloda ; Fri. 33-0	Dhand- gaon; 5-0	w ; n.	....
Jāmatalāv NVP (जामतलाव) ..	S ; 4-0	2·9 ; 429 ; 65 ; 260	Navapur ; 4-0	Navapur ; 4-0	Navapur; Sat. 4-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(c).
Jāmbhore SKI (जांभोरे) ..	NW ; 22-0	4·6 ; 787 ; 123 437	Bramhan- vel; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Bramhan- vel ; Wed. 1-0	Bram- hanvel ; 1-0	n.	2Sl (pr) ; tl.
Jāngaṭhī AKA (जांगठी) ..	NW ; 65-0	0·2 ; 243 ; 37 ; 119	Mulgi ; 36-0	Nandurbar ; 95-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 65-0	Mulgi ; 36-0	w.	....
Jāpī DHL (जापी) ..	NE ; 6-0	3·0 ; 1207 ; 229 ; 634	Nyaha- lod ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 6-0	Nyaha- lod ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Mahadev Fr. Vsk. Sud. 11; 4tl; m ; dg ; lib.

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Jāpore SPR (जापोरे) ..	SE ; 18-0	2·4 ; 858 ; 147 ; 423	Manjrod; 2-0	Amalner ; 13-0	Hol ; Sat. 6-0	.. 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp); tl.
Jasāṇe SDK (जसाणे) ..	N ; 10-0	1·0 ; 328 ; 54 ; 119	Ranjane ; 0-2	Sindkhed ; 12-0	Virdel ; Fri. 4-0	Virdel; 4-0	rv.	pyt ; 4tl.
Jātoḍe SDK (जातोडे) ..	SE ; 11-0	2·6 ; 1065 ; 188 ; 419	Varud ; 2-0	Nardane ; 3-0	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	Narda- ne ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl ; mq ; dg ; ch.
Jātoḍe SPR (जातोडे) ..	W ; 4-0	2·9 ; 848 ; 145 ; 420	Local; ..	Nardane ; 11-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 4-0	Shirpur; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs (mp); Bhairoba Dev Fr. Srn. Sud. 4 ; 2tl.
Jāvade Tarf Borad SHD (जावदे तर्फ बोरद) ..	NW ; 10-0	3·3 ; 1209 ; 251 ; 641	Shaha- da ; 10-0	Dondaicha ; 27-0	Shahada ; Tue. 10-0	Sha- hada; 10-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs; Umajai Devi Fr. Kt. Sud. 15 2tl ; ch. lib.
Jāvade Tarf Haveli SHD (जावदे तर्फ हवेली) ..	NE ; 16-0	2·3 ; 996 ; 159 ; 457	Manda- ne ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 38-0	Mandane ; Thu. 5-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp); 2tl ; lib.
Javakheḍe SHD (जवखेडे) ..	NE ; 9-0	2·3 ; 368 ; 82 ; 204	Bram- hanpuri; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Shahada ; Tue. 9-0	Bram- hanpuri; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; tl ; ch.
Javakheḍe SPR (जवखेडे) ..	W ; 12-0	0·8 ; 606 ; 103 ; 253	Tekvade ; 3-0	Sindkhed ; 8-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 12-0	Varul ; ..	w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs(c); tl.
Jayanagar SHD (जयनगर) ..	SE ; 12-0	2·6 ; 1032 ; 185 ; 486	Vadali; ..	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Vadali ; Sat. ..	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; ch; lib.
Jebāpūr SKI (जेबापूर) ..	N ; 14-0	7·1 ; 1116 ; 171 ; 570	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 44-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 3-0	Rohan; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) 2tl ; lib.
Jhāmaṇajhar NVP (झामणझर) ..	W; 10-4	5·2; 1049; 162 ; 595	Nava- pur ; 10-4	....	Navapur; Sat. 10-4	.. 2-0	W ; w.	2Sl(pr); Cs.
Jhirave SDK (झिरवे) ..	NW; 18-0	2·3; 502; 68; 182	Nihali; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 3 tl; ch.
Jhirī TLD (झिरी) ..	W; 8-0	0·5; 130; 23; 74	Nalgav- han ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda; Fri. 8-0	.. 1-0	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp).
Jhoṭavāḍe SDK (झोटवाडे) ..	NW; 16-0	1·0; 742; 121; 235	Daul- gaon ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 3-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 3-0	Don- daicha; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Jirāpūr SKI (जिरापूर) ..	W; 15-0	0·4; 155; 26; 71	Pimpal- ner ; 1-2	Navapur ; 33-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 1-2	Pimpal- ner ; 1-2	w.	Cs(gr); tl.
Jogaśelu SDK (जोगशेलु) ..	W; 9-0	2·1; 647; 105; 301	Varul; 3-0	Virdel Road ; 4-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 10-0	....	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; 3tl; dg; ch; lib.

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Jugaḍakhet AKA (जुगडखेत) ..	NW; 29-0	0·1; 109; 20; 62	Mulgi; 7-0	Dondaicha; 87-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 29-0	....	W ; n.	....
Junamohide NDR (जुनमोहिदे) ..	NE; 12-0	2·9; 885; 163; 357	Vikharan; 3-0	Tishi; 3-0	Koparli; Sat. 2-0	Shind- gavhan; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp); 3tl.
Junānāgaramuṭhā AKA (जुनानागरमुठा) ..	W; 6-0	0·2; 81; 14; 48	Raising- pur ; 1-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 3-0	Kha- par ; 3-0	rv.	Sl(pr).
Junavaṇe DHL (जुनवणे) ..	S; 11-0	4·9; 1205; 222; 602	Borvihir; 2-0	Borvihir; 2-0	Shirud; Fri. 4-0	.. 1-4	W ; rv.	Sl(pr); pyt; 3Cs (2mis, mp); 4tl; dg; gym; ch; 2lib.
Junavāṇe SHD (जुनवाणे) ..	N; 5-4	1·5; 336; 61; 180	....	Dondaicha; 24-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 2-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; tl.
Junavāṇī AKA (जुनवाणी) ..	N; 21-0	0·1; 173; 25; 103	Mulgi; 3-0	Nandurbar; 47-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 21-0	Akkal- kuva; 21-0	w ; rv.	Sl(pr).
Junher DHL (जुन्हेर) ..	SW; 8-0	2·3; 473; 87; 200	Laling; 2-0	Dhulia; 8-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); tl; gym.
Juvānī TLD (जुवानी) ..	NE; 14-0	0·6; 231; 39; 134	Borad; 5-0	Nandurbar; 30-0	Borad; Thu. 5-0	Borad; 5-0	w.	Sl(pr); Cs(fmg); tl.
Kadāṇe SDK (कदाणे) ..	S; 6-0	1·8; 833; 146; 378	Local; ..	3-0	Sindkhed; .. 6-0	.. 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Kaḍavāmahū AKA (कडवामहू) ..	SW; 5-0	0·6; 404; 62 ; 202	Navgaon; 0-5	Nandurbar ; 33-0	Khapar; Tue. 2-0	Kha- par ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp).
Kaḍavāṇ NVP (कडवाण) ..	NE; 18-0	2·0; 910; 154; 545	Khat- gaon ; 1-4	Khatgaon ; 1-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 6-0	Stage;	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c).
Kaḍhel TLD (कढेल) ..	E; 6-0	1·6; 404; 79; 192	Mod ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	....	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 2tl; lib.
Kaḍhre SKI (कढ्रे) ..	NE; ..24-0	5·2; 1,220; 218; 543	....	....	....	Balsane; 2-0	w.	Sl (pr); ch.
Kaḍyāḷe SKI (कडयाळे) ..	SW; 17-0	11·0; 106; 17; 55	Balhane; 2-0	Dhulia; 50-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 3-0	.. 0-2	W.	ch.
Khāī AKA (खाई) ..	N; 15-0	0·2; 325; 57; 182	Akkal- kuva ; 15-0	Nandurbar; 41-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 15-0	....	n.	Sl (pr).
Kahāṭūḷ SHD (कहाटूळ) ..	CE; 10-0	3·8; 2,372; 430; 1,062	Local; ..	 16-0	Shahada; Tue. 10-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 8 tl; ch; 2 dp.

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Kākaḍakhuṭ AKA (काकडखुट) ..	W; 7-0	1·1; 1,061; 204; 619	Raising-pur; 2-0	Nandurbar; 33-0	Khapar; Tue. 2-0	Kha-par; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kākalapūr TLD (काकलपूर) ..	W; 10-4	0·7; 292; 55; 148	Taloda; 10-4	Nandurbar; 24-4	Taloda; Fri. 10-4	.. 2-4	W.	Sl (pr).
Kakāṇī (Mālegāṅv)SKI (ककाणी) (मालेगांव) ..	SE; 23-0	4·1; 828; 144; 271	Mhasadi Pr. Ner; 3-0	Dhulia; 27-0	Mhasadi Pr. Ner.; Mon. 3-0	Mhasa-di Pr. Ner; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Kākarapāḍā AKA (काकरपाडा) ..	N; 1-4	0·5; 389; 78; 237	Akkal-kuva; 1-4	Nandurbar; 27-4	Akkalkuva; Wed. 1-4	Akkal-kuva; 1-4	W;w.	2Sl (pr).
Kākarapāṭī AKR (काकरपाटी)	S; 10-0	1·9; 314; 56; 205	Dhad-gaon; 10-0	Nandurbar; 31-0	Taloda; Fri. 19-0	Dhad-gaon; 10-0	rv.	Cs(mp).
Kakarde NDR (काकर्दे)	NE; 10-4	1·4; 1,415; 256; 658	Bhaler; 1-4	Tishi; 3-0	....	.. 0-4	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; Khanderao Fr. Vsk. Sud. 5; 4tl; dg; lib.
Kākarde Bk. SHD (काकर्दे बु.) ..	SE; 21-0	1·8; 426; 84; 221	Torkhe-de; 3-0	Dondaicha; 13-0	....	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kākarde Kh. SHD (काकर्दे खु.) ..	SE; 5-0	3·0; 273; 57; 128	Shahada; 5-0	Dondaicha; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 5-0	Shaha-da; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Kākasaḍ SKI (काकसड) ..	W; 20-0	1·6; 691; 111; 379	Pankhede; 1-0	Navapur; 39-0	Varse; Mon. 4-0	Stage; ..	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷagāṅv SDK (कळगांव) ..	NW; 12-0	0·9; 505; 81; 147	Ranjane; 2-0	Vikharan; 10-0	Virdel; Fri. 6-0	Virdel; 6-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kaḷagāṅv SKI (कळगांव)	SE; 26-0	6·7; 485; 93; 239	Mhasadi Pr. Ner; 6-0	Dhulia; 30-0	Mhasadi Pr. Ner.; Mon. 6-0	Mhasa-di Pr. Ner; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kāḷakheḍe DHL (काळखेडे) ..	SE;	4·4; 1,155; 201; 472	....	....	....	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Kalamāḍī NDR (कलमाडी) ..	NE; 8-0	0·9; 448; 79; 178	Khonda-mali; 1-4	Tishi; 4-4	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	Khond-mali; 1-4	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; ch.
Kalamāḍī SDK (कलमाडी) ..	SE; 10-0	1·9; 1,166; 205; 407	Pimpar-khede; 1-4	Nardane; 4-0	Nardane; Sat. 4-0	.. 0-6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); 3tl; ch; lib.
Kalamāḍī Tarf Borad SHD (कलमाडी तर्फ बोरद) ..	NW; 10-0	2·1; 1,171; 191; 675	Shaha-da; 10-0	Tishi; 14-0	Shahada; Tue. 10-0	Borad; 1-0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp); 4tl.
Kalamāḍī Tarf Havelī SHD (कलमाडी तर्फ हवेली) ..	NE; 11-0	1·7; 62; 12; 30	Manda-ne; 2-0	Dondaicha; 25-0	Mandane; Thu. 2-0	Asalod; 2-0	W.	tl.

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Kaḷamasare SPR (कळमसरे) ..	E; 1-0	1·2; 531; 106; 244	Shirpur; 1-0	Nardane; 18-0	Shirpur; Mon. 1-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2Cs (c, mis); tl; dh; gym.
Kaḷamasare TLD (कळमसरे) ..	NE; 6-0	1·0; 231; 42; 121	Mod; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda ; Fri. 2-0	....	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Kaḷambe SKI (कळंबे) ..	W; 26-0	2·8; 400; 65; 205	Kudashi ; 6-0	Navapur; 17-0	Varse; Mon. 2-0	.. 3-0	W ; n.	....
Kaḷambhīr SKI (कळंभीर) ..	NE; 6-0	3·9; 827; 141; 432	Vardhane ; 4-0	Nandurbar; 26-0	Sakri; Sun. 6-0	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; lib.
Kaḷambu SHD (कळंबू) ..	SE; 10-0	5·3; 2,105; 341; 811	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Sarangkhede; 2-0	Sarangkhede; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs(mp); Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 4tl; ch; lib.
Kalasāḍī SHD (कलसाडी) ..	NW; 4-0	2·5; 1,044; 141; 562	Shahada; 4-0	Dondaicha; 22-0	Shahada; Tue. 4-0	....	W ; w.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (mis,mp); 2tl; lib.
Kalavāḍe SDK (कलवाडे) ..	W; 24-0	2·2; 123; 20; 70	Malpur; 1-0	Dondaicha; 7-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 7-0	Malpur; 1-0	W.	tl.
Kālībel AKR (कालीबेल) ..	SW; 12-0	1·1; 373; 56; 233	Shisa; 2-0	Nandurbar; 36-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhadgaon ; 12-0	W ; n.	Cs.
Kamakheḍe SDK (कमखेडे) ..	E; 10-0	7·9; 1,488; 275; 574	Local; ..	Nardane; 10-0	Nardane; Sat. 8-0	Stage; ..	rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (mp); tl; lib.
Kamakheḍe SHD (कमखेडे) ..	S; 15-0	0·7; 123; 21; 71	Sarangkhede; 4-0	Dondaicha; 10-0	Sarangkhede; Sun. 4-0	Sarangkhede; 4-0	rv.	tl.
Kāmapūr SDK (कामपूर) ..	W; 14-0	2·1; 556; 91; 210	Methi; 3-0	Virdel Road; 2-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 5-0	Vikharan ; 1-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Kamarāvad SHD (कमरावद) ..	E; 8-0	1·7; 634; 109; 392	Shahada; 8-0	Dondaicha; 26-0	Shahada; Tue. 8-0	Shahada; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kāmod NVP (कामोद) ..	SE; 15-0	9·8; 610; 113; 408	Chinchpada; 9-0	Chinchpada; 9-0	Chinchpada; Fri. 9-0	Chinchpada; 9-0	W.	2Sl (pr); pyt (gr); Cs (mp).
Kānaḍī Kh. SHD (कानडी बु.)	S; 6-0	1·4; 378; 68; 140	Anarad; 1-0	Dondaicha; 14-0	Sarangkhede; Sun. 5-0	Anarad; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl; lib.
Kānaḍī Tarf Haveli SHD (कानडी तर्फ हवेली) ..	N; 7-0	1·8; 704; 139 ; 354	Kudhavad ; 2-0	Dondaicha; 24-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 3-0	Mhasavad; 3-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr); 3Cs (mp, fmg, mis); tl.
Kānaḷade NDR (कानळदे) ..	NE; 10-0	0·6; 305; 53; 147	Khondamali; 2-0	Tishi; 4-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 10-0	Local; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.

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Kañcanapūr SDK (कंचनपूर) ..	SE; 20-0	2·4; 715; 126; 266	.. 1-0	Ajande; 4-0	....	.. 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; ch.
Kaṇḍhare NDR (कंढरे) ..	E; 13-0	2·3; 407; 73; 150	Koparli; 3-0	Ranale; 2-0	Koparli; Sat. 3-0	Kopar-li ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Kañjāḷā AKA (कंजाळा) ..	N; 36-0	0·1; 99; 16; 54	Kathi; 13-0	Nandurbar; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 36-0	Mulgi; 18-0	n.	....
Kañjāṇī AKA (कंजाणी) ..	N; 24-0	0·2; 198; 37; 100	Mulgi; ..	Nandurbar; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 24-0	....	rv.	....
Kaṅkāḷā AKA (कंकाळा) ..	N; 3-0	1·3; 485; 87; 253	Akkal-kuva ; 3-0	Nandurbar; 28-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 3-0	Akkal-kuva; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kaṅkāḷāmāḷ AKA (कंकाळामाळ) ..	NW; 12-0	0·2; 359; 65; 211	Akkal-kuva ; 12-0	Nandurbar; 38-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 12-0	....	n.	Sl (pr).
Kaṅkāḷī AKA (कंकाळी) ..	N; 3-0	0·5; 55; 9; 30	Akkal-kuva ; 3-0	Nandurbar; 29-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 3-0	Akkal-kuva; 3-0	W.	....
Kāpaḍaṇe DHL (कापडणे) ..	NE; 10-0	8·8; 6757; 1268; 2343	Songir; 4-0	Dhulia; 10-0	Songir; Thu. 4-0	Local; ..	W ; rv.	3Sl (pr, m, h); 5Cs (c, 2fmg, mis); 4tl; dh; ch; lib; dp.
Karaḍe TLD (करडे) ..	NE; 13-0	1·3; 943; 180; 511	Borad ; 1-0	Nandurbar; 29-0	Borad; Thu. 1-0	Borad; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Karajaī SHD (करजई) ..	SW; 6-0	1·6; 661; 96; 277	Damar-khede ; 0-4	Dondaicha; 26-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Damar-khede; 0-4	rv.	Sl (pr); tl; dh.
Karajakūpe NDR (करजकूपे) ..	N; 4-0	1·6; 731; 127; 334	Nandur-bar ; 4-0	Nandurbar; 4-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 4-0	....	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs (mp); 2tl.
Karajot SHD (करजोत) ..	NE; 8-0	2·0; 691; 117; 247	....	 18-0	Mandane; Thu. 3-0	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Karanakheḍe NDR (करनखेडे) ..	NW; 3-1	2·3; 645; 119; 320	Sun-darde; 0-1	Dhekvad; 2-4	Nandurbar; Tue. 3-1	Stage; ..	rv.	4tl.
Karaṇakheḍe SHD (करणखेडे) ..	NW; 14-0	1·4; 487; 76; 227	Shaha-da ; 14-0	Nandurbar; 20-0	Prakashe; Tue. 4-0	Vaijali; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 3tl.
Karañjāḷī NVP (करंजाळी) ..	NW; 25-0	6·3; 1817; 966 303	Nizam-pur; 3-0	Khandbara; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khand-bara ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl; dh; ch; lib.
Karañjave NDR (करंजवे) ..	NW; 10-0	1·6; 287; 41; 177	Pimpa-lod; 1-4	Nandurbar; 10-0	Dhanora; Sat. 5-0	Pimpa-lod ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

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Karañjī Bk. NVP (करंजी बु.) ..	SE; 9-0	3·3; 789; 132; 437	Nava-pur ; 14-0	Kolde ; 3-0	Chinchpa-da ; Sat. 7-0	Sava-rat ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp).
Karañjī Kh. NVP (करंजी खु.) ..	W; 1-0	2·3; 1405; 249; 310	Local ; ..	Navapur ; 1-0	Navapur; Sat. 1-0	Nava-pur ; 1-0	rv; n.	Sl (pr); ch.
Karavand SPR (करवंद) ..	N; 3-0	5·2; 1981; 375; 809	Shir-pur ; 4-0	Nardane ; 21-0	Shirpur; Mon. 4-0	Local ; ..	W; w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4tl ; m; mq; dg; dh; lib.
Kāreghāṭ NVP (कारेघाट) ..	W; 13-0	2·2; 235; 47; 156	Nava-pur ; 13-0	Songad ; 2-4	Navapur; Sat. 13-0	Bhada-bhunja ; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr).
Karle SDK (कर्ले) ..	SW; 27-0	4·4; 1420; 229; 569	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 10-0	Mal-pur ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs ; 2tl; lib.
Kārlī NDR (कार्ली) ..	E; 11-0	3·2; 442; 82; 196	Ranale ; 2-0	Ranale ; 2-0	Ranale; Sun. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Kasabechaḍavel SKI (कसबेछडवेल) ..	N; 20-0	12·0; 3042; 506; 1058	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Local; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	pl.	2Sl (pr, h); 2Cs (mp, fmg); Bahirambha Dev Fr. Ct. Vad.1; 4tl; dh; lib; dp.
Kasabejaitane SKI (कसबेजैताणे) ..	N; 12-0	8·6; 4445; 770; 1812	Nizam-pur ; 0-½	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Nizampur; Mon. 0-½	Local ; ..	pl.	2Sl (pr, h); 3Cs(c, mis); Bhavani Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 5tl; mq; 4dg;ch; lib; dp.
Kāsāre NVP (कासारे) ..	NE; 20-0	1·1; 146; 26; 92	Nizam-pur ; 1-0	Khandbara ; 4-0	Khandbara; Sun. 4-0	Khand-bara ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp).
Kāsāre SKI (कासारे) ..	SW; 5-0	4·7; 5355; 891; 1658	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W.	4Sl (2 pr, m, h); pyt; 4Cs (mp); 3tl; mq; gym; ch; lib; 3dp.
Kāsavihīr DHL (कासविहीर) ..	E ; ..	2·2; 176; 34; 115	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Kaṭāsakhāī AKA (कटासखाई) ..	NW; 10-0	0·1; 112; 23; 61	Akkal-kuva ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 10-0	....	Str.	....
Kātharde Bk. SHD (काथर्दे बु.) ..	W; 5-0	1·6; 621; 113; 294	Katharde Digar ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 5-0	Shaha-da ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl.
Kātharde Kh. SHD (काथर्दे खु.) ..	W; 6-0	1·2; 910; 164; 433	Katharde Digar ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Vaijali; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg); 2tl.
Kāṭhī AKA (काठी) ..	NE ; 25-0	1·6; 1648; 311; 777	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 25-0	....	W ; n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; dg; dp.
Kaṭhoredigar NDR (कठोरेदिगर) ..	E; 4-0	1·0; 130; 28; 75	Patonde; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 4-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 4-0	Nan-durbar; 4-0	rv.	Cs (gr); tl.

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Kātrī AKR (कात्री) ..	W; 12-0	5·8; 1460; 260; 801	Dhad-gaon; 12-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhad-gaon; 12-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(c).
Kauṭhaḷ DHL (कौठळ) ..	NE; ..	1·9; 1051; 203; 360	....	..	..	..	W; rv.	Sl(pr).
Kauṭhaḷ Tarf Śahādā SHD (कौठळ तर्फ शहादा)	SE; 6-0	2·6; 715; 119; 359	Shahada; 6-0	Dondaicha; 22-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Kauṭhaḷ Tarf Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (कौठळ तर्फ सारंगखेडे)	S; 9-0	0·7; 405; 74; 188	....	Dondaicha; 12-0	Sarangkhede; Sun. 3-0	.. 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 3tl.
Kavaḷīgavhāṇ AKA (कवळिगव्हाण)	SW; 5-4	0·7; 179; 32; 88	Nava-gaon; 1-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 2-4	Kha-par; 2-4	w.	Sl (pr).
Kavaḷith SHD (कवळिथ) ..	NE; 7-0	1·1; 822; 142; 404	Shahada; 7-0	Dondaicha; 25-0	Shahada; Tue. 7-0	Shaha-da; 7-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); 2tl.
Kāvaṭhe SKI (कावठे) ..	W; 2-5	7·0; 1529; 264; 701	Local; ..	Chinchpada; 30-0	Sakri; Sun. 2-5	Stage; 0-2	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Gupteshvar Fr. Mg. Vad· 14; tl; lib.
Kāvaṭhī DHL (कावठी) ..	W; 15-0	13·1; 1045; 205; 610	Meher-gaon; 2-0	Dhulia; 15-0	Kusumbe; Wed. 3-0	Kusum-be; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (mis) Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 9; 5tl; ch.
Kelā Bk. AKR (केला बु.) ..	SW; 14-0	1·0; 202; 35; 98	Shisa; 3-0	Nandurbar; 36-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhad-gaon; 14-0	W; n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Kelā Kh. AKR (केला खु.) ..	SW; 14-0	1·5; 199; 31; 97	Shisa; 3-0	Nandurbar; 36-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhad-gaon; 14-0	W; n.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Keḷī NVP (केळी) ..	NE; 17-0	2·9; 788; 136; 442	Chitavi; 1-0	Chinchpada; 7-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 4-0	Visar-wadi; 4-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Kevaḍī AKA (केवडी) ..	N; 45-0	0·1; 73; 15; 39	Mulgi; 22-0	Nandurbar; 67-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 45-0	Mulgi; 22-0	W.	..
Khaḍakāpāṇī AKA (खडकापाणी)	W; 18-0	0·2; 158; 26; 96	Khapar; 12-0	Nandurbar; 44-0	Khapar; Tue. 12-0	..	W.	Sl (pr).
Khaḍake TLD (खडके) ..	W; 19-0	1·1; 200; 33; 102	Akkal-kuva; 4-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 4-0	Akkal-kuva; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(c).
Khaḍakī NVP (खडकी) ..	NE; 22-0	3·6; 1007; 189; 548	Local; ..	Khatgaon; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 6-0	Khat-gaon; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); dp.
Khaḍakuṇa AKA (खडकुणा) ..	W; 10-0	0·5; 397; 68; 291	Khapar; 5-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 4-0	Pechari-deo; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khaḍakyā AKR (खडक्या) ..	W; 7-0	1·9; 456; 81; 232	Dhad-gaon; 7-0	Nandurbar; 49-0	Taloda; Fri. 35-0	Dhad-gaon; 7-0	W; n.	Sl (pr).

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Khairave Tarf Bhādavaḍ NVP (खैरवे तर्फ भादवड)	NE; 24-0	2·2; 763; 131; 435	Khandbara; 2-0	Khandbara; 2-0	Khandbara; Sun. 2-0	Khandbara; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2tl.
Khalāṇe SDK (खलाणे) ..	S; 8-0	11·9; 2723; 487; 1217	Local; ..	Hol P. B.; 3-0	Nardane; Sat. 6-0	Chimthane; 4-0	W; w.	Sl (m); Cs(mp); 4tl; ch; lib.
Khāmagāṅv NDR (खामगांव) ..	W; 2-4	2·1; 902; 172; 462	Dhekvad; 2-0	Dhekvad; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-4	.. 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp); Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 5; 3tl; dg; ch.
Khāmakheḍe Pr. Āmbe SPR (खामखेडे प्र. आंबे) ..	E; 22-0	1·3; 608; 114; 249	Shirpur; 22-0	Nardane; 37-0	Varla; .. 4-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khāmakheḍe Pr. Thāḷaner SPR (खामखेडे प्र. थाळनेर)	W; 10-2	2·5; 815; 154; 385	Tekvade; ..	Sindkhed; 7-0	Shirpur; Mon. 10-0	Tekvade; 0-2	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; lib.
Khambāḷe SPR (खंबाळे) ..	NE; 24-0	2·9; 1371; 276; 719	Sangavi; 6-0	Nardane; 40-0	Local; Wed. ..	Local; ..	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Khānabārā AKR (खानबारा) ..	W; 7-0	1·6; 290; 49; 172	Dhadgaon; 7-0	Nandurbar; 49-0	Taloda; Fri. 32-0	Stage; ..	W; n.	Sl (pr).
Khānāpūr NVP (खानापूर) ..	E; 17-0	6·1; 1016; 181; 541	Visarwadi; 4-0	Chinchpada; 8-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 5-0	Stage; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; lib.
Khāṇḍabārā NVP (खांडबारा) ..	NE; 23-0	0·5; 2394; 473; 319	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; Sun. ..	Local; ..	W; pl.	5Sl (pr, m, h, 2tr-clg); 5Cs; 3tl; mq; dh; gym; lib; 2dp.
Khāṇḍabāre SKI (खांडबारे) ..	NW; 18-0	3·6; 646; 92; 307	Dhaner; 4-0	Chinchapada; 20-0	Dahiwel; Thu. 6-0	Stage; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khaṇḍalāy Bk. DHL (खंडलाय बु.) ..	NW; 25-0	3·3; 891; 145; 458	Shiradhane Pr. Ner; 1-0	Dhulia; 25-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); Thu. 5-0	.. 25-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; lib.
Khaṇḍalāy Kh. DHL (खंडलाय खु.) ..	NW; 25-0	1·6; 750; 133; 261	Shiradhane Pr. Ner; 1-0	Dhulia; 25-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); Thu. 5-0	.. 25-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2dg; ch; lib.
Khāpar AKA (खापर) ..	W; 6-4	1·7; 2687; 508; 714	Local; ..	Nandurbar; 32-0	Local; Tue. ..	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Ambika Devi Fr. Phg. Sud. 9; 3tl; mq; dg; 2lib; dp.
Khāparakheḍe NDR (खापरखेडे) ..	NE; 13-0	0·6; 126; 29; 80	Vikharan; 3-0	Tishi; 4-0	Koparli; Sat. ..	....	rv.	..
Khāparān AKA (खापरान) ..	N; 7-0	0·1; 42; 9; 25	Akkalkuva; 7-0	Nandurbar; 36-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 7-0	Akkalkuva; 7-0	n.	..
Kharaḍā AKR (खरडा) ..	SW; 7-4	2·2; 465; 83; 280	..	Nandurbar; 34-4	Taloda; Fri. 20-4	Dhadgaon; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(c).

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Kharagāṅv SKI (खरगांव) ..	W ; 24-0	2·0 ; 507 ; 77 ; 244	Umar-pata ; 6-0	Navapur ; 26-0	Varse ; Mon. 1-0	....	W ; rv; n.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Kharagoṇ SHD (खरगोण) ..	NE ; 15-0	0·9 ; 622 ; 109 ; 325	Raikhed ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 33-0	Shahada ; Tue. 15-0	.. 5-0	rv.	Sl(pr); Cs(c); tl.
Kharavaḍ AKR (खरवड) ..	SE ; 6-0	2·4 ; 287 ; 47 ; 150	Dhad-gaon ; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 51-0	Shahada ; Tue. 34-0	Dhad-gaon ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp-gr).
Kharavaḍ TLD (खरवड)	E ; 7-0	2·1 ; 902 ; 173 ; 521	Mod ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda ; Fri. 7-0	..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp) ; 2tl.
Kharde SDK (खर्दे) ..	W ; 14-0	5·7 ; 1475 ; 238 ; 642	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondai-cha; Thu. 6-0	Dondai-cha ; 6-0	W ; w.	3Sl(pr) ; 2Cs ; 2tl ; dh.
Kharde Bk. SPR (खर्दे बु.) ..	S ; 0-4	1·9 ; 1519 ; 262 ; 412	Shirpur ; 0-4	Nardane ; 18-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 0-4	Shirpur; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); 3Cs(mis); 5tl m ; dg.
Kharde Kh. NDR (खर्दे खु.) ..	SE ; 32-0	1·2 ; 699 ; 110 ; 352	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Ranale ; Sun. 6-0	Stage ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch.
Kharde Kh. SPR (खर्दे खु.) ..	SW ; 7-0	1·0 ; 462 ; 75 ; 167	Gidhade ; 1-0	Nardane ; 9-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 4-0	.. 0-1	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch.
Kharḍi Bk. TLD (खर्डी बु.) ..	N ; 8-0	0·3 ; 94 ; 16 ; 56	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	n.	....
Kharḍi Kh. TLD (खर्डी खु.) ..	NE ; 10-0	1·6 ; 152 ; 29 ; 92	Pratapa-pur ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Taloda ; Fri. 10-0	Taloda; 10-0	rv.	....
Khatagāṅv NVP (खतगाव) ..	NE ; 16-0	6·7 ; 1826 ; 296 ; 1056	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Chinch-pada ; Fri. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; pl.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; tl ; dh ; lib ; dp.
Khaṭakuvā AKA (खटकुवा) ..	NW ; 7-0	0·3 ; 157 ; 30 ; 89	Akkal-kuva ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 37-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 7-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Khaṭavāṇī TLD (खटवाणी) ..	W ; 17-0	1·4 ; 705 ; 120 ; 385	Akkal-kuva ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 31-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 3-0	Akkal-kuva ; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c).
Khaṭyāl SKI (खटयाळ) ..	SW ; 22-0	4·0 ; 480 ; 82 ; 245	Dangshir-vade ; 2-0	.. ..	Warsa; Mon. 4-0	.. 5-0	rv; n.	Sl(pr); pyt; tl.
Kheḍadigar SHD (खेडदिगर) ..	NE ; 12-0	2·1 ; 543 ; 106 ; 288	Raikhed; 12-0	Dondaicha ; 27-0	..	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c) ; 2tl.
Kheḍale TLD (खेडले) ..	E ; 7-0	1·6 ; 280 ; 51 ; 164	Mod ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 19-0	Taloda ; Fri. 7-0	..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.

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Kheḍe DHL (खेडे) ..	W ; 10-0	12·5 ; 2875 ; 526 ; 1241	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 10-0	Kusumbe ; Wed. 3-0	Stage ; 0-3	W ; w.	2Sl(pr) ; pyt ; 3Cs (fmg, 2mis) ; Ananda Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 5; 5tl; dg ; dh ; 2lib ; dp.
Khekaḍe NVP (खेकडे) ..	W ; 12-0	6·5 ; 1346 ; 225 ; 728	Nava-pur ; 12-0	....	Navapur ; Sat. 12-0	....	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Khairāḷe NDR (खैराळे) ..	SW ; 7-0	2·3 ; 738 ; 113 ; 463	Dhekvad; 5-0	Dhekvad ; 5-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 7-0	Nandur-bar ; 7-0	W.	2Sl(pr); Bhavani Devi Fr. ; 3tl.
Khairave SHD (खैरवे) ..	SE : 13-0	1·6 ; 626 ; 88 ; 297	Vadali ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 13-0	Shahada ; Tue. 13-0	Vadali; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Khoḍasabārā AKA (खोडसबारा) ..	N ; 30-0	0·03 ; 38 ; 6 ; 22	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 55-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 38-0	....	W.	....
Khoḍasagāṅv NDR (खोडसगाव) ..	N ; 8-0	1·9 ; 452 ; 79 ; 189	Shinde ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 8-0	Patha-rai ; 1-4	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Khoḍī AKA (खोडी) ..	N ; 15-0	0·1 ; 85 ; 15 ; 42	Mulgi ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 15-0	....	W.	....
Khokarāḷe NDR (खोकराळे) ..	SE ; 14-0	7·1 ; 636 ; 107 ; 329	Nihali ; 1-0	Ranale ; 4-0	Ranale ; Sun. 4-0	Nihali ; 1-0	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch.
Khokaravāḍā NVP (खोकरवाडा) ..	W ; 14-0	0·9 ; 297 ; 56 ; 171	Nava-pur ; 14-0	Songad ; 1-4	Navapur ; Sat. 14-0	Son-gad ; 1-4	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c).
Khokase NVP (खोकसे) ..	SE ; 12-0	5·0 ; 328 ; 60 ; 189	Nava-pur ; 12-0	Navapur ; 12-0	Navapur ; Sat. 12-0	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Kholaghar NVP (खोळघर) ..	E ; 30-0	2·1 ; 460 ; 80 ; 285	Bhadvad; 6-0	Khandbara ; 8-0	Khand-bara ; Sun. 8-0	Khand-bara; 8-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp-gr).
Kholavihīr NVP (खोलविहीर) ..	NE ; 28-0	3·8 ; 436 ; 83 ; 255	Bhadvad; 5-0	Khandbara ; 6-0	Khand-bara ; Sun. 6-0	Khand-bara ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Khoṇḍamaḷī NDR (खोंडामळी)	NE ; 8-0	2·8 ; 2535 ; 430 ; 1028	Local ; ..	Tishi ; 4-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	2Sl(pr, m) ; 2Cs(mp) ; tl ; dp(vet).
Khordaḍ DHL (खोर्दड) ..	SE ; 20-0	4·2 ; 1021 ; 169 ; 466	Talvade ; 5-0	Shirud ; 3-0	Shirud ; Fri. 3-0	Shirud; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Khorī SKI (खोरी) ..	NE ; 22-0	14·9 ; 1573 ; 268 ; 718	Titane ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 6-0	Titane ; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 4tl ; lib.

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Khuḍāṇe SKI (खुडाणे) ..	N ; 15-0	4·8 ; 1561 ; 259 ; 846	Vaskhedi ; ..	Nandurbar ; 28-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr,m); pyt; Cs (mis);2tl; dh;lib;ch.
Khuṇṭāmoḍi AKR (खुटामोडी)	W ; 10-0	3·0 ; 686 ; 130 ; 391	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda; Fri. 28-0	Dhad-gaon ; 10-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Bhongarya Fr. Phg. Sud. 13 ; dp.
Khurcīmāḷ AKA (खुर्चीमाळ)	N ; 13-0	0·1 ; 73 ; 13 ; 38	Mulgi ; 12-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 13-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp-gr).
Khuśagavhāṇ AKR (खुशगव्हाण) ..	SW ; 7-0	0·4 ; 176 ; 26 ; 89	....	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Taloda; Fri. 21-0	Dhad-gaon ; 7-0	W.	....
Khuṣagavhāṇ TLD (खुषगव्हाण) ..	W ; 6-0	2·4 ; 948 ; 172 ; 592	Taloda ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	Lobha-ni ; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Khuṭāgavhāṇ AKA (खुटागव्हाण) ..	N ; 15-0	0·2 ; 134 ; 23 ; 81	Mulgi ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 15-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Kiravāḍe SKI (किरवाडे) ..	NW ; 9-0	2·3 ; 586 ; 112 ; 311	Ghoda-de; 1-0	Chinchpada ; 24-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 4-0	 0-3	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Kocare SHD (कोचरे) ..	NE ; 12-0	1·1 ; 726 ; 146 ; 446	Raikhed ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 21-0	Shahada ; Tue. 12-0	....	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dg.
Koḍade SDK (कोडदे) ..	NW ; 15-0	5·9 ; 942 ; 188 ; 435	.. 5-0	Dondaicha ; 7-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 7-0	 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Shivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13 ; 3tl ; dh ; ch.
Kokale SKI (कोकले) ..	S ; 3-0	1·0 ; 637 ; 110 ; 302	Malpur ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 36-0	Kasare; Fri. 3-0	Sakri ; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Kokaṇagāṅv SKI (कोकणगांव) ..	SW ; 22-0	0·7 ; 312 ; 49 ; 159	Balhane ; 3-0	Chinchpada ; 36-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 6-0	 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(gr).
Koḷade NDR (कोळदे) ..	NE ; 5-0	3·7 ; 2519 ; 488 ; 1242	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 5-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Koḷade NVP (कोळदे) ..	E ; 7-0	3·3 ; 1203 ; 219 ; 650	Chinch-pada ; 2-0	Local ; ..	Chinch-pada ; Fri. 2-0	Sava-rat ; 1-4	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; dp.
Kolavī AKA (कोलवी) ..	N ; 8-0	0·4 ; 152 ; 32 ; 98	Akkal-kuva ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 7-0	Akkal-kuva ; 8-0	W.	....
Kolavīmāḷ AKA (कोलवीमाळ) ..	NW ; 14-0	0·1 ; 89 ; 13 ; 50	Akkal-kuva ; 14-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 14-0	....	n.	....
Koṇḍhāvaḷ SHD (कोंढावळ) ..	SE ; 14-0	8·4 ; 987 ; 184 ; 409	Vadali ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 17-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 4-0	Vadali ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c) ; 2tl ; dg.

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Koparlī NDR (कोपर्ली) ..	NE ; 14-0	3·4 ; 2341 ; 415 ; 932	Local ; ..	Ranale ; 4-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Stage ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); 7tl ; mq ; lib ; 2dp.
Korāī AKA (कोराई) ..	W ; 12-0	2·7 ; 929 ; 167 ; 465	Khapar ; 0-1	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Khapar ; Tue. 0-1	Khapar ; 0-1	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) ; lib.
Korḍe SKI (कोर्डे) ..	N ; 20-0	7·1 ; 1787 ; 290 ; 808	Kasbe Chhadavel ; 0-½	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; Fri. ..	Kasbe .. Chhadavel;	W.	3Sl(pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs ; 3tl.
Korīṭ NDR (कोरीट) ..	NE ; 13-0	5·5 ; 921 ; 184 ; 472	Prakashe ; ..	Nandurbar ; 13-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 13-0	Local ; ..	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl ; dh.
Koṭakhāmb NVP (कोटखांब) ..	SE ; 11-4	1·9 ; 281 ; 46 ; 163	Navapur ; 12-0	Navapur ; 12-0	Navapur ; Sat. 12-0	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Koṭalī AKA (कोटली) ..	NW ; 20-0	0·1 ; 116 ; 21 ; 56	Mulgi ; 15-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 20-0	....	W; str.	....
Koṭhaḍe NDR (कोठडे) ..	W ; 10-0	2·6 ; 554 ; 100 ; 333	Kothali ; 1-4	Dhekvad ; 5-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 4-0	Kothali; 1-4	rv ; str.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Koṭhalī Kh. NDR (कोठली खु.)	W ; 14-0	5·2 ; 2559 ; 472 ; 1357	Local ; ..	Dhekvad ; 4-0	Dhanora ; Sat. ..	Local ; ..	W; rv.	Sl(pr); Cs; 3tl; lib.
Koṭhalī Tarf Havelī SHD (कोठली तर्फ हवेली) ..	NW ; 6-0	1·6 ; 129 ; 25 ; 73	Shahada ; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	Padalde 3-0 Bk;	rv.	tl.
Koṭhalī Tarf Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (कोठली तर्फ सारंगखेडे) ..	SE ; 10-0	3·4 ; 1062 ; 173 ; 362	Vadali ; 1-6	Dondaicha ; 13-0	Sarangkhede ; Sun. 4-0	Local ; ..	W; w.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 2tl; lib.
Koṭhār TLD (कोठार) ..	N ; 9-0	1·3 ; 406 ; 83 ; 234	Taloda ; 9-0	Nandurbar ; 23-0	Taloda ; Fri. 9-0	Taloda; 9-0	W;n.	Sl(pr).
Koyalīvihīr AKA (कोयलीविहीर)	N ; 8-0	0·7 ; 258 ; 49 ; 153	Akkalkuva ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 8-0	Akkalkuva; 8-0	W.	Cs(c).
Kuḍāśī SKI (कुडाशी) ..	W ; 21-0	6·8 ; 1540 ; 236 ; 764	Local ; ..	Navapur ; 38-0	Varse ; Mon. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W.	2Sl(pr); pyt; Cs(mp); 3tl.
Kuḍhāvad SHD (कुढावद) ..	N ; 10-0	5·7 ; 1270 ; 239 ; 607	Local ; ..	 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 11-0	.. 4-0	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs(c, fmg) ; 2tl; lib.
Kukaḍel (Rural Area) SHD (कुकडेल) (ग्रामीण विभाग)	S ;	2·8 ; 306 ; 67 ; 183	Shahada ; ..	Dondaicha ; 17-0	Shahada ; Tue. ..	Local ; ..	W; rv.	2Cs; 7 tl; ch.
Kukaḍel SHD (कुकडेल) ..		*Included In Urban Area I*		....	....	....	..	....
Kukaḍīpādar AKA (कुकडीपादर)	NW ; 44-0	0·2 ; 107 ; 14 ; 59	Mulgi ; 22-0	Nandurbar ; 66-0	Akkal-Kuva ; Wed. 44-0	Mulgi; 22-0	rv.	....
Kukarāṇ NVP (कुकराण) ..	SE ; 8-0	2·7 ; 234 ; 44 ; 159	....	....	....	....	n.	Cs.

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Kukāval SHD (कुकावल) ..	SE ; 10-0	1.9 ; 1150 ; 211 ; 546	Kalambu; 2-0	Dondaicha; 14-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 4-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 3tl.
Kulathe DHL (कुळथे) ..	S ; 17-0	4.3 ; 718 ; 140 ; 342	Purme-pada ; 6-0	Shirud; 10-0	Arvi ; Mon. 6-0	Purme-pada ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 2tl; gym; ch.
Kumarej SDK (कुमरेज) ..	S ; 2-0	1.2 ; 94 ; 13 ; 36	Sind-khed ; 2-0	Sindkhed; 0-6	Sind-khed ; Mon. 2-0	Sind-khed ; 2-0	rv.	Cs(gr); tl.
Kumbhārakhāṇ TLD (कुंभारखाण) ..	W ; 18-0	1.2 ; 58 ; 12 ; 28	Akkal-kuva ; 4-0	Nandurbar; 32-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 4-0	Akkal-kuva; 4-0	n.	Sl(pr); Cs(c).
Kumbhāre Pr. N. SDK (कुंभारे प्र. न.) ..	NW ; 14-0	1.6 ; 461 ; 66 ; 171	Ranjane ; 2-0	Vikharan; 10-0	Virdel ; Fri. 6-0	Virdel; 6-0	rv.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Kuṇḍal AKR (कुंडल) ..	W ; 9-0	2.2 ; 546 ; 96 ; 315	Dhad-gaon ; 9-0	Nandurbar; 33-0	Taloda ; Fri. 19-0	Dhad-gaon ; 9-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Kuṇḍāṇe Pr. Ner DHL (कुंडाणे प्र. नेर) ..	W ; 6-0	3.8 ; 987 ; 164 ; 499	Var ; 0-2	Dhulia; 6-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 6-0	Stage; 0-3	rv.	2Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Kuṇḍāṇe Pr. Varakheḍe DHL. (कुंडाणे प्र. वरखेडे)	NE ; 4-0	2.7 ; 583 ; 108 ; 290	Varkhe-de ; 0-2	Dhulia ; 4-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 4-0	Dhulia; 4-0	W.	pyt; Cs(mp); Bhavaniai Fr. Ct. Sud. 14; 4tl.
Kuṇḍāṇe Velhāṇe DHL (कुंडाणे वेल्हाणे) ..	SE ; 18-0	4.9 ; 761 ; 130 ; 422	Dhaman-gaon ; 2-0	Shirud; 5-0	Shirud ; Fri. 4-0	Local; ..	W; n.	Sl(pr); 2Cs; 3tl; ch.
Kuṇḍave TLD (कुंडवे) ..	NW ; 17-0	1.2 ; 1 ; 1 ; 1	Taloda ; 17-0	Nandurbar; 31-0	Taloda ; Fri. 17-0	.. 9-0	t.	tl.
Kurakhaḷi SPR (कुरखळी) ..	S ; 4-4	2.3 ; 912 ; 146 ; 359	Savalde ; 1-0	Nardane; 14-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 4-4	.. 1-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr); Makar Sankrant Fr. Ps; 2tl; lib.
Kuraṅgī SHD (कुरंगी) ..	NE ; 12-0	1.8 ; 754 ; 115 ; 342	....	Dondaicha; 32-0	.. ..	....	W; rv.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Kurhāvad Tarf Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (कुऱ्हावद तर्फ सारंगखेडे) ..	S ; 9-0	1.2 ; 353 ; 53 ; 161	....	Dondaicha; 12-0	Sarang-khede; Sun. 3-0	.. 3-0	rv.	pyt; Cs(mp).
Kurukavāḍe SDK (कुरुकवाडे) ..	NW ; 10-4	4.7 ; 2002 ; 323 ; 750	.. 1-0	.. 2-0	Dondai-cha; Thu. 6-0	.. 0-4	W.	Sl(m); 3Cs(2mp, fmg); 3tl; m; lib.
Kurusavāḍe SKI (कुरुसवाडे) ..	NW ; 20-0	1.1 ; 224 ; 37 ; 106	Chau-pale ; 2-0	Chinchpada; 23-0	Dahivel; Thu. 10-0	Dhaner; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Kusumavāḍe SHD (कुसुमवाडे) ..	NW ; 10-0	0.9 ; 1033 ; 176 ; 580	Mhasa-vad ; 3-0	Dondaicha; 27-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 3-0	Fatte-pur; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; lib.

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Kusumbe DHL (कुसुंबे) ..	W ; 12-0	6·6 ; 6037 ; 1067 ; 2075	Local; ..	Dhulia; 12-0	Local; Wed. ..	....	W; w; rv.	3Sl(2pr, m); 4Cs(mp, fmg,2mis); Kalambeshvar Fr.Mg.Vad.14, Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 8; 6 tl ; mq ; ch; lib; 2dp.
Kuvā AKA (कुवा) ..	NW ; 10-0	0·2 ; 200 ; 39 ; 111	Akkalkuva ; 10-0	Nandurbar; 35-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 10-0	....	W; br.	....
Kuve SPR (कुवे) ..	NW ; 7-0	1·4 ; 1159 ; 223 ; 539	Balkuve ; 1-0	Nardane; 22-0	Shirpur; Mon. 7-0	Arthe Bk. ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); Mariai Fr.Ct.Sud. 1; 5tl; lib.
Lāchore SHD (लाछोरे) ..	NW ; 8-0	0·9 ; 149 ; 31 ; 88	Padalde ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Shahada; Tue. 8-0	.. 4-0	rv.	....
Lagaḍavāḷ SKI (लगडवाळ) ..	NW ; 20-3	3·6 ; 425 ; 72 ; 240	Pinjar-Zadi ; 0-3	Chinchpada ; 20-0	Bramhanvel; Wed. 4-3	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Lakhāḷe SKI (लखाळे) ..	SW ; 27-0	0·8 ; 216 ; 35 ; 84	.. 6-0	Navapur ; 17-0	Varse; Mon. 2-0	.. 4-0	W ; n	Sl (pr) .
Lākhāpūr TLD (लाखापूर) ..	NE ; 16-0	3·1 ; 1286 ; 230 ; 754	Borad ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Borad; Thu. 2-0	Borad ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp) ; tl.
Lakkaḍakoṭ NVP (लक्कडकोट)	W ; 14-0	2·5 ; 792 ; 139 ; 426	Navapur ; 14-0	Songad ; 3-0	Navapur; Fri. 14-0	Songad ; 1-4	W ; w.	Sl (pr).
Lakkaḍakoṭ TLD (लक्कडकोट)	N ; 8-0	1·7 ; 264 ; 52 ; 148	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	n.	....
Lālapūr AKA (लालपूर) ..	W ; 6-0	0·3 ; 96 ; 17 ; 54	Raisingpur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 2-0	Khapar ; 2-0	W; rv.	....
Laḷiṅg DHL (लळींग) ..	S ; 6-0	9·5 ; 1549 ; 256 ; 484	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 3Cs ; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13 ; 4 tl ; mq ; 3gym ; 2 lib.
Lāmakāṇi DHL (लामकाणी) ..	NW ; 26-0	9·9 ; 4003 ; 706 ; 1634	Local; ..	Sindkhed ; 20-0	Local; Sat. ..	Local; ..	W.	3 Sl (2pr, h) ; pyt ; 2 Cs; Janjani Devi Fr. Phg. Vad.1;8 tl ; 2 m;mq ; 4 dg ; dh ; 2 gym ; ch ; 2 lib ; 4 dp.

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Lāmbole SHD (लांबोळे) ..	SW ; 4-0	2·9 ; 861 ; 148 ; 464	Shahada; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 21-0	Shahada ; Tue. 4-0	Shaha-da ; 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; 2tl ; lib.
Laṅghāṇe SDK (लंघाणे) ..	NW ; 15-0	3·1 ; 727 ; 134 ; 324	.. 5-0	Dondaicha ; 7-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 7-0	.. 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr) ; tl ; ch.
Laukī SPR (लौकी) ..	NE ; 6-0	13·3 ; 877 ; 168 ; 445	Shirpur ; 6-0	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Karva-nd ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; 2tl.
Lobhāṇī TLD (लोभाणी) ..	W ; 5-0	0·7 ; 659 ; 114 ; 336	Nalgav-han ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 19-0	Taloda ; Fri. 5-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Lohagaḍ DHL (लोहगड) ..	W ; 20-0	4·7 ; 613 ; 113 ; 273	Lonkhe-di ; 0-2	Dhulia ; 20-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner) ; Thu. 3-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; 2dg ; ch.
Lohagāṅv SDK (लोहगांव) ..	NW ; 12-0	1·1 ; 651 ; 108 ; 174	Ranjane; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 0-2	Tor-khede ; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (c) ; tl.
Lohāre SHD (लोहारे) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·3 ; 400 ; 76 ; 235	Mandane; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Mandane ; Thu. 3-0	.. 2-0	W; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Lonakheḍe NDR (लोणखेडे) ..	N ; 5-0	1·8 ; 905 ; 144 ; 454	Nandur-bar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 5-0	Nan-durbar; 5-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Loṇakheḍe SHD (लोणखेडे) ..	NE ; 2-0	2·0 ; 1860 ; 345 ; 849	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 19-0	Shahada ; Tue. 2-0	Stage ; 2-5	W ; w ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 4Cs (c, 2mis, fmg) ; Go-kulashtami Fr. Srn. Vad. 8; 5tl ; m; lib.
Loṇakheḍe SKI (लोणखेडे) ..	NE; 18-0	6·4 ; 1129 ; 178 ; 520	Lamkani; 3-0	.. 22-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 3-0	.. 0-3	W ; w.	2 Sl (pr, m) 2Cs (c); 2tl ; m ; ch.
Loṇakheḍī DHL (लोणखेडी) ..	W ; 20-0	5·3 ; 1796 ; 330 ; 772	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 20-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner) ; Thu. 3-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Ram-navami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 5tl ; mq ; dg ; gym ; ch ; lib.
Loṇakuṭe DHL (लोणकुटे) ..	N ; 12-0	1·1 ; 142 ; 27 ; 43	Songir; ..	Nardane ; 12-0	Songir ; Thu. 4-0	.. 0-2	W.	tl.
Loṇḍhare SHD (लोंढरे) ..	E ; 10-0	3·1 ; 779 ; 121 ; 301	Kahatul ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 18-0	Shahada ; Tue. 10-0	Kaha-tul ; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp); Bhavani Devi Fr. Mg. Sud. 14 ; 4 tl ; m.
Loṇḍhare SPR (लोंढरे) ..	W ; 13-0	2·8 ; 1012 ; 159 ; 387	Tekvade ; 2-0	Nardane ; 30-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 13-0	Varul ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; fmg ; 3Cs (mp, mis); tl ; ch.

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Loy NDR (लोय) ..	NW ; 8-4	2·5 ; 578 ; 108 ; 364	Pimplod; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 6-4	Nandurbar; Tue. 6-0	.. 0-4	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Macamāḷ SKI (मचमाळ) ..	NW ; 22-0	1·6 ; 388 ; 62 ; 220	Chaupale; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 19-0	Dahivel; Thu. 10-0	Dha- 1-0 ner ;	W ;	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Mahāḷakaḍū NVP (महाळकडू) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·9 ; 368 ; 65 ; 226	Sonare- 2-0 digar ;	Chinchpada ; 2-0	Chinch- Fri. 2-0 pada;	Chinch- 2-0 pada;	W.	Sl (pr).
Mahālapūr SDK (महाळपूर) ..	S ; 7-0	0·9 ; 580 ; 98 ; 204	Kadane ; 1-4	Shindkhed ; 4-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 7-0	Chim- 3-0 thane ;	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch; lib.
Mahāl-kāḷī DHL (महाल-काळी)	W ; ..	4·7 ; 452 ; 82 ; 100	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Mahāl-Kānaḍāmānā DHL (महाल कानडामाना)	W ; ..	1·3 ; 269 ; 58 ; 141	....	....	....	....	rv.	....
Mahāl-Kasāḍ DHL (महाल-कसाड) ..	W ; ..	0·1 ; 30 ; 8 ; 18	....	....	....	....	; rv.	....
Mahāl-Māḷī DHL (महाल-माळी) ..	W ; ..	0·1 ; 1; 1 ; 1	....	....	....	....	rv.	....
Mahāl-Nūranagar DHL (महाल-नूरनगर) ..	W ; ..	4·4 ; 130 ; 25 ; 72	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Mahāl-Pāṇḍharī (Ner) DHL (महाल-पांढरी) (नेर)	W ; ..	8·3 ; 5782 ; 993 ; 2334	Local ; ..	....	Local ; Thu. ..	....	W; rv	Sl (h) ; dp.
Mahāl-Rāyavaṭ DHL (महाल-रायवट) ..	W ; ..	1·0 ; 261 ; 61 ; 151	....	....	....	....	W; rv; cl.	....
Mahindaḷe DHL (महिंदळे) ..	W ; 2-0	2·7 ; 4900 ; 1003 ; 178	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia; Tue. 2-0	Dhulia 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Mahīr SKI (महीर) ..	E ; 6-0	2·2 ; 760 ; 132 ; 314	Tamas- 2-0 vadi ;	Dhulia ; 26-0	Sakri; Sun. 6-0	.. 0-3	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dh.
Mahūkhāḍī AKA (महूँखाडी) ..	W ; 10-0	1·1 ; 434 ; 81 ; 279	Khapar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Khapar; Tue. 5-0		W.	....
Maidāṇe SKI (मैदाणे) ..	NW ; 17-0	4·1 ; 636 ; 107 ; 335	Ghodade; 5-0	Chinchpada ; 25-0	Dahivel; Thu. 5-0	Dahivel ;..	W.	Sl (pr).
Māḷ AKA (माळ) ..	N ; 40-0	0·1 ; 74 ; 15 ; 50	Kathi ; 18-0	Nandurbar ; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 40-0	Mulgi; 18-0	W.	....
Maḷagāṅv Pr. Vārsa SKI (मळगांव प्र. वार्सा) ..	W ; 24-0	5·8 ; 895 ; 145 ; 467	Umarpata; ..	Navapur ; 26-0	Varse; Mon. 1-4	Local ; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.

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Maḷakheḍe SKI (मळखेडे) ..	E ; 18-0	4·5 ; 283 ; 46 ; 134	.. 2-0	Dhulia ; 22-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); Thu. 4-0	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Maḷāṇe DHL (मळाणे) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·9 ; 204 ; 41 ; 65	Vani Bk. ; 0-1	Dhulia ; 9-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	Vani Bk. ; 0-1	W.	pyt (gr); Cs (fmg) ; tl.
Malāñjan SKI (मलांजन) ..	SW ; 7-0	3·5 ; 519 ; 81 ; 266	Degaon ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 40-0	Kasare; Fri. 3-0	.. 0-6	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; 2 tl; ch.
Mālapūr SDK (मालपूर) ..	W ; 20-0	10-5 ; 4242 ; 766 ; 1819	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr, m) ; Cs ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 4 tl ; m ; mq ; dh ; lib ; dp.
Mālapūr SKI (मालपूर) ..	SW ; 5-0	4·2 ; 2111 ; 345 ; 694	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Kasare; Fri. 0-1	Stage ; ..	W.	3Sl (pr, h) ; 2Cs ; 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Maḷasar SDK (मळसर) ..	E ; 14-0	3·0 ; 1159 ; 206 ; 396	.. 0-6	Betavad ; 8-0	Betavad; Fri. 6-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Maḷavāṇ NVP (मळवाण) ..	NE ; 25-0	6·4 ; 1122 ; 199 ; 578	Shravani; 3-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	W ; n.	2Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl;
Māḷic SDK (माळीच) ..	SE ; 9-6	1·9 ; 1077 ; 192 ; 297	Gorane ; 1-1	Nardane ; 2-2	Nardane; Sat. 3-2	.. 0-6	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 4tl ; ch.
Māḷ Kh. TLD (माळ खु.) ..	NW ; 10-0	0·2 ; 11 ; 2 ; 8	Taloda ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Taloda; Fri. 10-0	Taloda ; 10-0	n.	....
Maloṇī SHD (मलोणी) ..	N ; 1-0	1·0 ; 593 ; 116 ; 239	Shahada ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 19-0	Shahada; Tue. 1-0	Shahada ; 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Mal (Umarāgavhāṇ) AKA (माळ) (उमरागव्हाण) ..	NE ; 14-0	0·2 ; 85 ; 16 ; 46	Mulgi ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 39-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 14-0	....	..	n.
Manakheḍi Bk. AKR (मनखेडी बु.) ..	S ; 3-0	2·1 ; 235 ; 39 ; 130	Dhadgaon; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 41-0	Taloda; Fri. 25-0	Dhadgaon ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(gr).
Manarad SHD (मनरद) ..	W ; 3-0	1·4 ; 966 ; 197 ; 446	Shahada ; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 18-0	Shahada; Tue. 3-0	Shahada ; 4-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs(mp) ; tl ; m.
Manavāṇī Bk. AKR (मनवाणी बु.) ..	SW ; 8-0	1·3 ; 324 ; 56 ; 176	Dhadgaon ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhadgaon ; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Manavāṇī Kh. AKR (मनवाणी खु.) ..	SW ; 8-0	1·0 ; 231 ; 43 ; 135	Dhadgaon ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhadgaon ; 8-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).

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Māṇḍaḷ DHL (मांडळ) ..	S ; 18-0	3·0 ; 688 ; 119 ; 355	Borkund ; 2-0	Shirud ; 4-0	Borkund ; Wed. 2-0	Bor- kund ; 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs(mp,mis); tl ; ch.
Māṇḍaḷ NDR (मांडळ) ..	SE ; 16-0	4·4 ; 2735 ; 463 ; 1156	Local ; ..	Ranale ; 8-0	Ranale ; Sun. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 14 ; tl ; dh ; ch ; dp.
Māṇḍaḷ SDK (मांडळ) ..	W ; 16-0	6·2 ; 1182 ; 199 ; 598	Dondai- cha ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 2-0	Vikha- ran ; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 14; 3tl; ch.
Māṇḍaḷ SPR (मांडळ) ..	E ; 1-0	1·2 ; 287 ; 47 ; 159	Shirpur ; 1-0	Nardane ; 18-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 1-0	Shirpur; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr.) ; 2Cs(mis) ; 3tl ; dh ; lib.
Mandāṇe SDK (मंदाणे) ..	NW ; 15-0	1·9 ; 761 ; 140 ; 275	Daul ; 0-1	Dondaicha ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 2-0	Dondai- cha ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Mandāṇe SHD (मंदाणे) ..	NE ; 12-0	7·0 ; 2337 ; 414 ; 842	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 29-0	Local ; Thu. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr, m) ; 2Cs (c, mis) ; Ashtabhujy Devi. Fr. Ps. Sud. 15 ; 4tl ; lib ; dp.
Mandāṇe SKI (मंदाणे) ..	SW ; 22-0	3·1 ; 367 ; 61 ; 191	Balhane ; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 34-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 6-0	 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(gr).
Maṇḍārā AKA (मंडारा) ..	SW ; 10-0	0·6 ; 418 ; 62 ; 261	Khapar ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar ; Tue. 4-0	Pechari- deo ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Māṇḍavā AKA (मांडवा) ..	N ; 42-0	0·1 ; 100 ; 14 ; 60	Kathi ; 18-0	..	..	Mulgi; 18-0	str.	....
Maṅgalūr NDR (मंगलूर) ..	W ; 15-4	1·8 ; 378 ; 66 ; 181	Dhanora; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 15-4	Dhanora ; Sat. 2-0	Dhano- ra ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Maṇibelī AKA (मणिबेली) ..	NW ; 65-0	0·4 ; 310 ; 53 ; 172	Mulgi ; 36-0	Nandurbar ; 95-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 65-0	Mulgi; 36-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; dh.
Māñjare NDR (मांजरे) ..	E ; 16-0	6·2 ; 1102 ; 215 ; 466	Koparli; 2-0	.. 2-0	Koparli ; Sat. 2-0	Kopar- li ; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp); Kuldevi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 3tl ; ch.
Māñjarī SKI (मांजरी) ..	SW ; 28-0	5·8 ; 1389 ; 208 ; 747	Dung- shiravade ; 3-0	Navapur ; 30-0	Varse ; Mon. 2-0	Varse ; 3-0	W.	4Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Māñjarod SPR (मांजरोद) ..	SE ; 16-0	4·1 ; 2504 ; 436 ; 1148	Local ; ..	Amalner ; 10-0	Hol ; Sat. 4-0	Local ; ..	W ; w ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; 4tl m ; ch ; lib ; dp.

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Māpalagāṇv SKI (मापलगांव) ..	W ; 24-0	2·6 ; 528 ; 100 ; 203	Dangshirawade 4 0	Navapur ; 20-0	Varse ; Mon. 1-0	varse ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; tl.
Maroḍ NVP. (मरोड) ..	NE ; 24-0	1·0 ; 252 ; 43 ; 136	Nizampur ; 3-0	Khandbara ; 7-0	Khandbara Sun. 7-0	Khandbara ; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp).
Mātakūṭ SHD (मातकूट) ..	SE ; 11-0	1·3 ; 176 ; 30 ; 85	Vadali ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 14-0	Sarangkhede ; Sun. 4-0	Vadali; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 3tl.
Mauje Chaḍavel SKI (मौजे छडवेल) ..	W ; 6-0	7·2 ; 1806 ; 331 ; 769	Ghodade ;3-0	....	Sakri ; Sun. 6-0	.. 0-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 3tl ; lib.
Meheragāṇv DHL (मेहेरगांव) ..	NW ; ..	8·0 ; 2185 ; 372 ; 987	Local ; ..	....	....	....	W ; n.	Sl (pr); dp.
Melāṇe SDK (मेलाणे) ..	SE ; 10-0	1·6 ; 452 ; 88 ; 123	Varud ; 0-3	Nardane ; 2-0	Nardane ; Sat. 1-4	Nardane ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Meṇḍhavaḍ TLD (मेंढवड) ..	W ; 1-0	1·0 ; 339 ; 67 ; 181	Nalgavhan ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda ; Fri. 7-0	.. 0-1	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 2tl ; dh ; dp.
Methī SDK (मेथी) ..	W ; 8-0	12·7 ; 2405 ; 417 ; 925	Local ; ..	Vikharan ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 8-0	Stage ; 0-2	W ; w.	2Sl (pr, m) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp) ; Sonamay devi Fr. Ps. Vad. 5 ; 6tl ; 5dg ; lib.
Mhasadī Pr. Ner SKI (म्हसदी प्र. नेर) ..	SE ; 20-0	8·7 ; 3195 ; 517 ; 1279	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 24-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w.	3Sl (Pr h) ; Cs (c) ; Dhandai Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 8 ; 5 tl ; dh ; lib ; 2 dp.
Mhasadī Pr. Pimpaḷaner SKI (म्हसदी प्र. पिंपळनेर) ..	W ; 11-0	3·8 ; 525 ; 109 ; 271	Samode ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 43-0	Pimpalner. ; Fri. 3-0	.. 1-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; tl.
Mhasāḷe SKI (म्हसाळे) ..	NE ; 19-0	66 ; 1070 ; 176 ; 498	.. 5-0	Dondaicha ; ..	Lamkani ; Sat. ..	Stage ; 0-1	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Mhasāvad SHD (म्हसावद) ..	N ; 8-0	10·2 ; 3371 ; 595 ; 1134	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w; n.	2Sl (pr, h) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 5tl ; m ; mq ; dg ; dh ; lib ; dp.
Moḍ TLD (मोड) ..	E ; 8-0	2·1 ; 2025 ; 379 ; 1030	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ;	Sl (pr) ; 4tl ; ch ; 3lib ; dp.
Modalapāḍā TLD (मोदलपाडा) ..	W ; 8-0	0·5 ; 763 ; 164 ; 457	Nalgavhan ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 23-0	Vanyavihir Kh. Mon. 2-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch ; dp (vet).
Mogarā AKA (मोगरा) ..	NW ; 20-0	0·3 ; 315 ; 56 ; 95	Mulgi ; 14-0	Nandurbar ; 52-0	Akkalkuva. ; Wed. 20-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).

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Mogarāṇi NVP (मोगराणी) ..	NE ; 30-0	5·9 ; 1536 ; 246 ; 911	Local ; ..	Khandbara ; 5-0	Khandbara; Sun. 5-0	Bhadvad ; 3-0	W.	S1 (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ;lib.
Moghaṇ DHL (मोघण) ..	S ; 15-3	9·3 ; 2353 ; 416 ; 1110	Hendrun ; 0-6	Shirud ; 6-0	Arvi; Mon. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W ; w.	4S1 (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; 8t1 ; m ; 3dg ; 2lib.
Mohāḍī Pr. Ḍāṅgarī DHL (मोहाडी प्र. डांगरी) ..	NE ; 16-0	6·3 ; 3219 ; 612 ; 1431	Local ; ..	Padse ; 10-0	Nyahalod; Wed. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	3S1 (pr, m, h) ; Cs ; Shrikrishna Fr. Mrg. Sud. 8 ; 5tl ; m ; mq ; dh ; ch ; 41ib ; dp.
Mohāḍi Pr. Laling DHL (मोहाडी प्र. लळींग) ..	S ; 2-0	1·7 ; 2481 ; 461 ; 695	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 1-4	Dhulia; Tue. 2-0	Dhulia ; 2-0	W ; t.	S1 (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 2tl ; gym.
Mohāṇe SKI (मोहाणे) ..	W ; 15-0	7·1 ; 1095 ; 166 ; 472	Chaupale ; 7-0	Chinchpada ; 25-0	Dahivel; Thu. 7-0	Dahivel ; 7-0	W.	2S1 (pr).
Mohide TLD (मोहिदे) ..	NE ; 7-0	1·1 ; 1155 ; 192 ; 560	Pratapapur ; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda; Fri. 7-0	Mod ; 1-4	W.	S1 (pr) ; 2Cs (c, fmg); 2tl.
Mohide Tarf Haveli SHD (मोहिदे तर्फ हवेली) ..	N ; 4-0	2·7 ; 394 ; 72 ; 228	Shahada ; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 22-0	Shahada ; Tue. 4-0	.. 0-2	W.	S1 (pr) ; Cs (fmg) ; t1.
Mohide Tarf Śahādā SHD (मोहिदे तर्फ शहादा) ..	SE ; 2-0	8·4 ; 3182 ; 588 ; 1414	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Shahada; Tue. 2-0	Shahada ; 2-0	W ; w.	S1 (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 3t1 ; dg.
Mojarā AKR (मोजरा) ..	W ; 6-0	0·8 ; 164 ; 32 ; 100	Dhadgaon ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 45-0	Taloda; Fri. 32-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	....
Mokas AKA (मोकस) ..	N ; 27-0	0·2 ; 10 ; 1 ; 7	Mulgi ; 13-0	Nandurbar ; 52-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 27-0	Akkalkuva ; 27-0	rv.	....
Mokh Bk. AKR (मोख बु.) ..	SW ; 14-0	2·3 ; 435 ; 76 ; 217	Mundalvad ; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 58-0	Taloda; Fri. 40-0	Dhadgaon ; 14-0	W ; n.	S1 (pr) ; Cs.
Mokh Kh. AKR (मोख खु.) ..	SW ; 15-0	2·1 ; 444 ; 73 ; 218	Shisa ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 33-0	Taloda; Fri. 18-0	Dhadgaon; 15-0	W.	S1 (pr) ; Cs.
Morahī AKA (मोरही) ..	N ; 26-0	0·4 ; 40 ; 5 ; 18	Mulgi ; 16-0	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	Akkalkuva ; 26-0	rv.	....
Morakarañjave NVP (मोरकरंजवे) ..	E ; 25-0	4·2 ; 312 ; 61 ; 161	Visarwadi ; 8-0	Chinchapada ; 12-0	Visarwadi; Thu. 8-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	S1 (pr) ; tl.
Morakhī AKA (मोरखी) ..	NW ; 22-0	0·2 ; 470 ; 80 ; 277	Akkalkuva ; 22-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 22-0	....	W.	S1 (pr).

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Morāmbā AKA (मोरांबा) ..	W ; 11-0	1·8 ; 944 ; 186 ; 604	Khapar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 37-0	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	....	W	S1 (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Morāṇe Pr. Laling DHL (मोराणे प्र. लळींग) ..	W ; 4-0	3·3 ; 1067 ; 199 ; 513	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 4-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 4-0	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	S1 (pr) ; 5 Cs (mp, fmg, 3 mis) ; 4 t1 ; ch ; Cch.
Morāṇe Pr. Ner DHL (मोराणे प्र. नेर) ..	W ; 14-0	2·9 ; 775 ; 148 ; 315	Kusumbe; 2-0	Dhulia ; 15-0	Kusumbe ; Wed. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	S1 (pr) ; 2 Cs (fmg, mis) ; Bhanaka Devi Fr. Phg. Sud. 14 ; 3 t1 ; ch ;
Moraśevaḍī DHL (मोरशेवडी) ..	SW ; 10-6	5·1 ; 876 ; 165 ; 501	Dahyane; 2-0	Dhulia ; 10-6	Dhulia ; Tue. 10-6	Local ; ..	W.	S1 (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs ; t1 ; dh ; gym ; ch.
Moravaḍ TLD (मोरवड) ..	E ; 4-0	0·8 ; 828 ; 169 ; 390	Pratapa-pur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	Stage ; ..	w.	S1 (pr) ; Cs ; 2 t1.
Mordaḍ DHL (मोर्दड) ..	SE ; 29-0	5·5 ; 1099 ; 201 ; 656	Talvade ; 2-0	Shirud ; 5-0	Shirud ; Fri. 5-0	Talva-de ; 2-0	W.	S1 (pr) ; 2Cs (mp) ; 2 t1.
Mo ṽāṇ AKA (मोवाण) ..	N ; 27-0	0·1 ; 76 ; 12 ; 42	Mulgi ; 20-0	Nandurbar 52-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 27-0	Akkal-kuva ; 27-0	rv.	....
Moyāne NDR (मोयाने) ..	SE ; 30-0	2·3 ; 8 ; 2 ; 2	....	....	....	..	rv.	....
Mubārakapūr SHD (मुबारकपूर) ..	N ; 11-0	0·7 ; 395 ; 62 ; 210	Ambapur; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 31-0	....	Rai-khed ; 2-0	W ; rv.	S1 (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2 t1.
Muḍāvad SDK (मुडावद) ..	E ; 26-0	6·4 ; 2119 ; 394 ; 953	Local ; ..	Betavad ; 7-0	Betavad ; Fri. 5-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	S1 (pr) ; Cs, Maha-shivaratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13 ; 4 t1 ; m ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Mukaṭī DHL (मुकटी) ..	E ; 12-0	8·3 ; 3767 ; 705 ; 1341	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 12-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Local ; ..	W.	S1 (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; Dattatray Fr Sud. 15 ; dh; ch ; dp.
Mukaṭī SDK (मुकटी) ..	S ; 16-0	6·3 ; 1745 ; 313 ; 751	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 14-0	Songir ; Thu. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	S1 (pr) ; 2 Cs ; 2t1; m ; dg ; dh ; 1ib.
Mukhaḍī AKA (मुखडी) ..	N; 42-0	0·1 ; 139 ; 20 ; 76	Mulgi ; 18-0	....	....	Mulgi; 18-0	n ; str.	S1 (pr).
Mukheḍ SPR (मुखेड) ..	NW ; 9-0	4·1 ; 215 ; 45 ; 136	Balkuve ; 2-0	Nardane ; 29-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 9-0	Vikha-ran ; 2-0	rv ; n.	S1 (pr) ; 3t1.

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Mulagī AKA (मुलगी) ..	N ; 22-0	1·0 ; 1339 ; 225 ; 693	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 47-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 22-0	....	W.	S1 (pr) ; Cs ; t1 ; 2dp (Vet).
Mundalavaḍ AKR (मुंदलवड) ..	SW; 6-0	3·5 ; 911 ; 156 ; 520	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda ; Fri. 28-0	Survani; 2-0	W.	S1 (pr) ; Cs (c) ; dp ; Cch.
Nāḍase SKI (नाडसे) ..	S; 10-0	3·6 ; 780 ; 127 ; 244	Local ; ..	Dhulia; 33-00	Kasare; Fri. 6-0	Stage ; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs (mp, mis); 2tl.
Nāgajhirī NVP (नागझिरी) ..	SE ; 10-0	10·0 ; 1491 ; 250 ; 954	Nava-pur ; 10-0	Navapur ; 10-0	Navapur; Sat. 10-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs (mp).
Nagāṅv NDR (नगांव) ..	E ; 10-0	1·1 ; 477 ; 88 ; 201	Bhaler ; 0-1	Tishi ; 1-0	Koparli ; Sat. 6-0	Bhaler; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; tl ; dh ; ch.
Nagāṅv Bk. DHL (नगांव बु.) ..	N ; 6-0	7·5 ; 1681 ; 293 ; 637	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 6-0	Stage ; ..	W ; pl.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; mq ; dh ; lib ; Cch.
Nagāṅv Kh. DHL (नगांव खु.) ..	E; ..	0·6 ; 28 ; 6 ; 16	....	....	....	....	W.	tl.
Nāgapur (Kokale) SKI नागपर (कोकले) ..	S ; 3-0	0·6 ; 51 ; 14 ; 30	Malpur ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 36-0	Kasare; Fri. 3-0	Sakri ; 3-0	t.	Nagai Fr. Mg. Vad. 14 ; tl ; dh.
Nāgapur (Ubhaṇḍ) SKI नागपूर (उभंड) ..	E ; 13-0	4·1 ; 750 ; 132 ; 316	Vardha-ne ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 25-0	Vardhane; Tue. 2-0	Var-dhane ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Nāgasar NDR (नागसर) ..	SW ; 8-0	3·0 ; 1067 ; 179 ; 657	Dhekvad; 2-0	Nandurbar; 8-0	Nandurbar Tue. 8-0	.. 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Nainaśevaḍī AKA (नैनशेवडी) ..	SW ; 3-0	0·2 ; 115 ; 18 ; 60	Akkal-kuva; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 28-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 3-0	....	W.	tl.
Nakāṇe DHL (नकाणे) ..	W ; 2-0	1·9 ; 955 ; 172 ; 338	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 3-0	Dhulia; Tue. 2-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Khandoba Fr. Mrg. Sud. 6 ; 2tl ; 2dg.
Nālā AKA (नाला) ..	WE ; 3-0	1·1 ; 642 ; 92 ; 361	Vanyavi-hir Kh; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Vanyavihir Mon. kh; 1-0	Vanya-vihir phata ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Nalagavhān TLD (नळगव्हाण) ..	W ; 6-0	1·3 ; 424 ; 74 ; 214	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda ; Fri. 6-0	.. 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; tl.
Nalave Bk. NDR (नळवे बु.) ..	N ; 2-0	1·1 ; 258 ; 46 ; 110	Nandur-bar ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-0	Nan-durbar; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(gr) ; tl.
Nalave Kh. NDR (नळवे खु.) ..	N ; 2-0	2·1 ; 925 ; 173 ; 484	Nandur-bar ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-0	Nan-durbar; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp); 2tl ; dh.

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Nandalavad AKR (नंदलवड)	NW ; 3-0	1·2 ; 364 ; 57 ; 186	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 41-0	Taloda ; Fri. 31-0	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Nandāle Bk. DHL (नंदाळे बु.)	S ; 18-0	9·1 ; 883 ; 155 ; 450	Borkund ; 5-0	Shirud ; 8-0	Borkund ; Wed. 5-0	.. 0-2	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl.
Nandale Kh. DHL (नंदाळे खु.)	E ; 11-0	1·0 ; 421 ; 73 ; 249	Mukti ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 11-0	Mukti ; Mon. 1-0	Mukti ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Nandāṇe DHL (नंदाणे)	N ; 14-0	6·7 ; 1710 ; 286 ; 663	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 12-0	Songir ; Thu. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 2tl ; dg ; dh; ch; lib.
Nāndarakhe NDR (नांदरखे)	S ; 5-0	5·7 ; 1952 ; 319 ; 1104	Ashte ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 5-0	.. 1-4	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl.
Nāndarakheḍe SHD (नांदरखेडे)	SW ; 7-0	2·1 ; 935 ; 172 ; 422	Shirud Digar ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 12-0	Prakashe ; Wed. 3-0	Damar-khede; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (mp, fmg); tl ; dh ; lib.
Nāndarḍe SHD (नांदर्डे)	W ; 12-0	2·1 ; 648 ; 99 ; 340	Katharde Digar ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Prakashe ; Wed. 4-0	Vaijali ; 0-2	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Nāndarḍe SPR (नांदर्डे)	N ; 10-0	1·8 ; 322 ; 59 ; 148	Shirpur ; 10-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 10-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr).
Nāndavaṇ NVP (नांदवण)	SE ; 3-4	1·8 ; 366 ; 69 ; 243	Navapur ; 3-4	Navapur ; 4-4	Navapur ; Sat. 4-4	Jamta-lav ; 0-4	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr) ; pyt.
Nāndavaṇ SKI (नांदवण)	S ; 2-0	5·6 ; 353 ; 69 ; 197	Shevali (Datarti); 6-0	Dhulia ; 35-0	Sakri ; Sun. 2-0	Sakri ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Nāndre DHL (नांद्रे)	W ; 25-0	5·3 ; 1605 ; 264 ; 821	Lonkhe-di ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 26-0	Mahal Pandhari (ner) ; Thu. 6-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner); 6-0	W ; w.	2Sl (pr, m) ; 3Cs ; 4tl ; dh.
Nandūrabār (Rural Area) NDR (नंदूरबार) (ग्रामीण विभाग)	....	NA ; 260 ; 58 ; 124	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Tue.	Local ; ..	W.	....
Nandūrabār (Urbān Area I) NDR (नंदूरबार) (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ ; ..	13·7 ; 41055 ; 7497 ; 2450	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Tue. ..	Local ; ..	Pl.	42 / Sl (19 pr ; 11m, 11h ; 1clg); mun; Cs ; Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 27tl; 9mq; 3dg ; 3dh ; 9gym; lib; 18dp ; Cch.
Nāṇe DHL (नाणे)	SE ; 20-0	3·3 ; 1191 ; 218 ; 605	Talvade ; 2-0	Shirud ; 6-0	Borkund ; Wed. 3-0	Talvade; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; ch.

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Nānthe SPR (नांथे)	SE ; 16-0	1·7 ; 336 ; 56 ; 124	Hol ; 0-1	Nardane ; 38-0	Hol ; Sat. 0-1	.. 0-2	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Naraḍāṇe SDK (नरडाणे)	SE ; 13-0	2·2 ; 3522 ; 688 ; 588	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Sat. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w.	5Sl (2pr, ; m,h); 2Cs; Gorakshanatha Fr. Mg. Sud. 2 ; 6tl ; mq ; dh ; ch ; lib ; 4dp (vet).
Naravhāḷ DHL (नरव्हाळ)	SE ; 7-0	8·4 ; 1451 ; 250 ; 586	Laling ; 6-0	Borvihir ; 3-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 7-0	.. 1-0	..	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 3Cs (mp, mis, fmg) ; 2tl ; dp.
Nārāyaṇapūr NDR (नारायणपूर)	W ; 4-0	1·1 ; 563 ; 102 ; 272	Sundar-de ; 2-0	Dhekvad ; 2-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 4-0	Sundar-de ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; dh.
Nāśinde NDR (नाशिंदे)	NE ; 14-0	0·9 ; 366 ; 52 ; 138	Vikha-ran ; 2-0	Tishi ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 14-0	Vikha-ran ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; ch.
Naṭāvad NDR (नटावद)	W ; 11-0	2·4 ; 1883 ; 345 ; 1021	Local ; ..	Dhekvad ; ..	Dhanora ; Sun. 2-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 6tl ; dh.
Navaḍaṇe SKI (नवडणे)	W ; 6-0	2·9 ; 640 ; 115 ; 332	Kasare ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Kasare ; Fri. 1-0	Kasare; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr); pyt ; Cs (mp); 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Navāgāṅv AKA (नवागांव)	SW ; 11-0	0·3 ; 125 ; 25 ; 90	Khapar ; 5-0	....	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	Khapar; 5-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr).
Navalāṇe DHL (नवलाणे)	....	4·1 ; 769 ; 124 ; 430	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Navalapūr SHD (नवलपूर)	N ; 5-0	0·6 ; 149 ; 22 ; 84	Bramhan-puri ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 2-0	Bramh-anpuri 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Nāvali NVP (नावली)	NE ; 30-0	4·2 ; 815 ; 142 ; 464	Mogara-ni ; 1-4	Khandbara ; 5-0	Khand-bara ; Sun. 5-0	Bhad-vad ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp-gr).
Navā Nāgarmuṭhā AKA (नवा नागरमुठा)	W ; 6-0	0·8 ; 543 ; 95 ; 327	Raising-pur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 3-0	Kha-par ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Nāvāpūr (Urban Area I) NVP नवापूर (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ ;	5·8 ; 11505 ; 2065 ; 609	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Sat. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	7 Sl (5pr, 2h) ; 6Cs ; 10tl ; 2mq ; 2dh ; ch ; lib ; 6dp.
Nāvarā DHL (नावरा)	NE ; 11-0	2·7 ; 785 ; 148 ; 248	Local ..	Dhulia ; 12-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 11-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 6tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Nāvari DHL (नावरी)	NE; 11-0	1·7 ; 378 ; 63 ; 180	Navara ; 0-1	Dhulia ; 12-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 12-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 3Cs ; 2tl ; ch.

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Navegāṅv AKR (नवेगांव)	S ; 1-4	0·2 ; 53 ; 9 ; 24	Dhad-gaon ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda ; Fri. 26-4	Dhad-gaon ; 1-4	rv.	Cs (gr).
Nendavān Bk. AKA (नेंदवान बु.)	NE ; 15-0	0·1 ; 82 ; 14 ; 43	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed; 15-0	....	W ; rv.	....
Nendavān Kh. AKA (नेंदवान खु.)	NE ; 16-0	0·1 ; 117 ; 24 ; 61	Mulgi ; 9-0	Nandurbar; 42-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 16-0	....	n.	....
Nevāḍe SDK (नेवाडे)	NE ; 6-0	1·6 ; 713 ; 132 ; 231	Varpade ; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 8-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 6-0	Varpa-de; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); 2tl ; lib.
Nihāli NDR (निहाली)	SE ; 14-0	1·9 ; 504 ; 79 ; 275	Local ; ..	Ranale ; 4-0	Ranale ; Sun. 4-0	Local; ..	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Nijāmapūr SKI (निजामपूर)	N ; 12-0	0·2 ; 3213 ; 535; 262	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Local; Mon. ..	Local; ..	W.	3Sl (pr, m, h) ; 3Cs (c, mis) ; Vitthal Fr. Asd. Sud. 1 to 15 ; 7tl ; m ; mq ; dh; ch ; lib ; 3dp (vet).
				Khandbara ; 4-0	Khand-bara; Sun. 4-0	Khand-bara; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (mp, mis) ; tl.
Nijhāmapūr NVP (निझामपूर)	NE ; 20-0	3·9 ; 1769 ; 324 ; 999	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Boris ; Fri. 1-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch ; lib.
Nikumbhe DHL (निकुंभे)	NW ; 20-0	8·1 ; 1255 ; 247 ; 646	Burzad ; 4-0	Dhulia; 33-0	....	....	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl ; lib.
Nilagavhāṇ SKI (निळगव्हाण)	S ; 13-0	4·0 ; 465 ; 92 ; 227	Nadasc ; 2-4	Dhulia; 9-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 10 tl; dg; ch ; lib.
Nimaḍāḷe DHL (निमडाळे) ..	NW ; 8-0	14·6 ; 2238 ; 375 ; 850	Local ; ..	 11-0	Visar-wadi; Thu. 6-0	....	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Nimadarḍe NVP (निमदर्डे) ..	E ; 20-0	2·0 ; 480 ; 86 ; 271	Chitavi ; 3-0	....	....	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Nimagūḷ DHL (निमगूळ) ..	SE; ..	6·7 ; 1781 ; 330 ; 930	....	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 5-0	Local ; ..	W ; n.	2Sl(pr;m) ; 2Cs ; m ; lib.
Nimaguḷ SDK (निमगुळ) ..	NW ; 22-0	7·7 ; 3439 ; 596 ; 1149	Local; ..	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 7-0	.. 6-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl; dg.
Nimajhari SPR (निमझरी) ..	N ; 7-0	2·8 ; 789 ; 152 ; 428	Shirpur ; 7-0	Dhulia; 5-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 5-0	Dhulia ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(c); 3tl; ch ; lib.
Nimakheḍi DHL (निमखेडी) ..	NE ; 5-0	1·2 ; 360 ; 69 ; 180	Varkhede; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 41-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 15-0	....	W ; n.	....
Nimbāpāṭi AKA (निंबापाटी) ..	W ; 15-0	0·2 ; 234 ; 43 ; 141	Akkal-kuva ; 15-0					

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Nimbhel NDR (निंभेळ)	E ; 12-0	4·2 ; 505 ; 91 ; 196	Koparli ; 3-0	Tishi ; 2-0	Koparli ; Sat. 3-0	Koparli ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs ; ch.
Nimbhoṇī NVP (निंभोणी) ..	NE ; 22-0	2·0 ; 525 ; 92 ; 262	Khandbara ; 1-0	Khandbara ; 1-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 1-0	Stage; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(gr) tl.
Nimbhore SHD (निंभोरे) ..	SE ; 9-0	2·0 ; 190 ; 42 ; 116	Jainagar ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 18-0	Shahada ; Tue. 9-0	Kothali ; 3-0	W.	tl.
Nimboṇī Bk. NDR (निंबोणी बु.)	W ; 10-0	2·7 ; 1029 ; 190 ; 632	Kothali Kh. ; 1-0	Dhekvad ; 3-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 10-0	Kothali Kh. 1-0	W; w.	2Sl(pr) ; Cs; tl.
Niraguḍī SDK (निरगुडी) ..	E ; 3-0	2·2 ; 480 ; 86 ; 194	Sindkhed; 3-0	Sindkhed; 5-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 3-0	Sindkhed ; 5-0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(c); 2tl.
Niśāṇe SDK (निशाणे) ..	S ; 7-0	1·6 ; 333 ; 58 ; 117	Chimthane ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 5-0	Chimthane; Sun. 2-0	Chimthane ; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl, ch, lib.
Nyāhaḷod DHL (न्याहळोद) ..	NE ; 9-0	9·5 ; 3574 ; 654 ; 1733	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 9-0	Local ; Wed. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr, m) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg); Mariai Fr. Srn. Sud. 15; 12tl ; mq, 4dg; ch, 4lib.
Oḍhī AKA (ओढी) ..	NW ; 20-0	0·04 ; 46 ; 7 ; 25	Akkalkuva ; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 20-0	....	w ; n.	....
Oghāṇī AKA (ओघाणी) ..	NW ; 16-0	0·2 ; 234 ; 38 ; 136	Akkalkuva ; 16-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 16-0	....	n.	....
Ohavā AKA (ओहवा) ..	NW ; 15-0	0·3 ; 441 ; 84 ; 193	Akkalkuva ; 15-0	Nandurbar ; 41-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 15-0	....	W n.	Sl(pr).
Ojharade NDR (ओझरदे) ..	SW ; 7-0	0·4 ; 68 ; 13 ; 40	Ashte ; 1-0	Nandurbar; 7-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 7-0	Ashte ; 1-0	rv.	Sl(pr).
Ojharaṭe SHD (ओझरटे) ..	NE ; 16-0	0·8 ; 512 ; 83 ; 221	Mandane; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 33-0	Mandane; Thu. 4-0	....	....	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs(c) ; tl.
Osarlī NDR (ओसर्ली) ..	NE ; 16-0	2·7 ; 628 ; 119 ; 337	Koparli ; 2-4	Ranale ; 4-0	Koparli ; Sat. 2-4	Koparli 2-4	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 4tl.
Pāḍaḷade DHL (पाडळदे) ..	SE ; 12-0	5·7 ; 1064 ; 199 ; 537	Chaugaon; 4-0	Dhulia ; 12-0	Dhulia; Tue. 12-0	Anjanale ; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs ; 3tl; dh.; ch.
Pāḍaḷade Bk. SHD (पाडळदे बु.)	N ; 5-0	3·6 ; 3177 ; 546 ; 1293	Local; ..	Dondaicha ; 22-0	Shahada ; Tue. 5-0	Local; ..	W ; w.	2Sl(pr, h) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg); 2tl, mq; dg, 2 dp (1vet);

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Pāḍalade Kh. SHD (पाडळदे खु.)	NE ; 8-0	1·0 ; 90 ; 18 ; 55	Shahada; 8-0	Dondaicha ; 25-0	Shahada ; Tue. 8-0	Bram- hanpuri; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Pāḍalapūr TLD (पाडळपूर) ..	N ; 8-0	1·4 ; 414 ; 85 ; 176	Pratapa- pur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Pāḍalī AKR (पाडली) ..	SW ; 14-0	2·5 ; 329 ; 63 ; 166	Shisa ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Taloda ; Fri. 18-0	Dhad- gaon ; 14-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Pādāmuṇḍ AKR (पाडामुंड) ..	SW ; 16-0	1·8 ; 279 ; 50 ; 166	Shisa ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 31-0	Taloda ; Fri. 17-0	Dhad- gaon ; 16-0	W ; n.	Cs.
Paḍhāvad SDK (पढावद) ..	SE ; 16-0	2.6 ; 1552 ; 313 ; 642	Betavad ; 2-0	Betavad ; 4-4	Betavad ; Fri. 2-0	Beta- vad ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs. Jagannath Fr. Phg. Vad. 5, Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 3tl; ch ; lib.
Pālakhā AKR (पालखा) ..	S ; 2-0	0·6 ; 183 ; 31 ; 83	Dhad- gaon ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda ; Fri. 26-0	Dhad- gaon ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs. (gr.).
Palāsakhobarā AKA (पलासखोबरा) ..	N ; 39-0	0·03 ; 32 ; 7 ; 17	Kathi ; 17-0	Nandurbar ; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 39-0	Mulgi; 18-0	n.	....
Paḷasaner SPR (पळसनेर) ..	NE ; 21-0	2·2 ; 1430 ; 248 ; 642	....	Nardane ; 37-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (C, mis); 2 tl ; 2dg ; dh ; dp (vet).
Paḷāsavāde SHD (पळासवाडे) ..	SW ; 8-0	1·1 ; 336 ; 55 ; 179	.. 5-0	Nandurbar ; 13-0	....	.. 5-0	rv.	Cs (gr) ; tl.
Paḷāśī NDR (पळाशी) ..	N ; 5-0	2·9 ; 635 ; 114 ; 359	Kolde ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nadurbar ; Tue. 5-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch; lib.
Paḷaśī NVP (पळशी) ..	NE ; 25-0	1·8 ; 300 ; 57 ; 174	Khadki ; 1-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khand- bara ; 3-0	W.	....
Panabārī AKR (पानबारी) ..	SW ; 18-0	1·4 ; 250 ; 44 ; 125	Shisa ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Taloda ; Fri. 17-0	Dhad- gaon ; 18-0	n.	Cs.
Pānagāṅv SKI (पानगांव) ..	NW ; 22-0	9·7 ; 704 ; 126 ; 368	Pinjar Zadi ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Brahman- vel ; Wed. 3-0	Pinjar Zadi ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; tl.
Pānakheḍe SKI (पानखेडे) ..	W ; 17-0	25·3 4328 ; 699 ; 2244	Local ; ...	Navapur ; 43-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W; rv; n.	3Sl(pr); 2Cs (c, fmg); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4tl.
Pāṇḍharāmāti AKA (पांढरामाती) ..	NW ; 30-0	0·1 ; 103 ; 18 ; 58	Mulgi ; 18-0	Nandurbar ; 54-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 30-0	Akkal- kuva ; 30-0	rv.	....
Pāṅgarāṇ NVP (पांगराण) ..	NW ; 5-0	2·7 ; 938 ; 155 ; 493	Raingan; 0-4	Kolde ; 2-6	Navapur ; Sat. 5-0	Sava- rat ; 0-6	W.	2Sl (pr) ; Cs.

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Pāragāṅv SKI (पारगांव) ..	SW ; 20-0	4·6 ; 800 ; 129 ; 390	Balhane; 2-0	Dhulia ; 51-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 6-0	.. 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr).
Parasāmaḷ SDK (परसामळ) ..	S ; 2-4	1·5 ; 570 ; 107 ; 227	Sindkhed; 2-4	Sindkhed ; 0-3	Sindkhed; Mon. 2-4	Sindkhed ; 0-3	W; rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(c) ; 2tl, dh; ch.
Parasoḷe SDK (परसोळे) ..	W ; 27-0	3·1 ; 313 ; 64 ; 134	Karle ; 0-6	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 10-0	Malpur ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; 2tl.
Parī SHD (परी) ..	NW ; 6-0	1·1 ; 528 ; 99 ; 275	Shahada; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Padalde Bk.; 3-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Pāṣṭe SDK (पाष्टे) ..	SE ; 14-0	4·6 ; 2645 ; 487 ; 947	Local ; ..	Betavad ; 6-0	Betavad ; Fri. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 6tl, lib, dp.
Paṭabārā AKA (पाटबारा) ..	NE ; 22-0	0·3 ; 235 ; 44 ; 139	Jamana ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 22-0	Akkalkuva ; 22-0	rv.	....
Pāṭaṇ SDK (पाटण) ..	E ; 0-1	4·8 ; 2031 ; 377 ; 705	Sindkhed; 0-4	Sindkhed ; 3-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 0-4	Sindkhed; 0-4	W; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs (fmg.); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud, 15; 5tl ; ch.
Pāṭhaḍī TLD (पाठडी) ..	W ; 9-0	0·1 ; 88 ; 13 ; 54	Nalgavhan ; 2-0	Nandurbar; 23-0	Taloda; Fri. 9-0	Mendhavad; 2-0	W.	Pyt (gr).
Paṭharāī NDR (पथराई) ..	N ; 18-0	3·3 ; 1011 ; 186 ; 445	Dhamdai; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl; dh; ch.
Pātharḍe SPR (पाथर्डे) ..	SW ; 7-0	0·8 ; 205 ; 36 ; 72	Gidhade; 0-1	Nardane ; 9-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 4-0	.. 0-1	W ; rv.	2tl ; dh.
Pathāre SDK (पथारे) ..	NW ; 16-0	2·2 ; 714 ; 95 ; 246	Rani ; 0-2	Dondaicha ; 2-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 2-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; ch.
Pāṭībeḍakī NVP (पाटीबेडकी) ..	W ; 11-0	3·4 ; 1082 ; 182 ; 578	Navapur; 11-0	Kolde ; 3-4	Chinchpada ; Fri. 5-0	Chinchpada ; 5-0	W ; rv.	3Sl(pr, 2m) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs(mp).
Pāṭonde NDR (पाटोंदे) ..	N ; 2-0	2·2 ; 921 ; 165 ; 454	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 2-0	Stage ; ..	W; n.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 2tl.
Pāvale NDR (पावले) ..	W ; 14-0	3·0 ; 760 ; 129 ; 416	Natavad; 2-0	Khandbara ; 6-0	Dhanora; Sat. 4-0	Dhanora ; 4-0	W; rv; str.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Pāyaravihir NVP (पायरविहिर) ..	S ; 4-0	1·4 ; 114 ; 17 ; 69	Navapur; 4-0	Navapur ; 4-0	Navapur; Sat. 4-0	Jamtalav ; 1-0	W.	....
Pecarīdev AKA (पेचरीदेव) ..	SW ; 10-0	0·8 ; 373 ; 61 ; 225	Khapar ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar ; Tue. 4-0	Khapar ; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; lib.
Perajapūr SKI (पेरजपूर) ..	N ; 3-0	2·5 ; 1194 ; 211 ; 516	Kavathe; 2-0	Dhulia ; ..	Sakri ; Sun. 3-0	Sakri ; 3-0	W; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; lib.

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Peṭale SKI (पेटले) ..	N ; 21-0	2·7 ; 533 ; 100 ; 229	Titane ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; Fri. 4-0	Titane ; 3-0	W; n.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Phāgaṇe DHL (फागणे) ..	E ; 4-1	5·8 ; 3908 ; 694 ; 1309	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 6-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 4-0	Local ; ..	W; rv.	3Sl(2pr, m) ; pyt ; 3Cs(mp, mis, fmg) ; Shrimati Bayamay Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4 ; 8 tl ; 2dh ; 4gym ; ch ; 2dp.
Phattepūr SHD (फत्तेपूर) ..	N ; 10-0	6·8 ; 1720 ; 308 ; 879	Mhasavad ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 27-0	Mhasavad ; Mon. 2-0	Local ; ..	W; w.	3Sl(pr) ; 2Cs ; 7tl.
Phattepūr SPR (फत्तेपूर) ..	NE ; 10-0	0·8 ; 190 ; 29 ; 118	Dahivad ; 7-0	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 10-0	Local ; ..	W; n.	..
Phes SHD (फेस) ..	SE ; 18-0	2·6 ; 1068 ; 200 ; 458	Torkhede ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 2-0	Local ; ..	rv.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Phophāde SKI (फोफादे) ..	N ; 20-0	6·2 ; 540 ; 99 ; 185	Dusane ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Dusane ; Sat. 3-0	Dusane ; 3-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Phophare SKI (फोफरे) ..	E ; 24-0	4·1 ; 981 ; 160 ; 559	Local; ..	.. 24-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 4-0	Dhulia; ..	w.	3sl (pr, m, h); 2Cs ; 6tl; m; ch.
Phulasare NDR (फुलसरे) ..	W ; 6-0	0·8 ; 396 ; 75 ; 237	Sundarde ; 3-0	Dhekvad ; 8-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 6-0	Umarde ; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Piḷode SPR (पिळोदे) ..	SE ; 22-0	2·9 ; 1116 ; 197 ; 438	Thalner ; 7-0	Amalner ; 2-0	Hol ; Sat. 5-0	Local ; ..	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 4tl.
Pimpaḷagāṅv AKA (पिंपळगांव)	N ; 8-0	0·1 ; 23 ; 5 ; 15	..	Nandurbar ; 28-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 8-0	Akkalkuva ; 8-0	rv.	..
Pimpaḷagāṅv SKI (पिंपळगांव) ..	W ; 24-0	10·0 ; 1990 ; 316 ; 940	Tembe Pr. Varse ; 3-0	Chinchpada ; 32-0	Varse ; Mon. 6-0	.. 12-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt.
Pimpaḷakhuṭa AKA (पिंपळखुटा)	NW ; 30-0	0·2 ; 218 ; 37 ; 104	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 60-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 30-0	..	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; dp (vet).
Pimpaḷaner SKI (पिंपळनेर) ..	W ; 14-0	6·5 ; 7733 ; 1282 ; 1507	Local ; ..	Navapur ; 36-0	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W.	4Sl(3 pr ; h) ; pyt ; 8Cs ; Khandoji Maharaj Fr. Bdp. Sud. 12 ; 11tl ; mq ; 2dg ; dh ; lib ; 4dp ; Cch.
Pimpaḷe NVP (पिंपळे) ..	NE ; 26-0	2·2 ; 508 ; 93 ; 292	Khadki ; 2-0	Khandbara ; 6-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 6-0	Khandbara ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl.

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Pimpaḷe SPR (पिंपळे) ..	SE ; 17-0	1·3 ; 146; 30 ; 88	Hol ; 0-6	Nardane ; 16-0	Hol ; Sat. 0-6	Hol ; 0-6	rv.	Sl(pr) ; tl ; mq ; dg.
Pimpaḷod SHD (पिंपळोद) ..	NW ; 16-0	2·0 ; 316 ; 53 ; 151	Kudhavad ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Shahada ; Tue. ..	Padalde ; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(fmg).
Pimpaḷod Tarf Dhānore NDR (पिंपळोद तर्फ धानोरे)	NW ; 9-0	2·0; 1630 ; 300 ; 817	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 9-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs; 3tl.
Pimparaḍe SHD (पिंपरडे) ..	E ; 8-0	2·0 ; 681 ; 133 ; 373	Mandane ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Mandane Thu. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 3 tl ; ch.
Pimparakheḍe DHL (पिंपरखेडे)	W; ..	9·1 ; 327 ; 63 ; 159	....	....	....	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Pimparakheḍe SDK (पिंपरखेडे)	SE ; 10-0	1·2 ; 602 ; 101 ; 157	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 4-0	Nardane; Sat. 5-0	.. 0-3	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2 tl.
Pimparān NVP (पिंपरान) ..	SE ; 9-0	2·3 ; 334 ; 56 ; 197	Navapur ; 9-0	Kolde ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; Fri. 7-0	Savarat; 4-0	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp); tl ; lib.
Pimparapāḍā TLD (पिंपरपाडा)	NW ; 9-0	3·3 ; 646 ; 117 ; 265	Taloda ; 9-0	Nandurbar ; 23-0	Taloda; Fri. 9-0	.. 3-0	W ; w.	2 Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp).
Pimparī AKR (पिंपरी) ..	NW ; 3-0	0·5 ; 150 ; 28 ; 57	Dhadgaon ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 45-0	Taloda; Fri. 31-0	Dhadgaon ; 3-0	W.	....
Pimparī DHL (पिंपरी) ..	SE ; 3-0	1·5 ; 426 ; 88 ; 224	Vadajai ; 0-1	Dhulia ; 4-0	Dhulia; Tue. 4-0	Dhulia; 3-0	W.	tl.
Pimpaṭi AKA (पिंपटी) ..	NE ; 26-0	0·1 ; 51 ; 9 ; 27	Kathi ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 72-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	....	rv.	....
Pimprāḍ SDK (पिंप्राड) ..	SE ; 7-0	2·1 ; 876 ; 163 ; 316	Nardane ; 0-4	Nardane ; 1-4	Nardane; Sat. 0-4	Nardane ; 0-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; Gorakshanath Fr. Mg. Sud. 2 ; 2 tl ; m ; dg ; ch.
Pimprāpāṇī AKA (पिंप्रापाणी) ..	N; ..	0·2 ; 185 ; 32 ; 102	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Pimprī SDK (पिंप्री) ..	SW ; 8-2	2·2 ; 100 ; 16 ; 58	Chimthane ; 0-2	Sindkhed ; 5-2	Chimthane; Sun. 0-2	Stage ; 0-2	rv.	....
Pimprī SHD (पिंप्री) ..	N ; 8-0	1·6 ; 784 ; 147 ; 393	Mhasavad ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 28-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 1-0	Mhasavad ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Pimprī SPR (पिंप्री) ..	S ; 5-0	1·9 ; 507 ; 77 ; 186	Savalde ; 2-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur; Mon. 5-0	Shirpur; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; tl.

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Pimprīpāḍā AKA (पिंप्रीपाडा) ..	SE ; 2-0	0·4 ; 106 ; 19 ; 39	Akkal-kuva ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 2-0	Stage ; ..	W.	....
Piṅgāṇe SHD (पिंगाणे) ..	W ; 0-6	2·1 ; 829 ; 161 ; 344	Shahada ; 0-4	Dondaicha ; 21-0	Shahada ; Tue. 0-6	Shaha-da ; 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c); 3 tl ; 2 dh.
Porāmbī AKA (पोरांबी) ..	SW; 11-0	1·2 ; 353 ; 60 ; 216	Khapar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	Kha-par ; 5-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp) ; lib.
Prakāśe SHD (प्रकाशे) ..	SW ; 9-0	15·7 ; 6053; 1183 ; 2246	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 13-0	Local ; Wed. ..	Local ; ..	W; rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m) ; pyt ; 2 Cs (mp, fmg.) ; Mansapuri Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 50 tl ; 2 mq ; 2 dg ; 2dh ; gym ; ch ; lib ; 5 dp.
Pratāpapūr SKI (प्रतापपूर) ..	S ; 10-0	6·8; 1695; 252; 657	Nadase ; 4-0	Dhulia ; 40-0	Kasare ; Fri. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	2sl (Pr, m) ; 2Cs (c, mis) ; tl ; lib.
Pratāpapūr TLD (प्रतापपूर) ..	N ; 5-0	3·4 ; 1673 ; 294 ; 736	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Taloda ; Fri. 5-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2 Cs (mp, fmg) ; 2 tl ; lib.
Puramepāḍā DHL (पुरमेपाडा) ..	SW ; 13-0	14·8 ; 2169 ; 400 ; 1042	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 13-0	Arvi ; Mon. 1-4	Local ; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr);pyt; Cs (mp); 5 tl ; lib.
Pusanad SHD (पुसनद) ..	S ; 7-0	3·3 ; 1339 ; 246 ; 610	Anarad ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 1-0	Anarad; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs (mp, fmg) ; 3 tl ; dg ; ch ; lib.
Rāḍīkalam AKR (राडीकलम) ..	SW ; 3-0	2·0 ; 304 ; 39 ; 151	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 41-0	Taloda ; Fri. 25-0	Dhad-gaon ; 3-0	W.	Cs (gr).
Rajāḷe NDR (रजाळे) ..	SE ; 14-0	4·0 ; 1112 ; 183 ; 442	Kharde Kh. ; 3-0	Ranale ; 12·0	Ranale ; Sun. 12-0	Stage ; 0-4	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; dg ; ch.
Rājamoī AKA (राजमोई) ..	SE ; 1-4	1·0 ; 995 ; 155 ; 468	Akkal-kuva ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 1-4	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; 2mq ; lib.
Rājavirā TLD (राजविरा) ..	NW ; 5-0	1·2 ; 963 ; 168 ; 603	Taloda ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 19-0	Taloda ; Fri. 5-0	Budha-vali ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; dp.
Rākasavāḍe NDR (राकसवाडे) ..	N ; 5-0	1·4 ; 582; 111 ; 321	Kolde ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 5-0	.. 1-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl.
Rāmapūr AKA (रामपूर) ..	W ; 19-0	0·4 ; 603 ; 120 ; 375	.. 28-0	Nandurbar ; 39-0	Khapar ; Tue. 7-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Rāmapūr TLD (रामपूर) ..	W ; 8-0	0·7 ; 501 ; 87 ; 271	Vanyavi-hir Kh.; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 1-0	Vanya-vihir ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.

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Rāmasalā AKR (रामसला) ..	SW ; 16-0	0·9 ; 189 ; 36 ; 127	Shisa ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Taloda ; Fri. 18-0	Dhad-gaon ; 16-0	n.	Cs.
Rāmī DHL (रामी) ..	NW ; 25-0	3·9 ; 1145 ; 188 ; 587	Boris ; 2-0	Sindkhed; 15-0	Boris ; Fri. 2-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Rāmī SDK (रामी) ..	NW ; 19-0	3·3 ; 2275 ; 401 ; 725	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 3-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 3-0	Stage ; 0-5	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs ; 5tl.
Ranāḷe NDR (रनाळे) ..	E ; 11-0	1 3·4 ; 5385 ; 969 ; 1701	Local ; ..	Ranale ; 5-0	Local ; Sun. ..	Local ; ..	W; rv; n.	6Sl (5pr, h) ; 4Cs ; Saptashrungi devi Fr. ct. Sud. 15, Kathya dev Fr. An. Sud. 14 ; 17 tl; m ; 2mq; dg ; dh; 4 lib; 2dp.
Ranāḷe Kh. NDR (रनाळे खुर्द) ..	W ; 9-0	2·7 ; 488 ; 78 ; 228	Kothali Kh; 2-4	Dhekvad ; 2-0	Khand-bara ; Sun. 5-0	Dhek-vad ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Rānamāḷā DHL (रानमळा) ..	S ; 5-0	1·9 ; 1134 ; 230 ; 554	Laling ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 5-0	Dhulia; Tue. 5-0	Dhulia; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); Shri Khanderav Maharaj Fr. Mg. Sud. 15 ; 5tl; gym.
Rāṇāpūr TLD (राणापूर) ..	W ; 11-0	0·6 ; 363 ; 73 ; 187	Taloda ; 11-0	Nandurbar ; 25-0	Taloda ; Fri. 11-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Rāṇīpūr TLD (राणीपूर) ..	E ; 6-0	0·9 ; 488 ; 89 ; 280	Pratapa-pur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda ; Fri. 6-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Rañjāṇe SDK (रंजाणे) ..	NW ; 10-0	4·9 ; 1287 ; 227 ; 529	Virdel ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 12-0	Virdel ; Fri. 5-0	Virdel ; 5-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (fmg) ; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 2tl.
Rāñjaṇī AKA (रांजणी) ..	W ; 8-0	0·5 ; 207 ; 37 ; 133	Raising-pur ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 34-0	Khapar ; Tue. 3-0	Kha-par ; 3-0	W. rv.	....
Rāñjhaṇī TLD (रांझणी) ..	N ; 4-0	0·7 ; 1085 ; 188 ; 606	Pratapa-pur ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	.. 0-5	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Rāpāpūr TLD (रापापूर) ..	N ; 8-0	3·2 ; 697 ; 138 ; 401	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Taloda; 8-0	W ; n.	....
Ratanabārā AKA (रतनबारा) ..	W ; 11-0	0·3 ; 288 ; 49 ; 131	Khapar ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Khapar ; Tue. 8-0	....	n.	Sl (pr).

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Ratanapāḍā TLD (रतनपाडा) ..	NW ; 19-0	1·2 ; 356 ; 68 ; 150	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 23-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 3-0	Modal-pada ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Rāver DHL (रावेर) ..	SW ; 4-0	4·9 ; 457 ; 81 ; 214	Dahyane ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 4-0	Dhulia; Tue. 4-0	Dhulia ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; gym.
Rayakheḍ SHD (रायखेड) ..	NE ; 10-0	1·9 ; 1,201 ; 208 ; 521	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 27-0	....	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs. (mp, fmg) ; tl ; dh ; 2lib.
Rāyakoṭ SKI (रायकोट) ..	NW ; 20-6	7·5 ; 170 ; 30 ; 90	Pinjar Zadi ; 0-6	Chinchpada ; 19-0	Brahmanvel; Wed. 4-6	.. 0-6	W.	Sl (pr) .
Rāyaṅgaṇ NVP (रायंगण) ..	E ; 4-0	5·0 ; 1,635 ; 288 ; 905	Local ; ..	Kolde ; 2-0	Navapur; Sat. 4-0	Sava-rat; 0-4	W ; rv.	3Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; tl
Rāyapūr NVP (रायपूर) ..	S ; 6-0	3·9 ; 926 ; 154 ; 558	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur ; 6-0	Navapur; Sat. 6-0	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl.
Rāyasiṅgapūr AKA (रायसिंगपूर) ..	W ; 6-0	0·2 ; 340 ; 67 ; 150	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 33-0	Khapar; Tue. 3-0	Kha-par ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; mq ; dg ; lib ; dp.
Rāyatel SKI (रायतेल) ..	NW ; 20-0	5·0 ; 601 ; 107 ; 343	Pinjar Zadi ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Bramhan-vel ; Wed. 3-0	.. 0-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Reṭapāḍā TLD (रेटपाडा) ..	NW ; 15-0	0·7 ; 45 ; 10 ; 21	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 26-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 4-0	Vanya-vihir ; 4-0	W.	Cs.
Rethī AKA (रेथी) ..	W ; 7-0	1·4 ; 34 ; 7 ; 15	Kukur-munde ; 13-0	Nandurbar ; 29-0	Khapar ; Tue. 1-0	Kha- ; 1-0 par	W.	Cs (mp-gr).
Revāḍī SDK (रेवाडी) ..	SW ; 18-0	3·4 ; 789 ; 131 ; 342	Shevade ; 6-0	Sindkhed ; 17-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 5-0	Divi ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Rohāṇ SKI (रोहण) ..	W ; 13-0	4·0 ; 888 ; 142 ; 472	Jebapur ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 43-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 3-0	Stage ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl ; ch ; lib.
Rohāṇe SDK (रोहाणे) ..	S ; 11-0	2·0 ; 1,585 ; 284 ; 646	Mukti ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 8-0	Chimthane ; Sun. 3-0	Darane ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); 2tl ; lib.
Rohiṇī SPR (रोहिणी) ..	E ; 18-0	3·1 ; 1,026 ; 202 ; 574	Shirpur ; 18-0	Nardane ; 36-0	Local ; Wed. ..	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl ; m ; dg.
Rohoḍ SKI (रोहोड) ..	W ; 22-0	1·9 ; 620 ; 91 ; 331	Dhaner ; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 14-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 10-0	Dhaner; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Rojagāṅv SKI (रोजगांव) ..	NE ; 12-0	4·6 ; 137 ; 24 ; 61	Dusane ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Dusane ; Sat. 2-0	Stage ; ..	n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.

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Rojakuṇḍ AKA (रोजकुंड) ..	W ; 11-0	1·3 ; 617 ; 123 ; 361	Khapar ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 40-0	Khapar ; Tue. 10-0	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Rojhave TLD (रोझवे) ..	N ; 4-0	3·7 ; 660 ; 126 ; 396	Taloda ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	Taloda; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Roṣamāḷ Bk. AKR (रोषमाळ बु.)	W ; 0-6	3·7 ; 1411 ; 270 ; 444	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 60-0	Taloda ; Fri. 28-0	Dhad- gaon ; 0-6	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (c) ; Bhangorya Fr. phg ; 3tl ; mq ; lib ; dp.
Rudāṇe SDK (रूदाणे) ..	SW ; 22-0	3·2 ; 156 ; 25 ; 89	Lamkani ; 1-0	....	Lamkani; Sat. 1-0	Lam- kani ; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (gr) ; 2tl ; ch.
Rudāvaḷī SPR (रूदावळी) ..	W ; 7-0	1·0 ; 497 ; 95 ; 230	Jatode ; 2-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 7-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl.
Runamaḷī SKI (रूनमळी) ..	N; 15-0	5·4 ; 719 ; 130 ; 333	Vaskhedi; 3·0	Nadurbar ; 24-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 3·0	Vaja- dare ; 2-0	rv.	2Sl (pr,m); Cs (mp) ; tl; ch.
Saḍagāṅv DHL (सडगांव) ..	SW ; 14-0	12·9 ; 1637 ; 299 ; 903	Dahyane ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 14-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 14-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Pipala Dev Fr. Ct. Sud. 10 ; 4tl ; dh ; lib.
Śahādā (Rural Area) SHD शहादा (ग्रामीण विभाग)	....	2·2 ; 246 ; 61 ; 172	....	....	....	....	W ; rv.	..
Śahādā (Urban Area I) SHD शहादा (नागरी विभाग)	HQ ; ..	5·0 ; 13,338 ; 2,469 ; 1,546	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 17-0	Local ; Tue. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	7Sl(5pr, 2h) ; 3Cs ; 11tl ; 4mq ; dh ; 2gym ; ch ; 2lib ; 8dp ; Cch.
Śahāḍe NDR (शहाडे) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·9 ; 1,196 ; 244 ; 608	Shinde ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; Tue. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; 2cs(mp, fmg) ; 4tl ; ch.
Sāhūr SDK (साहूर) ..	NW ; 18-0	2·6 ; 373 ; 70 ; 206	Tavkhede P. N. ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 5-0	Dondai- cha ; 5-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(gr) ; tl.
Saitāḷe DHL (सैताळे) ..	NW ; 22-0	2·5 ; 827 ; 132 ; 415	Phopha- re ; 1-4	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 3-0	Lam- kani ; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; Datta Fr. Kt. Sud. 15 ; 2tl.
Saitāṇe NDR (सैताणे) ..	SE ; 16-0	2·4 ; 856 ; 129 ; 449	Kharde Kh. ; 1-0	Ranale ;	Ranale ; Sun. 6-0	Kharde Kh. ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs. Dongara Dev Fr. Mg. Sud. 12 ; 2tl ; ch.
Sākaḷīumar AKA (साकळीउमर) ..	N ; 22-0	0·3 ; 441 ; 72 ; 253	Mulgi ; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Akkal- kuva ; Wed. 22-0	Akkal- kuva ; 22-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs.

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Sākavad SPR (साकवद) ..	S; 2-0	1·9; 339; 56; 144	Shirpur; 2-0	Nardane; 1-50	Shirpur; Mon. 2-0	Shirpur; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr); 3tl; ch.
Sākrī SKI (साक्री) ..	HQ;	2·1; 5,364; 1025; 826	Local; ..	Nandurbar; 33-0	Local; Sun. ..	Local; ..	....	3Sl(2pr, h); 6Cs; 4tl; mq; 2dg; dh; gym; lib; 3dp; Cch.
Salasāḍī TLD (सलसाडी) ..	NE; 4-0	1·4; 276; 59; 152	Pratapapur; 2-0	Nandurbar; 18-0	Taloda; Fri. 4-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); tl.
Sālaṭek SKI (सालटेक) ..	N; 6-0	3·3; 198; 39; 100	.. 6-0	Nandurbar; 29-0	Nijampur; Mon. ..	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Sāḷave SDK (साळवे) ..	SW; 9-0	4·6; 1,392; 233; 605	Chimthane; 2-0	Sindkhed; 6-0	Chimthane; Sun. 2-0	Stage; 0-6	W.	Sl(pr); pyt; 2Cs (mis, mp); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2tl; dg.
Sallībār AKA (सल्लीबार) ..	NE; 25-0	0·6; 787; 143; 495	Jamana; 3-0	Nandurbar; 40-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 25-0	Akkalkuva; 25-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr).
Samaśerapūr NDR (समशेरपूर) ..	NE; 10-0	4·2; 1,685; 285; 730	Vikharan; 2-0	Nandurbar; 10-0	Prakashe; Wed. 2-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs(mp,fmg); 2tl.
Sāmbar AKA (सांबर) ..	N; 36-0	0·3; 27; 7; 14	Kathi; 14-0	Nandurbar; ..	Akkalkuva; Wed. 36-0	Mulgi; 18-0	n.	....
Sāmoḍe SKI (सामोडे) ..	W; 12-0	4·6; 3,364; 545; 1310	Local; ..	Dhulia; 44-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 2-0	Local; ..	W; rv.	2S(pr, m); pyt; 4Cs; Bhavani Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3; 3tl; 2dg; ch; lib; dp.
Sāṅgavī SPR (सांगवी) ..	NE; 16-0	4·5; 2,068; 379; 709	Local; ..	Nardane; 31-0	Local; Fri. ..	Stage; ..	W; rv.	Sl(pr); 3Cs(mis); 6tl; dh; gym; dp.
Sāṅjorī DHL (सांजोरी) ..	W; 8-0	2·8; 287; 46; 157	Dahyane; 2-0	Dhulia; 8-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; 2tl; dg; ch.
Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (सारंगखेडे) ..	S; 9-0	5·8; 3,154; 605; 1256	Local; ..	Dondaicha; 8-0	Local; Sun. ..	Stage; ..	rv.	2Sl(pr, h); 4Cs (3mp, fmg); Dattajayanti Fr. Mrg. Sud. 14; 7tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 3dp.
Saravaḍ DHL (सरवड) ..	N; 10-0	4·1; 849; 155; 354	Deobhane; 2-0	Nardane; 12-0	Songir; Thu. 2-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl; ch.

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Sārave SDK (सारवे) ..	S ; 8-0	0·9 ; 485 ; 90 ; 166	Pimpar-khede ; 1-4	Nardane ; 6-0	Songir ; Thu. 4-0	 1-4	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch.
Sarī AKA (सरी) ..	N ; 23-0	0·5 ; 608 ; 103 ; 314	Mulgi; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 50-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 23-0	Akkal-kuva ; 23-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr).
Sārī NVP (सारी) ..	SE ; 12-0	1·4 ; 246 ; 46 ; 148	Nava-pur ; 12-0	Navapur ; 12-0	Navapur ; Sat. 12-0	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Sasade SHD (ससदे) ..	S ; 8-0	6·6 ; 997 ; 187 ; 361	Bamkhede Tarf Sarang-khede ; 2-0	Ranale ; 7-0	Koparli ; Sat. 2-0	....	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl.
Satamāne SKI (सतमाने) ..	NE ; 24-0	1·3 ; 294 ; 62 ; 161	Balsane ; 2-0	....	....	Balsane; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr).
Satāre SDK (सतारे) ..	SW ; 17-0	6·9 ; 537 ; 862 ; 231	Shevade ; 5-0	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 10-0	Divi ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Satarṇe DHL (सातर्णे) ..	NE ; 10-0	2·8 ; 586 ; 111 ; 256	Nyaha-lod ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 10-0	Nyahalod ; Wed. 1-0	Local ; ..	W ; W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs (mp, fmg) ; Mariai Fr. Srn., 2 tl ; ch.
Satoṇe TLD (सतोणे) ..	W ; 9-0	1·0 ; 320 ; 55 ; 1566	Navlgav-han ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 24-0	Vanyavhir Kh. ; Mon. 1-0	Modal-pada ; 1-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr).
Sāturkhe NDR (सातुर्खे) ..	E ; 18-0	1·6 ; 527 ; 81 ; 299	Nimgul; 1-0	 4-0	Dondai-cha ; Thu. 6-0	Nimgul; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 tl ; ch.
Saundāṇe DHL (सौंदाणे) ..	SE ; 4-0	4·2 ; 998 ; 189 ; 306	Vadajai ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 5-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 4-0	Local; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3 tl ; dg,
Sāvakheḍe SHD (सावखेडे) ..	NE ; 6-0	2·3 ; 497 ; 95 ; 277	Shahada; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Shahada ; Tue. 6-0	Stage; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs (c, fmg) ; 2 tl.
Sāvaḷade DHL (सावळदे) ..	S ; ..	1·9 ; 444 ; 74 ; 108	....	....	....	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Sāvaḷade NDR (सावळदे) ..	NE ; 15-0	0·8 ; 163 ; 23 ; 96	Prakashe ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 15-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 15-0	Korit ; 1-4	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 3 tl.
Sāvaḷade SHD (सावळदे) ..	S ; 3-0	1·3 ; 456 ; 72 ; 192	.. 1-0	Dondaicha ; 13-0	Shahada ; Tue. 3-0	Shaha-da ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2 tl.
Sāvaḷade SPR (सावळदे) ..	S ; 5-0	2·0 ; 729 ; 121 ; 276	Local; ..	Nardane ; 14-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Stage; ..	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 6 tl ; lib.

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Sāvaḷi DHL (सावळी) ..	SE ; 14-0	5·8 ; 207 ; 45 ; 100	.. 6-4	Borvihir ; 3-4	Dhulia; Tue. ..	.. 0-3	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Sāvar TLD (सावर) ..	NW ; 15-0	0·9 ; 59 ; 14 ; 31	Vanya-vihir Kh.; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 5-0	Vanya-vihir ; ..	n.	Cs.
Sāvaraṭ NVP (सावरट) ..	E ; 6-0	3·0 ; 948 ; 156 ; 475	Chinch-pada ; 1-4	Kolde ; 0-4	Chinch-pada ; Fri. 1-4	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Sāver SPR (सावेर) ..	SE ; 11-5	5·1 ; 238 ; 59 ; 155	Bhatpure; 4-0	Nardane ; 30-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 11-5	.. 0-5	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.
Sāyane DHL (सायने)	N ; 13-0	7·4 ; 1092 ; 190 ; 368	Nardane; 1-4	Dhulia ; 14-0	Songir ; Thu. 5-0	Deo-bhane ; 3-0	W; w.	Sl (pr); pyt ; Cs (mp); 2 tl ; m.
Sāyane SKI (सायने) ..	W ; 6-0	3·5 ; 296 ; 50 ; 100	Kasare ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Kasare ; Fri. 6-0	Kasare; 6-0	w.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch ; lib.
Sayyadanagar SKI (सय्यदनगर)	E ; 10-0	2·9 ; 781 ; 139 ; 352	Tamas-wadi ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 26-0	Vasmar ; Sat. 0-2	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp) ; 2 tl ; dg.
Śegave NVP (शेगवे) ..	NE ; 23-0	3·6 ; 1661 ; 273 ; 948	Khand-bara ; 1-4	Khandbara ; 1-4	Khandbara ; Sun. 1-4	Khand-bara ; 1-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (c).
Śehī NVP (शेही) ..	NE ; 22-0	3·0 ; 908 ; 151 ; 405	Nizam-pur ; 1-0	Khandbara ; 5-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 5-0	Khand-bara ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (mp); tl ; lib.
Śejave NDR (शेजवे) ..	NW ; 12-0	1·5 ; 436 ; 74 ; 278	Pimplod; 3-4	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 6-0	Pimpa-lod ; 3-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Śelabārī SKI (शेलबारी) ..	SE ; 17-0	6·3 ; 550 ; 95 ; 328	Balhane ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 50-0	Pimpalner; Fri. 5-0	Local ; ..	W.	3 Sl (pr).
Śelavāī TLD (शेलवाई) ..	W ; 8-0	0·7 ; 347 ; 60 ; 208	Vanya-vihir Kh.; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 2-0	Modal-pada ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Śeḷṭī SHD (शेल्टी) ..	SW ; 10-0	3·6 ; 1117 ; 197 ; 500	.. 4-0	Ranale ; 6-0	Koparli ; Sat. 1-6	....	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 3 Cs ; 2 tl ; lib.
Śeṇapūr SKI (शेणपूर) ..	W ; 7-0	4·8 ; 1202 ; 187 ; 561	Degaon ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 40-0	Kasare ; Fri. 3-0	.. 0-5	W ; str.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2 Cs(c) ; 3 tl.
Śenavaḍ SKI (शेनवड) ..	SW ; 28-0	8·4 ; 1140 ; 202 ; 676	Varse ; 6-0	Navapur ; 26-0	Varse ; Mon. 6-0	Varse Phata; 6-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Śendavāḍe SDK (शेंदवाडे) ..	NW ; 18-0	1·0 ; 254 ; 41 ; 183	Tavkhede Pr. N. ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 6-0	Dondaicha: Thu. 6-0	Don-daicha; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.

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Śendavān AKA (सेंदवान) ..	W ; 19-0	0·3 ; 168 ; 30 ; 107	.. 28-0	Nandurbar; 39-0	Khapar ; Tue. 7-0	....	W.	tl.
Śetagāṅv NVP (शेतगांव) ..	NE ; ..	0·6 ; 194 ; 33 ; 88	Sonaredi-gar ; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 3-0	Chinchpada ; Fri. 3-0	Chinchpada ; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Śevāḍe SDK (शेवाडे) ..	SW ; 15-0	8·0 ; 2555 ; 442 ; 960	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 13-0	Lamkani; Sat. 6-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; Tukai Devi Fr. Ps. Sud. 15 ; 4 tl ; m; mq ; ch; lib; dp.
Śevage SKI (शेवगे) ..	SW ; 20-0	2·1 ; 602 ; 89 ; 315	Balhane; 2-0	Chinchpada ; 34-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 6-0	.. 3-0	W.	2 Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2 tl.
Śevālī (Dātartī) SKI (शेवाळी) (दातर्ती) ..	E ; 3-0	5·5 ; 2194 ; 357 ; 953	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 30-0	Sakri ; Sun. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W; w; n.	2 Sl (pr, h) ; Cs (mp) ; 3 tl ; lib.
Śevālī (Mālegāṅv) SKI शेवाळी (मालेगांव) ..	SE ; 26-0	9·5 ; 635 ; 119 ; 323	Mhasadi Pr. Ner.; 5-0	Dhulia ; 30-0	Mhasadi Pr. Ner ; Mon. 3-0	Mhasadi Pr. Ner. ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2 tl .
Śindagavhāṇ NDR (शिंदगव्हाण)	NE ; 10-0	1·9 ; 1124 ; 207 ; 487	Bhalve; 2-0	Tishi; 3-4	Nandurbar; Tue. 10-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2 Cs ; 2 tl.
Śindakheḍ SDK (शिंदखेड) ..	HQ ; ..	9·3 ; 10,579; 1,962; 2.618	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Mon. ..	Local ; ..	W; w; rv.	5 Sl (4 pr, h) ; 5 Cs (mis) ; 8 tl ; 2 m ; 2 mq.; 7 dg ; dh ; 3 gym ; ch ; lib ; 12 dp.
Śinde NDR (शिंदे) ..	NE ; 8-0	4·2 ; 1,728 ; 309 ; 756	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	.. 1-4	W.	2 Sl (pr, h) ; Cs (mp) ; Umaj mata Devi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8 ; 4 tl ; 2 dg.
Sindurī AKA (सिंदुरी) ..	NW ; 44-0	0·2 ; 317 ; 46 ; 166	Mulgi ; 22-0	Nandurbar ; 70-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 44-0	....	rv.	Sl (pr).
Siṅgapūr Bk. AKA (सिंगपूर बु.)	NE ; 7-0	1·1 ; 1,246 ; 223 ; 718	Akkalkuva ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Vanyavihir; Mon. 3-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; lib; dp.
Siṅgapūr Kh. AKA (सिंगपूर खु.)	NE ; 9-0	0·5 ; 325 ; 56 ; 191	Akkalkuva ; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Vanyavihir; Mon. 5-0	.. 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr).
Śiṅgāve SPR (शिंगावे) ..	S ; 0-4	2·6 ; 1,694 ; 301 ; 639	Shirpur ; 0-4	Nardane ; 18-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 0-4	Shirpur ; 0-6	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2 tl ; ch.
Śiradhāṇe Pr. Dāṅgarī DHL.. (शिरधाणे प्र. डांगरी)	NE ; 7-0	1·9 ; 801 ; 151 ; 446	Nyahalod ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 8-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 7-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt; Cs (mp); Chimadevi Fr. Ct. Vad. ; 84 tl ; dg.

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Śirdhāṇe Pr. Ner DHL (शिरधाणे प्र. नेर)	NW ; 25-0	12·2 ; 2.674 ; 480 ; 1248	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 25-0	Mahal Pan-dhari (Ner); Thu. 5-0	....	W.	2 Sl (pr, m) ; 2 Cs ; Maruti Fair, Ct. Sud. 15 ; 3 tl ; m ; dg ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Śirāḷe SDK (शिराळे) ..	SE ; 6-0	0·5 ; 122 ; 18 ; 33	Ajande Kh. ; ..	Nardane ; 3-0	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	.. 0-1	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2 tl.
Śirapūr Kh. SPR (शिरपूर खु.)	....	2 ; 1 ; 2 ;	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Śirapūr Kh. SPR (शिरपूर खु.)	....	Included in Urban Area I.	....	....	....	....	....	....
Śirapūr SPR (Urban area I) शिरपूर (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ. ; ..	5·7; 20,844; 3,793; 3,085	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 17-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Local ; ..	W ; p.	14 Sl (7 pr, 3m, 3h, 1 clg.); 10 tl; 2 m; dh ; 5 mq; 2 dg ; 3 gym; ch; lib; 9 dp; Cch.
Śirasoḷe SKI (शिरसोळे) ..	W ; 17-0	4·1 ; 634 ; 100 ; 259	Chaupale; 5-0	Chinchpada ; 20-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 5-0	Dahi-vel ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Śiravāḍe NDR (शिरवाडे) ..	W ; 8-0	1·2 ; 238 ; 44 ; 139	Kothali Kh. ; 4-0	Dhekvad ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun 6-0	Kothali Kh. ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Śirave TLD (शिरवे) ..	W ; 8-0	0·9 ; 523 ; 93 ; 283	Nalgav-han ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Nalga-vhan ; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Śiruḍ DHL (शिरुड) ..	SE ; 16-0	15·0 ; 4,789 ; 893 ; 1607	Local ; ..	Shirud ; 0-3	Local ; Fri. ..	.. 0-3	W ; w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m) ; pyt ; 7 Cs ; Kalika Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, Khandoba Fair; Mg. Sud. 15 ; 10 tl ; 2 m ; 2mq ; dg; dh ; 5 lib ; 4 dp.
Śiruḍ Digar SHD (शिरुड दिगर)	....	2·6 ; 2,312 ; 411 ; 975	....	....	....	....	W.	....
Śiruḍ Tarf Haveli SHD (शिरुड तर्फ हवेली)	N ; 8-0	0·7 ; 98 ; 19 ; 47	Kudha-vad ; 3-0	Dondaicha; 25-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 3-0	Mhasa-vad ; 3-0	rv.	....
Śisā AKR (शिसा) ..	SW ; 10-0	2·9 ; 511 ; 100 ; 306	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Taloda ; Fri. 22-0	Dhad-gaon; 10-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Śitāṇe ; DHL; (शिताणे) ..	SE ; 19-0	3·7 ; 448 ; 81 ; 207	Talvade; 1-0	Shirud ; 6-0	Shirud ; Fri. 6-0	Talva-de ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); 3tl;Cs(mp-gr).
Śitoḍ DHL (शितोड) ..	W ; 2-0	2·6 ; 1.513 ; 288 ; 206	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 1-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 1-0	Dhulia; 2-0	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; 2tl ; gym.

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Śiv SKI (शीव) ..	W ; 20-0	1·7 ; 409 ; 74 ; 220	Dangshirvade ; 2-0	....	Warsa ; Mon. 3-0	.. 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs.
Sojaḍān AKA (सोजडान) ..	NE ; 8-0	0·6 ; 219 ; 35 ; 151	Nalgavhan ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Vanyavihir; Mon. 6-0	....	W.	Sl(pr).
Sojarabārā TLD (सोजरबारा) ..	NW ; 8-4	0·2 ; 60 ; 11 ; 38	Taloda ; 8-4	Nandurbar ; 23-4	Taloda; Fri. 8-4	....	W.	....
Somāṇe AKR (सोमाणे) ..	W ; 5-0	1·0 ; 87 ; 14 ; 47	Dhadgaon ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Taloda; Fri. 27-0	Survani ; 1-0	W.	....
Somāval Bk. TLD (सोमावल बु.)	W ; 6-0	1·1 ; 984 ; 174 ; 542	Nalgavhan ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Somāval Kh. TLD (सोमावल खु.)	W ; 6-4	0·8 ; 609 ; 122 ; 389	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 21-4	Taloda; Fri. 6-0	Somaval Bk. ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Sonagīr DHL (सोनगीर) ..	N ; 14-0	6·2 ; 6,750 ; 1,192; 1,438	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 8-0	Local ; Thu. ..	Local ; ..	W.	3Sl (2pr, m) ; Cs ; Someshvar Fr. Kt. Sud. 15 ; 5tl ; m; 4mq ; dg ; 2dh ; gym ; ch ; 3dp.
Sonākhaḍke NVP (सोनखडके)	SE ; 8-0	2·1 ; 514 ; 92 ; 325	....	....	....	....	....	....
Sonāpāṭī AKA (सोनापाटी) ..	NW ; 8-0	0·4 ; 387 ; 79 ; 218	Akkalkuva ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 8-0	.. 1-0		Sl(pr) ; Cs.
Sonāredigar NVP (सोनारेदिगर)	NE ; 12-0	3·9 ; 1,814 ; 304 ; 1,114	Local ; ..	Chinchpada ; 3-0	Chinchpada ; Fri. 3-0	Chinchpada 3-0	W.	3Sl(pr) ; 2Cs ; tl ; 3m.
Sonaśelū SDK (सोनशेलू) ..	W ; 6-0	2·2 ; 800 ; 146 ; 306	Methi ; 2-0	Vikharan ; 3-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 6-0	Methi; 2-0	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Sonāvad Tarf Śahādā SHD (सोनवद तर्फ शहादा)	SE ; 4-0	4·4 ; 1156 ; 208 ; 545	Shahada; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 22-0	Shahada ; Tue. 4-0	Local ..	W ; Str.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch ; lib.
Sonavāl Tarf Borad SHD (सोनवाल तर्फ बोरद)	NW ; 11-0	1·9 ; 578 ; 87 ; 346	Shahada; 11-0	Dondaicha ; 28-0	Shahada ; Tue. 11-0	Vaijali; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl,
Sonavāl Tarf Havelī SHD (सोनवाल तर्फ हवेली)	NE ; 7-0	0·9 ; 135 ; 24 ; 61	Shahada; 9-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	....	Savkhed ; 3-0	rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Son Bk. AKR (सोन बु.) ..	W ; 6-0	0·8 ; 140 ; 24 ; 71	Dhadgaon ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; ..	Taloda ; Fri. 34-0	Dhadgaon ; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr).

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Son Kh. AKR (सोन खु.) ..	NW ; 6-0	0·8 ; 205 ; 33 ; 119	Dhad-gaon ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 48-0	Taloda ; Fri. 34-0	Dhad-gaon ; 6-0	W.	....
Soṇḍale SDK (सोंडले) ..	S ; 8-0	3·2 ; 177 ; 39 ; 104	Songir ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 14-0	Songir ; Thu. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Sonevāḍī SDK (सोनेवाडी) ..	NE ; 5-0	1·3 ; 682 ; 118 ; 242	Varpade ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 7-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 5-0	Varpa-de ; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dp.
Sorāpāḍā AKA (सोरापाडा) ..	S ; 0-1	0·1 ; 47 ; 13 ; 20	Akkal-kuva ; 0-1	Nandurbar ; 27-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 0-2	Akkal-kuva ; 0-1	W.	Kalikadevi Fr. mg. ; Sud. 15 ; tl.
Srāvaṇi NVP (श्रावणी) ..	NE ; 22-0	3·4 ; 1,186; 197 ; 662	Local ; ..	Khandbara ; 2-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 2-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; dh ; lib ; Ccb.
Srīkheḍ SHD (श्रीखेड) ..	NE ; 14-0	0·9 ; 350 ; 63 ; 189	Khetia ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 31-0	....	....	rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs(gr).
Sukavad SDK (सुकवद) ..	NE ; 4-0	2·0 ; 523 ; 90 ; 226	Sind-khed ; 4-0	Nardane ; 8-0	Sindkhed ; Mon. 4-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; dh ; ch.
Sukavad Pr. Ḍāṅgarī DHL (सुकवद प्र. डांगरी)	NE ; 10-0	3·4 ; 207 ; 37 ; 78	Nyaha-lod ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 10-0	Nyahalod ; Wed. 1-0	Nyaha-lod ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp-gr) ; 2tl ; ch.
Sulatānapūr SHD (सुलतानपूर) ..	NE ; 8-0	4·2 ; 1,084 ; 183; 585	Bramhan-puri ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 27-0	Shahada ; Tue. 8-0	Bram-hanpuri ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; dg ; dh.
Sulavāḍe SDK (सुलवाडे) ..	NE ; 2-0	2·6 ; 472 ; 81 ; 178	Sindkhed; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 4-4	Sindkhed ; Mon. 2-0	Shind-khed ; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dh.
Sulavāḍe SHD (सुलवाडे) ..	NE ; 8-0	2·6 ; 1,472; 81 ; 178	Brahman-puri ; 0-6	Dondaicha ; 28-0	Mhasavad ; Mon. 4-0	Brah-manpuri ; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Suḷe SPR (सुळे) ..	NE ; 8-0	3·7 ; 610 ; 124 ; 273	Dahivad ; 5-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Local ; ..	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Suḷī NVP (सुळी) ..	E ; 7-0	3·6 ; 1,027 ; 166 ; 604	....	....	....	....	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs.
Sundarde NDR (सुंदर्दे) ..	NW ; 3-4	2·4 ; 1,501; 289 ; 848	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 4-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 4-0	.. 0-2	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Shivarya devi Fr. Mrg. Vad. 8 ; 2tl ; mq ; dp.
Suragas AKA (सुरगास) ..	N ; 27-0	0·1 ; 75 ; 11 ; 46	Mulgi ; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 85-0	Akkal-kuva; Wed. 27-0	....	W ; Str.	....
Surapān SKI (सुरपान) ..	W ; 7-0	5·0 ; 639 ; 113 ; 276	Ghodade ; 1-0	Chinchpada ; 25-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 5-0	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9 ; 3tl ; m.

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Suravāṇi AKR (सुरवाणी) ..	W ; 4-0	2·7 ; 829 ; 153 ; 395	Dhad-gaon ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Taloda ; Fri. 30-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs(mp) ; Bhangorya Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Surāy SDK (सुराय) ..	W ; 25-0	4·2 ; 969 ; 133 ; 426	Malpur ; 1-4	Dondaicha ; 7-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 7-0	Malpur; 1-4	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch ; lib.
Sutāre SKI (सुतारे) ..	NW ; 23-0	2·7 ; 581 ; 86 ; 341	Chau-pale ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 18-0	Dahivel ; Thu. 10-0	Dhaner; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Tājapurī SPR (ताजपुरी) ..	SE ; 3-4	2·2 ; 791 ; 124 ; 339	Shirpur ; 3-4	Nardane ; 18-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 3-4	Shirpur; 3-0	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; dg ; ch.
Tākarakheḍā SDK (टाकरखेडा)	NW ; 21-0	3·0 ; 1152 ; 206 ; 463	Sarang-khede ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 7-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 1-0	.. 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mis, mp) ; 2tl ; m ; ch ; lib.
Talāi AKR (तलाई) ..	SW ; 15-0	1·3 ; 436 ; 77 ; 235	Shisa ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Taloda ; Fri. 17-0	Dhad-gaon ; 15-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Tāḷāmbā AKA (ताळांबा) ..	W ; 18-0	1·7 ; 1124 ; 185 ; 714	.. 27-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Khapar ; Tue. 6-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; lib.
Taḷavāḍe DHL (तळवाडे) ..	S ; ..	6·2 ; 1529 ; 265 ; 695	Local ; ..	....	....	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Taḷavāḍe Bk. NDR (तलवाडे बु.)	SE ; 32-0	2·2 ; 631 ; 82 ; 295	Kharde Kh. ; 0-1	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Ranale ; Sun. 6-0	Stage ; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(gr) ; 2tl ; ch.
Taḷave TLD (तळवे) ..	E ; 4-0	1·4 ; 1412 ; 277 ; 632	Taloda ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Taloda ; Fri. 4-0	Taloda; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (c, fmg) ; 2tl.
Taḷodā (Rural Area) TLD तळोदा (ग्रामीण विभाग)	N ; 0-6	N. A. 920 ; 172 ; 328	Taloda ; 0-6	Nandurbar ; 15-0	Taloda ; Fri. 0-6	Taloda; 0-6	W.	2Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Taḷodā (Urban Area) TLD तळोदा (नागरी विभाग १)	HQ ; ..	8·8 ; 14641 ; 2754 ; 2961	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 14-0	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W.	6Sl (5pr, h) ; 7Cs ; Kartika Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3 ; 11tl ; 2mq ; 4dg ; dh ; 3gym ; 2lib ; 2dp ; Cch.
Tāmasavāḍi DHL (तामसवाडी)	NE ; ..	2·6 ; 205 ; 39 ; 74	....	....	....	....	W.	Sl (pr).
Tāmasavāḍi SKI (तामसवाडी)	E ; 9-0	2·0 ; 714 ; 122 ; 367	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 27-0	Vasmar ; Sat. 1-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp-gr) ; tl ; ch.

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Tāmathare SDK (तामथरे) ..	N ; 14-0	3·6 ; 1796 ; 298 ; 783	Mukti ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 11-4	Local ; Sun. ..	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch ; 2dp (1vet).
Taṇḍe SPR (तांडे) ..	SE ; 6-0	4·3 ; 138 ; 33 ; 93	Dahivad ; 2-0	Nardane ; 21-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Dahi- vad ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Taraḍī SPR (तरडी) ..	SE ; 16-0	4·5 ; 889 ; 155 ; 449	Thalner ; 12-0	Nardane ; 35-0	Hol ; Sat. 6-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; dh.
Tārāpūr NVP (तारापूर) ..	NE ; 19-0	1·2 ; 783 ; 119 ; 456	Khat- gaon ; 1-0	Khatgaon ; 1-0	Chinchpada; Fri. 6-0	Kad- van ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(c).
Tarhāḍ SHD (तऱ्हाड) ..	SE ; 27-0	5·9 ; 1084 ; 205 ; 510	Bhamte ; 3-0	Nardane ; 31-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 13-0	Varul ; 3-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; .l,
Tarhāḍi Tarf Borad SHD (तऱ्हाडी तर्फ बोरद)	NW ; 7-0	3·5 ; 716 ; 124 ; 433	Shahada ; 7-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Shahada ; Tue. 7-0	Shaha- da ; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl,
Tarhāḍi Tarf Tarhāḍ SHD (तऱ्हाडी तर्फ तऱ्हाड)	SE ; 23-0	2·8 ; 1735 ; 309 ; 717	Tor- khede ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 14-0	Shahada ; Tue. 23-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Tarhāvad TLD (तऱ्हावद) ..	E ; 8-0	2·6 ; 590 ; 107 ; 305	Mod ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Taloda; Fri. 8-0	.. 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl ; ch.
Tāvakheḍe Pr. Beṭāvad SDK (तावखेडे प्र. बेटावद)	E ; 6-0	2·5 ; 684 ; 127 ; 218	Varshi ; 2-0	Nardane ; 6-0	Varshi ; Tue. 2-0	Varshi ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Tāvakheḍe Pr. N. SDK (तावखेडे प्र. न.)	NW ; 20-0	2·7 ; 828 ; 128 ; 338	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 5-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 5-0	Nimgul; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; ch.
Ṭavaḷāī SHD (टवळाई) ..	N ; 11-0	9·4 ; 2463 ; 376 ; 1231	Amba- pur ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 30-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 3-0	Amba- pur ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(gr); Maha-shivaratra. Fr. Mg ; 4tl ; dp.
Ṭāvālī AKA (टावली) ..	W ; 11-0	0·9 ; 385 ; 69 ; 245	Khapar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 33-0	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	Khapar;5-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Ṭekavāḍe SPR (टेकवाडे) ..	W ; 11-1	3·7 ; 1349 ; 243 ; 567	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 10-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 11-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs(mp, fmg) ; 4tl ; m. ; ch ; lib.
Ṭemalāy SDK (टेमलाय) ..	SE ; 2-0	2·1 ; 257 ; 49 ; 116	Sind- khed ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 4-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 2-0	Sind- khed ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Ṭembhalā AKR (टेंभला) ..	SW ; 7-0	1·3 ; 207 ; 36 ; 98	Dhad- gaon ; 7-0	Nandurbar ; 35-0	Taloda ; Fri. 21-0	Dhad- gaon ; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Ṭembhalī SHD (टेंभली) ..	NE ; 2-4	1·2 ; 384 ; 70 ; 178	Lon- khede ; 0-4	Dondaicha ; 19-4	Shahada ; Tue. 2-4	.. 6-4	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs ; tl.

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Ṭembhe Bk. SPR (टेंभे बु.) ..	W ; 6-0	1·5 ; 463 ; 74 ; 136	Tekvade ; ..	Sindkhed ; 6-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Tek-vade ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Ṭembhe Pr. Bhāmer SKI (टेंभे प्र. भामेर)	E ; 7-0	4·1 ; 194 ; 31 ; 90	Vardhane ; 1-4	....	Vardhane ; Tue. 1-4	Vardha-ne ; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Ṭembhe Pr. Vārse SKI (टेंभे प्र. वार्से)	W ; 24-0	11·8 ; 2093 ; 332 ; 1070	Local ; ..	Chinchpada ; 30-0	Pimpalner ; Fri. 8-0	.. 8-0	W ; n.	5Sl (3pr, 2h) ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; tl.
Ṭembhe Tarf Śahādā SHD (टेंभे तर्फ शहादा)	SW ; 5-0	0·9 ; 462 ; 83 ; 228	Shirud ; 2-0	Ranale ; 8-2	Shahada ; Tue. 5-0	Damar-khede ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl.
Ṭembhe Tarf Sāraṅgakheḍe SHD (टेंभे तर्फ सारंगखेडे)	SE ; 13-0	4·8 ; 1062 ; 182 ; 482	Sarang-khede ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 2-0	Sarang-khede ; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Thāḷaner SPR (थाळनेर) ..	SE ; 12-0	7·5 ; 6587 ; 1144 ; 2397	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 30-0	Local ; Thu. ..	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	2Sl (pr, h) ; 2Cs ; 13tl ; 2mq ; 6dg ; dh ; ch ; lib ; 2dp.
Ṭhāṇā AKA (ठाणा) ..	NW ; 20-0	0·1 ; 61 ; 12 ; 37	Akkal-kuva ; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 46-0	Akkalkuva ; Wed. 20-0	....	W.	....
Ṭhāṇā-vihīr TLD (ठाणा विहीर)	W ; 13-0	2·4 ; 559 ; 88 ; 304	Vanya vihir Kh. ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 25-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 3-0	Vanya-vihir ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Ṭhāṇepāḍa NDR (ठाणेपाडा) ..	S ; 12-0	12·0 ; 1812 ; 299 ; 920	Ashte ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 12-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; Fri. 4-0	.. 2-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) 2tl ; dh.
Ṭheṅgace SHD (ठेंगचे) ..	NW ; 9-0	0·8 ; 53 ; 6 ; 32	Shahada ; 9-0	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Shahada ; Tue. 9-0	.. 9-0	W.	....
Thuvā NVP (थुवा) ..	W ; 5-0	4·7 ; 485 ; 67 ; 255	Navapur ; 5-0	Navapur ; 5-0	Navapur ; Sat. 5-0	Nava-pur ; 5-0	W ; str.	Sl (pr) .
Tiḍhāre SHD (तिधारे) ..	NE ; 10-0	1·0 ; 173 ; 32 ; 90	Mandane ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Mandane ; Thu. 3-0	Asalod ; 2-0	n.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Tikhī DHL (तिखी) ..	S ; 7-0	9·9 ; 838 ; 159 ; 350	Laling ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 7-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 7-0	Dhulia ; 7-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) 3tl ; gym.
Tikhore SHD (तिखोरे) ..	N ; 1-0	2·2 ; 776 ; 143 ; 385	Shahada ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 19-0	Shahada ; Tue. 1-0	Shaha-da ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 3tl.
Tilālī NDR (तिलाली) ..	SE ; 16-0	1·8 ; 390 ; 72 ; 208	Mandal ; 2-0	Ranale ; 8-0	Ranale ; Sun. 4-0	Mandal ; 2-0	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; Cs(mp) tl.
Tiḷāsar NVP (तिळासर) ..	E ; 15-0	1·5 ; 556 ; 102 ; 324	Visar-wadi ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 8-0	Visarwadi ; Thu. 4-0	Stage ; 0-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; lib.

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Ṭimakamauli AKA (टिमकमौली)	NE ; 2-0	0·6 ; 289 ; 43 ; 172	Vanya- vihir Kh. ; 1-0	Nandurbar 22-4	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 1-0	Vanya- vihir ; 1-0	W.	Cs (mp).
Tisagāṅv DHL (तिसगांव) ..	N ; 8-0	2·2 ; 325 ; 74 ; 148	Devb- hane ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 8-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	Nagaon Bk. ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch.
Tiśī NDR (तिशी) ..	E ; 10-0	1·7 ; 386 ; 73 ; 151	Bhaler ;	Local ; ..	Koparli ; Sat. 6-0	Bhaler ; ..	W.	Cs (gr) ; tl.
Ṭiṭāṇe SKI (टिटाणे) ..	N ; 18-0	9·6 ; 1432 ; 253 ; 726	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Nijampur ; Mon. 6-0	Stage ; 0-3	W ; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; Chandika Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; tl ; m ; dh.
Ṭiṭārī SHD (तितरी) ..	NE ; 14-0	0·7 ; 317 ; 53 ; 162	Mandane ; 3-0	Dondaicha ; 32-0	Mandane ; Thu. 3-0	Stage ; ..	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Toḍīkuṇḍ AKA (तोडीकुंड) ..	N ; 16-0	0·2 ; 190 ; 33 ; 99	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 16-0	Akkal- kuva ; 16-0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Ṭokartaḷe NDR (टोकरतळे) ..	SW ; 2-0	3·9 ; 1009 ; 177 ; 475	Dhekvad ; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 2-4	Nandurbar; Tue. 2-0	Nandur- bar ; 2-4	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Tonde SPR (तोंदे) ..	SE ; 18-0	5·0 ; 1108 ; 207 ; 515	Hisale ; 1-0	Amalner ; 14-0	Velde ; Fri. 1-4	Local ; ..	rv.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) 4tl ; dh ; ch.
Torakheḍe SHD (तोरखेडे) ..	SE ; 18-0	4·4 ; 2514 ; 538 ; 1144	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Local ; Mon. ..	Stage ; 0-2	rv.	3Sl(2pr, m); Cs(mp); Bhilya Dev Fr. Ct. Sud. 11 ; 3tl ; dh ; ch ; 2lib ; dp.
Ṭukī SHD (टुकी) ..	SE ; 8-0	1·0 ; 312 ; 60 ; 114	Shahada ; 8-0	Dondaicha ; 24-0	Khetiya ; Sat. 3-0	Savar- khede; 3-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.
Tuḷāje (Siṅgasapūr) TLD तुळाजे (सिंगसपूर) ..	NE ; 14-0	2·6 ; 1169 ; 212 ; 682	Borad ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Borad; Thu. 4-0	Borad ; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Ubhaṇḍ DHL (उभंड) ..	W ; 26-0	2·7 ; 863 ; 141 ; 410	Lon- khedi ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 26-0	Mahal Pandhari (Ner) ; Thu. 6-0	Mahal 6-0 Pandhari (Ner) ;	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 2tl; lib.
Ubhaṇḍ SKI (ऊभंड) ..	E ; 13-0	10·7 ; 836 ; 144 ; 329	Var- dhane ; 2-0	....	Vardhane ; Tue. 2-0	Stage ; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch.
Ubharāṇḍi SKI (उभरांडी) ..	NE; 11-0	3·5 ; 568 ; 104; 217	Dusane; 2-0	Nandurbar; 25-0	Dusane; Sat. 2-0	.. 1-0	n.	Sl(pr); tl.
Uḍāṇe DHL (उडाणे) ..	W ; 10-0	4·6 ; 1459 ; 273 ; 692	Khede ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 10-0	Kusumbe; Wed. 5-0	....	....	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; mp, 4Cs(fmg, 2mis); 2tl; ch ; lib.

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Udepūr AKA. (उदेपूर) ..	W ; 4-0	1·1 ; 887 ; 156 ; 575	Kukur-munde; 13-0	Nandurbar ; 29-0	Khapar; Tue. 1-0	Khapar; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Udhaḷod SHD (उधळोद) ..	E ; 10-0	1·9 ; 613 ; 110 ; 347	....	Dondaicha ; 20-0	Shahada; Tue. 10-0	Asalod; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt; Cs(mp) ; 2tl; dg.
Ukhaḷasāg AKA (उखळसाग) ..	W ; 6-0	0·3 ; 20 ; 4 ; 14	Raising-pur; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar; Tue. 4-0	Khapar; 4-0	W.	....
Ukhaḷasem SHD (उखळसेम) ..	NE ; 14-0	0·4 ; 184 ; 26 ; 84	....	Dondaicha ; 31-0	....	..	rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs(gr).
Ukhaḷavāḍi SPR (उखळवाडी)	NW ; 12-0	2·2 ; 165 ; 35 ; 86	Bhamte ; 3-0	Nardane ; 30-0	Shirpur; Mon. 12-0	Bhamte; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Umaj NDR (उमज) ..	W ; 10-0	3·0 ; 723 ; 122 ; 441	Kothali Kh ; 2-0	Khandbara ; 5-0	Khand-bara; Sun. 5-0	Kothali Kh.; 2-0	n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp); tl.
Umaraḍe Bk. NDR (उमरदे बु.)	NW ; 6-0	2·3 ; 827 ; 151 ; 487	Sundar-de; 1-4	Dhekvad ; 4-0	Nandur-bar; Tue. 6-0	Umar-de ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 2tl.
Umarade Kh. NDR (उमरदे खु.)	E ; 6-0	2·4 ; 1144 ; 207 ; 445	Nandur bar ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 6-0	Nandur-bar ; Tue. 6-0	Nandur-bar; 6-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); Krishna Fr. Srn. Vad 8.
Umarā gavhāṇ AKA (उमरा गव्हाण) ..	NE ; 16-0	0·6 ; 759 ; 128 ; 428	Mulgi; 10-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 16-0	....	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Umarakuvā AKA (उमरकुवा)	W ; 11-0	0·7 ; 326 ; 52 ; 185	Khapar; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 33-0	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	Pechari-deo ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Umarakuvā TLD (उमरकुवा) ..	W ; 11-4	0·2 ; 153 ; 27 ; 69	Taloda ; 11-4	Nandurbar ; 25-4	Taloda ; Fri. 11-4	.. 2-4	W; tl.	....
Umārāṇī Bk. AKR (उमराणी बु.)	N ; 2-0	2·1 ; 398 ; 70 ; 223	Dhad-gaon ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Taloda ; Fri. 33-0	Dhad-gaon; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Umarāṇī Kh. AKR (उमराणी खु.)	N ; 2-0	0·7 ; 232 ; 39 ; 111	Dhad-gaon; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Taloda ; Fri. 30-0	Dhad gaon; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Umarapāṭā SKI (उमरपाटा) ..	W ; 30-0	41·6 ; 4642 ; 793 ; 2433	Local ; ..	Navapur ; 22-0	Varse ; Mon. 6-0	Local ; ..	W; n..	7Sl(pr) ; 2Cs; Patal Devi Fr. Ct. Sud-15; tl ; dg ; dh.
Umaraṭī SHD (उमरटी) ..	N ; 7-0	0·8 ; 73 ; 11 ; 46	Kudha-vad; 4-0	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 3-0	Mhasa-vad; 3-0	rv.	tl.
Umarī TLD (उमरी) ..	E ; 5-0	1·7 ; 193 ; 32 ; 115	Prata-papur ; 2-4	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Taloda; Fri. 5-0	Stage ; ..	W.	tl.

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Umaṭī AKA (उमटी) ..	NE ; 26-0	0·3 ; 246 ; 43 ; 144	Mulgi ; 6-0	Dondaicha ; 72-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	....	n.	....
Umbharaṭī SKI (उंभरटी) ..	SW ; 14-0	5·3 ; 665 ; 102 ; 320	Degaon; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 46-0	....	Digha-ve ; 3-0	pl.	Sl(pr); Cs; tl.
Umbhare SKI. (उंभरे) ..	SW ; 14-0	3·0 ; 721 ; 112 ; 336	Degaon; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 46-0	Kasare; Fri. 6-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Umīlāmaḷ AKA (उमीलामाळ) ..	NE ; 16-0	0·2 ; 311 ; 49 ; 143	Mulgi ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 43-0	Akkal-kuva ; Wed. 16-0	....	W ; n.	....
Uṇṭāvad SHD (उंटावद) ..	N ; 1-0	1·4 ; 282 ; 51 ; 159	Shahada; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 19-0	Shahada ; Tue. 1-0	Shaha-da ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr); 2Cs(c; mis) ; tl ; dh.
Uṇṭavad SPR (उंटावद) ..	S ; 2-0	2·1 ; 1593 ; 299 ; 766	Shripur; 2-0	Nardane ; 18-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 2-0	Shirpur ; 2-0	W; rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 4tl ; ch.
Uparapiṇḍ SPR (उपरपींड) ..	W ; 8-0	1·6 ; 375 ; 64 ; 131	Gidhade; 1-0	Nardane ; 9-0	Sind-khed ; Mon. 4-0	Gidha-de ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Mahadev Fr. Mg. Vad. 14 ; 2tl ; ch.
Vaḍabāre NDR (वडबारे) ..	E ; 10-0	2·2 ; 180 ; 34 ; 79	Ranale ; 2-0	Tishi ; 2-0	Ranale; Sun. 2-0	Bhaler; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; Kathya Dev Fr. Kt. (in Dipavali) ; 2tl.
Vaḍachīl SHD (वडछील) ..	E ; 8-0	5·4 ; 463 ; 78 ; 209	Shahada; 8 0	Dondaicha ; 26-0	Shahada ; Tue. 8-0	Shaha-da ; 8-0	W.	Sl(rl.) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Vaḍade SDK (वडदे) ..	NW ; 21-0	2·4 ; 325 ; 54 ; 111	Tavkhede Pr.N ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 8-0	Sarang-khede ; Sun. 2-0	.. 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch.
Vaḍade Bk. NVP (वडदे बु.) ..	NE ; 21-0	1·5 ; 551 ; 82 ; 278	Khat-gaon ; 2-0	Khatgaon ; 2-0	Khandbara; Sun. 5-0	Local; ..	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp-gr) ; tl.
Vaḍagāṅv DHL (वडगांव) ..	NE ; 8-0	2·4 ; 300 ; 60 ; 173	Vani Bk; 1-0	Dhulia ; 9-0	Dhulia; Tue. 8-0	Vani Bk. ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Vaḍagāṅv SHD (वडगांव) ..	NE ; 13-0	8·4 ; 1323 ; 212 ; 437	Mandane; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 31-0	Mandane; Thu. 2-0	Manda-ne ; 2-0	W ; n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c) ; 2tl; dh ; ch.
Vaḍajaī DHL (वडजई) ..	SE ; 3-0	1·5 ; 1882 ; 333 ; 579	Local; ..	Dhulia ; 4-0	Dhulia; Tue. 3-0	Dhulia; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; lib.
Vaḍajhākan NDR (वडझाकन) ..	W ; 12-0	2·8 ; 465 ; 73 ; 240	Bhadvad; 3-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khand-bara ; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr).
Vaḍakalambī(Ukalapaṇī) NVP वडकळंबी (उकळपाणी)	S ; 8-0	9·6 ; 1253 ; 208 ; 724	Navapur; 6-0	Navapur ; 8-0	Navapur; Sat. 8-0	Stage; ..	W ; rv.	3Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).

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Vaḍakhūt NVP (वडखूट) ..	E ; 8-0	1·6 ; 584 ; 88 ; 270	Chinchpada ; 1-0	Chinchpada ; 1-0	Chinchpada ; Fri. 1-0	Chinchpada ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs.
Vaḍaḷe Kh. SPR (वडळे बु.) ..	E ; 27-0	0·7 ; 208 ; 37 ; 92	Shirpur; 27-0	Nardane ; 42-0	....	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; tl ; dh.
Vaḍalī AKA (वडली) ..	W ; 6-0	0·2 ; 45 ; 8 ; 25	Raisingpur ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 32-0	Khapar ; Tue. 2-0	Khapar ; 2-0	rv.	....
Vaḍalī SDK. (वडली) ..	E ; 12-0	1·7 ; 343 ; 56 ; 148	Kamkhede ; 2-0	Nardane ; 10-0	Nardane ; Sat. 10-0	Kamkhede ; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Vaḍāḷī SHD (वडाळी) ..	SE ; 12-0	5·0 ; 2445 ; 430 ; 1004	Local ; ..	Dondaicha ; 15-0	Local ; Sat. ..	Local; ..	W ; w.	3Sl(pr, m, h) ; 2Cs-(mp, fmg) ; Gorakhanath Fr. Mg. Vad. 13 ; 2tl ; dg ; dh ; 3lib ; 3dp.
Vaḍaṇe DHL (वडणे) ..	NW ; 19-0	3·6 ; 791 ; 141 ; 368	Burzad ; 1-0	Sindkhed ; 15-0	Songir ; Thu. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp) ; tl ; ch ; lib.
Vaḍaphalī (Kāṭhī) AKA वडफळी (काठी) ..	NW ; 30-0	0·3 ; 225 ; 40 ; 105	Mulgi ; 20-0	Nandurbar ; 54-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 30-0	Akkalkuva ; 30-0	rv.	Sl(pr).
Vaḍaphalī (Nālā) AKA वडफळी (नाला) ..	E ; 4-0	0·2 ; 285 ; 53 ; 178	Vanyavihir Kh.; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Vanyavihir Kh. ; Mon. 1-0	Vanyavihir ; 1-0	w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).
Vaḍaphalyā AKR (वडफळ्या) ..	E ; 0-4	0·5 ; 406 ; 86 ; 108	Dhadgaon ; 0-2	Dondaicha ; 60-0	Taloda; Fri. 28-0	Dhadgaon ; 0-4	W ; rv.	....
Vaḍavad NDR (वडवद) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·2 ; 199 ; 38 ; 65	Bhaler ; 2-0	Tishi ; 3-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	Bhaler; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(gr) ; tl.
Vaḍel DHL (वडेल) ..	N ; 9-0	11·2 ; 172 ; 36 ; 97	Deobhane ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 9-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 9-0	Nagaon Bk. ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; tl ; dh.
Vāḍī SDK (वाडी) ..	SW ; 16-0	5·7 ; 399 ; 72 ; 181	Shevade ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 16-0	Lamkani ; Sat. 4-0	.. 0-4	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Vāḍī SHD (वाडी) ..	NW ; 10-0	1·0 ; 133 ; 23 ; 82	....	Tishi ; 18-0	Shahada ; Tue. 10-6	Borad; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr) ; tl.
Vāḍībār AKA (वाडीबार) ..	NE ; 18-0	0·2 ; 211 ; 39 ; 98	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 45-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 18-0	....	rv ; n.	Sl(pr) ; Cs (mp).
Vāḍī Bk. SPR (वाडी बु.) ..	N ; 8-0	4·5 ; 1154 ; 224 ; 581	Shirpur ; 8-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 4tl ; dh.

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Vāḍī Kh. SPR (वाडी खु.) ..	N ; 8-0	1·6 ; 293 ; 59 ; 149	Shirpur ; 8-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Vadi Bk. ; 0-3	W ; rv.	Cs(gr) ; 3tl ; dh.
Vaḍode SDK (वडोदे) ..	E ; 14-0	1·0 ; 120 ; 29 ; 78	.. 0-6	Betavad ; 8-0	Betavad ; Fri. 6-0	Malsar ; ..	W.	tl.
Vāgade NVP (वागदे) ..	NE ; 24-0	3·0 ; 269 ; 36 ; 142	Khandbara ; 3-0	Khandbara; 3-0	Khandbara; Sun. 3-0	Khandbara ; 3-0	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp).
Vāghāḍī SPR (वाघाडी) ..	NW ; 2-0	8·5 ; 3316 ; 621 ; 1470	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 20-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 2-0	.. 0-1	W ; w.	2Sl (pr) ; 3Cs (mp, mis, fmg); Bhavani Fr. Vsk. Sud. 3 ; 7tl ; mq ; dh ; gym.
Vāghāḍī Bk. SDK (वाघाडी बु.).	SE ; 14-0	3·7 ; 1537 ; 281 ; 712	Songir ; 2-4	Nardane ; 6-0	Songir ; Thu. 2-0	Songir; 2-4	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Kakrali Bhavani Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 4tl; ch.
Vāghāḍī Kh. SDK (वाघाडी खु.).	SE ; 14-0	2·9 ; 604 ; 119 ; 323	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 6-0	Songir ; Thu. 3-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); 5Cs (1fmg) ; Bhavani Shankar Fr. Ps. Sud 15 ; 2tl ; mq ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Vāghāḷe NDR (वाघाळे) ..	S ; 10-0	7·8 ; 2045 ; 334 ; 1278	Ashte ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 10-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 10-0	Ashte ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.
Vāgharaḍe SHD (वाघरडे) ..	NE ; 17-0	0·8 ; 462 ; 74 ; 222	Mandane; 5-0	Dondaicha ; 35-0	Mandane ; Thu. 5-0	Javade 2-0 Tarf Haveli ;	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Vāghode NDR (वाघोदे) ..	N ; 1-4	1·5 ; 327 ; 66 ; 134	Nandurbar ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; 1-4	Nandurbar ; Tue. 1-4	Nandurbar ; 1-4	W ; n.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Vāghode SDK (वाघोदे) ..	SE ; 14-0	1·7 ; 740 ; 120 ; 351	Valkhede ;3-0	Betavad ; 3-0	Nardane ; Sat. 3-0	....	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl ; ch.
Vāghode SHD (वाघोदे) ..	NW ; 8-0	1·4 ; 423 ; 67 ; 235	Katharde Digar ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Prakashe ; Wed. 4-0	Vaijali; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Vaijālī SHD (वैजाली) ..	W ; 12-0	3·4 ; 1819 ; 348 ; 969	Katharde Digar ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 18-0	Prakashe ; Tue. 4-0	Local ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 3tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Vāindāṇe NDR (वैंदाणे) ..	SE ; 30-0	9·7 ; 1270 ; 220 ; 683	Kharde Kh. ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 8-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 8-0	Stage ; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Devi Fr. Vsk. Sud. 4; 3tl ; ch.
Vājadare SKI (वाजदरे) ..	N ; 16-0	2·0 ; 314 ; 61 ; 128	Nijampur ; 4-0	Nandurbar ; 20-0	Nijampur; Mon. 4-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; 2tl.

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Vajīrakheḍe DHL (वजीरखेडे) ..	SE ; 15-0	2·8 ; 70 ; 13 ; 31	Chinch-khede ; 0-4	Shirud ; 6-0	Shirud ; Fri. 6-0	Mukti ; 3-0	W.	tl.
Vākādhāman AKA (वाकाधामन) ..	N ; 8-0	0·2 ; 57 ; 10 ; 34	Akkal-kuva ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 38-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 38-0	.. 4-0	W.	....
Vālakheḍe SDK (वालखेडे) ..	SE ; 14-0	6·4 ; 2203 ; 403 ; 983	Local ; ..	Betavad ; 3-4	Betavad ; Fri. 5-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 3tl; lib ; 2dp (1vet).
Vāḷāmbā (Kāṭhī) AKA वाळांबा (काठी) ..	N ; 18-0	0·3 ; 546 ; 89 ; 303	Mulgi ; 8-0	Nandurbar ; 44-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 18-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Vāḷāmbā (Rāyasiṅgapūr)AKA वाळांबा (रायसिंगपूर)	NW ; 10-0	0·5 ; 402 ; 69 ; 213	Khapar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 36-0	Khapar ; Tue. 5-0	....	W ; n.	Sl (pr).
Valavāḍī DHL (वलवाडी) ..	NW ; 2-0	3·3 ; 955 ; 170 ; 389	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; 2-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 2-0	Dhulia; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl ; ch.
Vālavhe SKI (वालव्हे) ..	NW ; 26-0	6·7 ; 780 ; 127 ; 452	Kasbe Chhadavel ; 6-0	Nandurbar ; 22-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; Fri. 6-0	Kasbe Chhadavel ; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs (mp) ; tl.
Vālhērī TLD (वाल्हेरी) ..	NW ; 8-0	2·5 ; 217 ; 38 ; 122	Taloda ; 8-0	Nandurbar; 23-0	Taloda ; Fri. 8-0	Somaval Bk; 4-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Vanakūṭe NDR (वनकूटे) ..	SE ; 11-4	1·4 ; 45 ; 6 ; 21	Ranale ; 1-4	Ranale ; 6-4	Ranale ; Sun. 1-4	Ranale; 1-4	W.	pyt (gr) ; tl.
Vanāval SPR (वनावळ) ..	W ; 6-0	4·1 ; 809 ; 147 ; 370	Jatode ; 2-0	Nardane ; 24-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Shirpur; 6-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; Satiai Fr. on Rangapanchami day; 3tl ; ch.
Vaṇī SDK (वणी) ..	NW ; 14-0	1·7 ; 384 ; 61 ; 138	Daul ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; Thu. 2-0	Dondai-cha ; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; ch.
Vaṇī Bk. DHL(वणी बु.) ..	NE ; 8-0	1·5 ; 898 ; 187 ; 362	Local ; ..	Dhulia ; 9-0	Dhulia ; Tue. 8-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr) ; 2Cs(c) ; 3tl ; lib.
Vaṇī Kh. DHL (वणी खु.) ..	SE ; 18-0	1·3 ; 100 ; 18 ; 43	Dhaman-gaon; 0-3	Shirud ; 5-0	Shirud ; Fri. 5-0	Babre ; 2-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp); 2tl ; dg ; dh.
Vāñjhāḷe NVP (वांझाळे) ..	E ; 30-0	5·3 ; 158 ; 29 ; 84	Bhadvad ; 7-0	Khandbara ; 10-0	Khand-bara ; Sun. 10-0	Khand-bara ; 10-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr).
Vāṇyāvihīr Bk. AKA (वाण्याविहीर बु.) ..	E ; 2-4	0·2 ; 113 ; 16 ; 65	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 0-4	Nandurbar ; 21-4	Vanyavihir Kh ; Mon. 0-4	Vanya-vihir Phata ; 0-4	W.	Cs(mp).
Vāṇyāvihīr Kh. AKA (वाण्याविहीर खु.) ..	E ; 3-0	0·4 ; 669 ; 124 ; 224	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 21-0	Local; Mon. ..	Vanya-vihir Phata ; 0-2	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl; lib.

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Vār DHL (वार) ..	W; 5-6	7·2; 1912; 361; 853	Local; ..	Dhulia; 6-0	Dhulia; Tue. 5-6	Kunda-ne Pr. Ner; 0-6	W; w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; dh.
Varadalī SKI (वरदळी) ..	SW; 24-0	3·0; 159; 22; 97	Dangshirvade; 4-0	....	Warasa; Mon. 4.0	7.0	rv.	Pyt.
Varajhaḍī SDK (वरझडी) ..	SW; 14-0	8·9; 1291; 226; 587	Methi; 1-4	Vikharan; 4-0	Dondaicha; Thu. 9-0	Dondaicha; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Varajhaḍi SPR (वरझडी) ..	N; 7-0	3·9; 396; 80; 214	Shirpur; 7-0	Nardane; 25-0	Shirpur; Mon. 7-0	Karvand; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Varakheḍe DHL (वरखेडे) ..	E; 3-0	3·4; 1702; 287; 794	Local; ..	Dhulia; ?-0	Dhulia; Tue. 3-0	Dhulia; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp); 4tl; lib.
Varakheḍī Bk. AKR (वरखेडी बु.) ..	SW; 10-0	2·1; 529; 101; 277	Dhadgaon; 10-0	Nandurbar; 34-0	Taloda; Fri. 20-0	Dhadgaon; 10-0	W.	Sl (pr); Bhangorya Fr. Phg.
Varakheḍī Kh. AKR (वरखेडी खु.) ..	SW; 9-0	0·7; 216; 38; 106	Dhadgaon; 9-0	Nandurbar; 33-0	Taloda; Fri. 19-0	Dhadgaon; 9-0	W.	Sl (pr).
Varapāḍe SDK (वरपाडे) ..	N; 6-0	2·5; 849; 148; 275	Local; ..	Sindkhed; 8-4	Sindkhed; Mon. 6-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs(mp); 3tl; lib.
Varavāḍe SDK (वरवाडे) ..	W; 14-0	Included in Urban Area I	....	....	....	....	....	....
Varavāḍe SDK (वरवाडे) ..	NW; ..	1·6; 15; 3; 10	....	....	....	....	W; rv.	....
Varavāḍe SPR (वरवाडे) ..	....	Included in Urban Area I	....	....	....	....	....	....
Varavāḍe SPR (वरवाडे) ..	E; 0-6	1·2; 16; 2; 6	Shirpur; 0-6	Nardane; 17-0	Shirpur; Mon. 0-6	Shirpur; 0-6	W.	....
Vardhāṇe SKI (वर्धाणे) ..	NE; 11-0	4·2; 964; 173; 462	Local; 6-0	....	Local; Tue. ..	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); 2tl; lib.
Vardhe SHD (वर्धे) ..	NW; 6-0	0·9; 1036; 185; 470	Shahada; ..	Dondaicha; 24-0	Shahada; Tue. 6-0	Padalde; 3-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl.
Varḍhe SHD (वर्ढे) ..	SW; 5-0	1·4; 380; 67; 193	Shirud; 2-0	Ranale; 8-0	Shahada; Tue. 5-0	Damarkhede; 2-0	W.	Cs (mp); 3tl.
Vārse SKI (वार्से) ..	SW; 24-0	2·0; 706; 116; 367	Kudashi; 4-0	Navapur; 15-0	Local; Mon. ..	Stage; 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(mp); dh.

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Varśī SDK (वर्शी) ..	E ; 6-0	4·5 ; 2830 ; 533 ; 1101	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 4-4	Local ; Tue. ..	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs ; 3tl ; m ; mq ; dh ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Vāruḍ SDK (वारुड) ..	SE ; 11-0	8·5 ; 3318 ; 648 ; 1269	Local ; ..	Nardane ; 2-0	Betavad ; Fri. 4-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; pyt ; Cs ; 3tl ; ch ; lib.
Vāruḷ NDR (वारुळ) ..	N ; 6-0	2·1 ; 181 ; 33 ; 93	Dhamdai ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 6-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 6-0	Dhamdai Phata ; 2-0	rv ; n.	Sl(pr) ; tl.
Varuḷ SDK (वरुळ) ..	W ; 4-0	2·5 ; 1225 ; 208 ; 464	Local ; ..	Sindkhed ; 4-0	Sindkhed; Mon. 4-0	Sindkhed ;	W ; w.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp); 3tl ; ch.
Varuḷ SPR (वरुल) ..	W ; 11-0	3·2 ; 1200 ; 226 ; 565	Bhamte ; 2-0	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 11-0	Stage ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; 2Cs(fmg, mp) ; Mahashivaratra ; Fr. Mrg ; 3tl ; dh.
Varuḷ Tarf Śahādā SHD (वरुळ तर्फ शहादा) ..	S ; 6-0	1·2 ; 724 ; 126 ; 315	Anarad ; 1-0	Dondaicha ; 12-0	Sarangkhede ; Sun. 5-0	Anarad ; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(c); 2tl.
Vāsādare NDR (वासदरे) ..	S ; 5-0	5·7 ; 861 ; 138 ; 468	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	Nandurbar Tue. 5-0	Nandurbar ; 5-0	rv.	Sl(pr) ; pyt(gr) ; Cs(mp) ; 2tl.
Vāsakhedī SKI (वासखेडी) ..	N ; 18-0	3·8 ; 1237 ; 214 ; 597	Local ; ..	Nandurbar ; 30-0	Bramhanvel Wed. 3-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp); 3tl.
Vasalāi NDR (वसलाई) ..	W ; 16-0	2·0 ; 416 ; 71 ; 214	Natavad ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 16-0	Dhanora ; Sat. 5-0	.. 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.
Vasamāne SDK (वसमाने) ..	NW ; 13-0	0·9 ; 361 ; 61 ; 107	Ranjane ; 2-0	Dondaicha ; 10-0	Torkhede ; Mon. 0-2	Torkhede ; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(c) ; tl.
Vasamār SKI (वसमार) ..	E ; 10-0	5·2 ; 1132 ; 199 ; 451	Tamasvadi ; 1-0	Dhulia ; 26-0	Local; Sat. ..	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; tl.
Vāsarḍi SPR (वासर्डी) ..	N ; 10-0	5·1 ; 637 ; 117 ; 306	Shirpur ; 10-0	Nardane ; 26-0	Shirpur; Mon. 10-0	.. 2-0	W; rv	Sl (pr) ; 2tl ; dh.
Varsūs SDK (वर्सूस) ..	NE ; 2-0	3·3 ; 502 ; 86 ; 224	Sindkhed ; 2-0	Sindkhed ; 4-4	Sindkhed; Mon. 2-0	Sindkhed; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; dg ; ch.
Varsūs SKI (वर्सूस) ..	N ; 15-0	3·9 ; 1244 ; 200 ; 586	Vaskhed; 1-4	Nandurbar; 20-0	Nijampur; Mon. 5-0	.. 1-4	W ; rv	Sl(pr); Cs; ch.
Vāṭavī NVP (वाटवी) ..	NE ; 23-0	1·5 ; 356 ; 63 ; 197	Khandbara ; 1-0	Khandbara ; 1-0	Khandbara ; Sun. 1-0	Khandbara; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp-gr) ; tl.
Vāṭhoḍe SPR (वाठोडे) ..	SE ; 6-0	1·2 ; 988 ; 178 ; 431	Savalde ; 9-0	Nardane ; 23-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 6-0	Thalner; 3-0	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp) ; 3tl ; dg ; lib.

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Vāvad NDR (वावद) ..	E ; 6-0	4·2 ; 1016 ; 198 ; 401	Chaupale; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 6-0	Nandurbar: Tue. 6-0	Stage ; ..	W ; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl.
Vāyapūr SDK (वायपूर) ..	S ; 10-0	4·3 ; 1310 ; 244 ; 558	Pimpar-khede ; 1-0	Nardane ; 5-0	Songir ; Thu. 4-0	Pimpar-khede; 1-4	W; w.	Sl (m) ; pyt ; Cs ; 3tl ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Vehagī AKA (वेहगी) ..	NW ; 34-0	0·1 ; 138 ; 24 ; 77	Mulgi ; 12-0	Nandurbar ; 60-0	Akkalkuva Wed. 34-0	....	W ; n.	....
Veheragāṅv SKI (वेहेरगाव) ..	NE ; 12-0	4·0 ; 367 ; 72 ; 175	Dusane ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 25-0	Dusane ; Sat. 2-0	Stage ; ..	N.	tl.
Velāvad NDR (वेळावद) ..	NW ; 8-0	4·6 ; 990 ; 169 ; 558	Pimpalod; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 8-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 8-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs ; 4tl.
Velāvad SHD (वेळावद) ..	NW ; 11-0	1·3 ; 219 ; 38 ; 95	Shahada; 11-0	Tishi ; 17-0	Shahada ; Tue. 11-0	Borad ; 1-6	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt (gr); Navaratra Fr. An. Sud. 5 ; 3tl.
Velhāṇe Bk. DHL (वेल्हाणे बु.) ..	SE ; 14-0	8·8 ; 1815 ; 363 ; 915	Borvihir ; 4-0	Borvihir ; 4-0	Shirud ; Fri. 2-0	Stage ;	W.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, mis); 5tl ; m ; dh ; ch ; lib.
Velī AKA (वेली) ..	NE ; 17-0	0·8 ; 684 ; 130 ; 434	Mulgi ; 3-0	Nandurbar ; 42-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 17-0	....	W ; rv.	Sl (pr).
Verī AKA (वेरी) ..	NE ; 26-0	0·5 ; 498 ; 94 ; 263	Kathi ; 2-0	Nandurbar ; 52-0	Akkalkuva; Wed. 26-0	....	W ;str.	Sl (pr).
Vikavel SDK (विकवेल) .	E ; 13-0	1·0 ; 383 ; 65 ; 155	.. 3-0	Nardane ; 10-0	Nardane ; Sat. 10-0	.. 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp); 2tl ; ch.
Vikharaṇ NDR (विखरण) ..	NE ; 12-3	3·0 ; 1228 ; 222 ; 572	Local ; ..	Tishi ; 5-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 12-3	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 4tl ; ch .
Vikharaṇ SDK (विखरण) ..	W ; 14-0	10·4 ; 2693 ; 507 ; 1287	Local ; ..	Virdel Road ; ..	Dondaicha; Thu. 4-0	Local ; ..	W ; w.	2Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 2Cs ; Dwarkadhish Fr. Kt. Sud. 11 ; 3tl ; dh ; 2lib.
Vikharaṇ Bk. SPR (विखरण बु.)	NW ; 8-0	2·3 ; 1851 ; 359 ; 837	Arthe Bk. ; 2-0	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Local ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr, m) ; Cs ; Bhavani Devi Fr. Mg. Vad. 4 ; 2tl ; lib ; dp.
Vikharaṇ Kh. SPR (विखरण खु.)	NW ; 8-0	0·6 ; 447 ; 66 ; 147	Arthe Bk. ; 2-0	Nardane ; 25-0	Shirpur ; Mon. 8-0	Local ; ..	W.	2Cs (c, mis).
Vikhurle SDK (विखुर्ले)	NW ; 11-0	2·9 ; 623 ; 129 ; 310	.. 1-0	Dondaicha ; 1-4	Dondaicha; Thu. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs (mp) ; 2tl.
Viñcūr Bk. DHL (विंचूर बु.) ..	....	1·9 ; 1691 ; 279 ; 711	..	....	....	....	W.	....
Viracak NDR (विरचक) ..	SW ; 3-0	1·7 ; 931 ; 140 ; 558	Dhek-vad ; 2-0	Dhekvad ; 2-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 3-0	.. 1-0	W; rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs.

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Viradel SDK (विरदेल) ..	NW ; 6-0	3·9 ; 3343 ; 575 ; 1175	Local ; ..	Local ; ..	Local ; Fri. ..	Local ; ..	W ; w.	2Sl (pr, m) ; 4Cs (3 mis, fmg) ; 3tl ; m ; mq ; 2dg ; dh ; gym ; ch ; lib ; dp.
Virakhel SKI (विररबेल) ..	SW ; 22-0	4·4 ; 301 ; 53 ; 149	Balhane ; 4-0	Chinchpada ; 36-0	Pimpalner; Thu. 8-0	.. 4-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl ; ch.
Virapūr AKA (विरपूर) ..	NE ; 2-2	0·6 ; 344 ; 58 ; 189	Vanya-vihir Kh. ; 1-0	Nandurbar ; 22-4	Vanyavihir Kh.; Mon. 1-0	Vanya-vihir Phata ; 1-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs(mp).
Virapūr SHD (विरपूर) ..	NW ; 14-0	2·0 ; 628 ; 112 ; 314	....	Dondaicha ; 31-0	Mhasavad; Mon. 6-0	Dara ; 0-6	W.	Sl (pr) ; tl.
Visaravāḍi NVP (विसरवाडी) ..	E ; 14-0	5·4 ; 3193 ; 569 ; 1393	Local ; ..	Chinchpada ; 3-0	Local ; Thu. ..	Stage ; ..	W.	2Sl (pr) ; Cs ; 2tl ; mq ; dh ; lib ; dp.
Viśvanāth DHL (विश्वनाथ) ..	NE ; 10-3	2·4 ; 612 ; 113 ; 308	Nyahalod; 0-3	Dhulia ; 10-3	Nyahalod; Wed. 0-3	Nyaha-lod ; 0-3	W ; w.	Sl (pr) ; 2Cs (mp, fmg) ; 2tl ; m ; ch.
Viṭāi SDK (विटाइ) ..	SE ; 9-0	0·9 ; 562 ; 104 ; 188	Gorane ; 0-4	Nardane ; 3-0	Nardane; Sat. 4-0	Narda-ne ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; 3Cs (2mis, fmg); Rām Fr. ct. Sud. 9; 4tl ; ch.
Viṭāi SKI (विटाइ) ..	S ; 15-0	4·6 ; 911 ; 150 ; 354	Nadase ; 3-0	Dhulia ; 35-0	Kasare; Fri. 10-0	Local ; ..	W.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; lib.
Viṭāve SKI (विटावे) ..	N ; 23-0	2·5 ; 571 ; 90 ; 265	Bramhan-vel ; 4-4	Nandurbar ; 19-0	Kasbe Chhadavel; Fri. 3-0	Kasbe Chha-davel ; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr) ; pyt ; Cs(mp); lib ; dp.
Vyāhūr NDR (व्याहूर) ..	NW ; 9-4	1·8 ; 479 ; 89 ; 303	....	Nandurbar ; 9-0	Nandurbar; Tue. 9-4	.. 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr) ; Cs ; tl.

LIST OF FOREST VILLAGES INCLUDING THOSE WHICH ARE DESERTED FOREST VILLAGES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Aḍalase NVP (Deserted) (अडळसे) (ओसाड)	Cilhāre SPR (चिल्हारे)
Akavāṇī AKR (अकवाणी)	Cirakhāṇ SHD (चिरखाण)
Asalod (New) SHD (असलोद) (नविन)	Citakheḍī AKR (चितखेडी)
Aṭṭī AKR (अट्टी)	Dhāndre Kh. SHD (धांद्रे खु.)
Bhābarī AKR (भाबरी)	Ḍomakheḍī AKR (डोमखेडी)
Bhādal AKR (भादल)	Durabaḍyā SPR (दुरबड्या)
Bhāmaṇe AKR (भामणे)	Dutakheḍe SHD (दुतखेडे)
Bharaḍ AKR (भरड)	Duṭṭal AKR (दट्टल)
Bhoṅgarā SHD (भोंगरा)	Gadhaḍadev SPR (गधडदेव)
Bhuḍakī SPR (भुडकी)	Gauryā AKR (गौऱ्या)
Bhulāṇe SHD (भुलाणे)	Gendā AKR (गेंदा)
Bhuṣā AKR (भुषा)	Ghaṭlī AKR (घाटली)
Bijarī AKR (बिजरी)	Goraḍī AKR (गोराडी)
Bilagāṅv AKR (बिलगांव)	Hivarakheḍe SPR (हिवरखेडे)
Biyāmāḷ TLD (बियामाळ)	Hoḷ Mubarakapūr SHD (होळ मुबारकपूर)
Bodalā AKR (बोदला)	Jāphī AKR (जाफी)
Borāḍī (New) SPR (बोराडी) (नविन)	Jaralī AKR (जरली)
Borapāṇī SPR (बोरपाणी)	Jhumaṭ AKR (झुमट)
Borasisā AKR (बोरसिसा)	Joyadā SPR (जोयदा)
Borī AKR (बोरी)	Jugaṅī AKR (जुगनी)
Cāndasailī AKR (चांदसैली)	Junānā AKR (जुनाना)
Cāndasailī SHD (चांदसैली)	Kākaḍamāḷ SPR (काकडमाळ)
Chinālakuvā AKR (छिनालकुवा)	Kākarade AKR (काकरदे)
Cicakāṭhī AKR (चिचकाठी)	Kāmod AKR (कामोद)
Cikhalī AKR (चिखली)	Kāmod Bk. AKR (कामोद बु.)

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Kāmod Kh. AKR (कामोद खु.)	Mākaḍakunḍ AKR (माकडकुंड)
Kanasāī SHD (कनसाई)	Maktārajhirā AKR (मक्तारझिरा)
Kātrā AKR (कात्रा)	Māl AKR (माल)
Kelī AKR (केली)	Māḷ AKR (माळ)
Kelī Mojarā AKR (केलीमोजरा)	Mālade TLD (मालदे)
Khaḍakāḷe Bk. AKR (खडकाळे बु.)	Maḷagāṅv SHD (मळगांव)
Khaḍakāḷe Kh. AKR (खडकाळे खु.)	Malāī NVP Deserted (मळई-ओसाड)
Khaḍakī AKR (खडकी)	Mālakātar SPR (माळकातर)
Khāirakhuṭī SPR (खैरखुटी)	Mālāpūr SPR (मालापूर)
Khāmalā AKR (खामला)	Manakheḍī Kh. AKR (मनखेडी खु.)
Khāparakheḍe SHD (खापरखेडे)	Mānamoḍyā SHD (मानमोड्या)
Kharaḍī Bk. AKR (खरडी बु.)	Māṇḍavī Bk. AKR (मांडवी बु.)
Kharaḍī Kh. AKR (खरडी खु.)	Māṇḍavī Kh. AKR (मांडवी खु.)
Khuṭavaḍā AKR (खुटवडा)	Mohide SPR (मोहिदे)
Koḍiḍ SPR (कोडीड)	Nāgajhirī SHD (नागझिरी)
Koṭabāndhaṇī SHD (कोटबांधणी)	Nalagavhāṇ AKR (नळगव्हाण)
Kukalaṭ AKR (कुकलट)	Nāndyā SHD (नांद्या)
Kukatār AKR (कुकतार)	Nāndyā Kusumavāḍe SHD (नांद्या कुसुमवाडे)
Kumbharī AKR (कुंभरी)	Navagāṅv SHD (नवगाव)
Kuṇḍyā AKR (कुंड्या)	Nigadī AKR (निगदी)
Kuvarakhet AKR (कुवरखेत)	Nimagavhāṇ AKR (निमगव्हाण)
Lākaḍyā Hanumān SPR (लाकड्या हनुमान)	Nimakheḍī AKR (निमखेडी)
Lakkaḍakoṭ SHD (लक्कडकोट)	Panākheḍ SPR (पनाखेड)
Laṅgaḍī Bhavānī SHD (लंगडी-भवानी)	[illegible] AKR (जोळ[illegible])
Lekhaḍā AKR—Deserted (लेखडा-ओसाड)	Phalāī AKR (फलाई)
Mahādev Doṇḍavaḍā SPR (महादेव दोंडवडा)	Phattepūr SPR (फत्तेपूर)

TAMIL NADU ARCHIVES LIBRARY No. 26208 EGMORE MADRAS

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Pimpaḷabārī AKR (पिंपळबारी)	Sirasānī AKR (सिरसानी)
Pimpaḷacop AKR (पिंपळचोप)	Surang AKR, (सुरंग)
Pimparāṇī SHD (पिंपराणी)	Telakhaḍi AKR (तेलखडी)
Rājabarḍi AKR (राजबर्डी)	Ṭembhurṇī AKR (टेंभुर्णी)
Rāmapūr SHD Deserted. (रामपूर-ओसाड)	Thuvānī AKR (थुवानी)
Rāṇipūr SHD (राणीपूर)	Toraṇamāḷ AKR (तोरणमाळ)
Roṣmāḷ Kh. AKR (रोषमाळ खु.)	Triśul AKR, (त्रिशूल)
Sādrī AKR (साद्री)	Ubhādāgaḍ SHD (उभादगड)
Śahāṇe SHD (शहाणे)	Uḍadyā AKR (उडद्या)
Sāḷavaṇ NVP Deserted (साळवण-ओसाड)	Ukhāḷiambā AKR (उखळीअंबा)
Sāvaryā AKR (सावऱ्या)	Umaravihīr NVP Deserted (उमरविहीर-ओसाड)
Sāvaryā Digar AKR (सावऱ्या-दिगर)	Umarda SPR (उमर्दा)
Śeladā AKR (शेलदा)	Vahavaṇī AKR (वहवाणी)
Śelagadā AKR (शेलगदा)	Vakavāḍ SPR (वकवाड)
Śelakūi AKR (शेलकुई)	Valavāḷ AKR (वलवाळ)
Śikkā AKR (शिक्का)	Varavalī AKR (वरवली)
Sindavāṇī AKR (सिंदवाणी)	Vāvī AKR (वावी)
Sindī Digar AKR (सिंदी दिगर)	Velakhaḍī AKR (वेलखडी)
Siṅgarāmāḷ NVP Deserted (सिंगारमाळ-ओसाड)	

THE LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES IN DHULIA DISTRICT

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Abhāṇapūr Bk SHD (अभाणपूर बु.)	Juvānī TLD (जुवानी)
Ākhatavāḍe NDR (आखतवाडे)	Kāṭaghar SHD (काटघर)
Cippal AKR (चिप्पल)	Kusumaverī AKR (कुसुमवेरी)
Cittār AKR (चित्तार)	Mahāl Loṇḍhā DHL (महाल-लोंढा)
Dhamāṇī DHL (धमाणी)	Mālakhaṇḍ NDR, (मालखंड)
Dhoḍī DHL (धोडी)	Mamāṇe SHD (ममाणे)
Jhirīsāvar AKA (झिरीसावर)	Velakhāḍī AKA (वेलखाडी)

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

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
1,000 metres =1 kilometre
1,852 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 :

1,000 millilitres = 1 litre
1,000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHT :

1,000 milligrams = 1 gram
1,000 grams = 1 kilogram
100 kilograms = 1 quintal
1,000 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

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
(2) WEIGHT :		
tonne	1,000 kg	t
quintal	100 kg	q
kilogram	1 kg	kg
gram	1 g	g
miligram	1 mg	mg
carat	200 mg	c
(3) CAPACITY :		
Kilolitre	1,000	Kl
litre	1	l
millilitre	1 ml	ml
(4) VOLUME :		
cubic centimetre	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	mm^3	mm^3
(5) LENGTH :		
kilometre	1,000 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

APPENDIX II

A Key to Diacritical Marks

ā—आ ; ī—ई ; ū—ऊ ; ṛ—ऋ ; c—च ; ch—छ ; ṭ—ट ; ṭh—ठ ; ḍ—ड ; ḍh—ढ ; ṇ—न ; ṅ—ङ ; ñ—ञ ; ṇ—ण ; s—स ; ś—श ; ṣ—ष ; ḷ—ळ ;

Current spelling	Diacritical spelling
Ahilyabai Holkar	Ahilyābāī Holkar.
Ahilyapur	Ahilyāpūr
Akrani	Akrāṇī
Akshayatritiya	Akṣayatṛtīyā
Amali	Āmalī
Amlad	Āmlād
Ashtami	Aṣṭamī
Balsane	Balsāne
Bara Khambi Mandir	Bārā Khāmbī Mandir.
Betavad	Beṭāvad.
Bhamer	Bhāmer.
Bodgaon	Bodgāṅv.
Brahmanwel	Brāhmaṇvel.
Chaitra	Caitra.
Chandramauleshwar	Candramauleśvar.
Chavdi	Cāvḍī.
Dedargaon	Dedargāṅv.
Dhadgaon	Dhaḍgāṅv.
Dhanora	Dhānorā.
Dhanpur	Dhanpūr.
Dharmashala	Dharmśāḷā.
Dhayate	Dhāyaṭe.
Dondaicha	Doṇḍāicā.
Dusane	Dusāne.
Dvarkeshvar	Dvārkeśvar.
Gabhara	Gābhārā.
Gadhi	Gaḍhī.
Ganapati	Gaṇapatī.
Gautameshwar	Gautameśvar.
Mahadev	Mahādev.
Garbha Griha	Garbha Gṛha.
Gaurishankar Mulji Vyas	Gauriśaṅkar Muḷjī Vyās.
Gopalkrishna	Gopālkṛṣṇa.
Gupteshwar	Gupteśvar.
Hanuman	Hanumān.
Hemadpanti	Hemāḍpanti.
Javade	Jāvade.
Kakteshvar	Kākteśvar.
Kale Khan	Kāle Khān.
Kalikamata	Kālikāmātā.
Kapileshwar	Kapileśvar.
Kartik Shuddha Ekadashi	Kārtik Śuddha Ekādaśī.
Kashi Vishveshwar	Kāśī Viśveśvar.
Kedareshwar	Kedāreśvar.
Kund	Kuṇḍ.
Lakshman	Lakṣmaṇ.
Lakshmanrav	Lakṣmaṇrāv.
Laling	Laliṅg.
Ling	Liṅg.
Mahadev	Mahādev.
Mahalakshmi	Mahālakṣmī.
Maharashtra	Mahārāṣṭra.
Mahashivratra	Mahāśivrātra.
Mahishasur	Mahiṣāsur.
Malpur	Mālpūr.
Mandane	Mandāne.
Mandap	Maṇḍap.
Mangya-Tungya	Māṅgyā-Tuṅgyā
Mansapuri Devi	Mansāpurī Devī.
Mod	Moḍ.
Mohide-Tarf Haveli	Mohide-Tarf Haveli.
Mudavad	Muḍāvad.
Nandurbar	Nandurbār.
Narayanpur	Narāyaṇpūr.
Navapur	Navāpūr.
Nijampur	Nijāmpūr.
Panchpir	Pāñcpīr.
Pandurang	Pāṇḍuraṅg.
Panjhara	Pānjharā.
Pankhede	Pānkheḍe.
Patan	Pāṭaṇ.
Paurnima	Paurṇimā.
Pimpalner	Pimpaḷner.
Prakashe	Prakāśe.
Ram	Rāma
Ranipur	Rāṇīpūr.
Ratnakar Maharaj	Ratnākar Mahārāj.
Sakri	Sākrī.
Sangameshwar	Saṅgameśvar.
Sarangkheda	Sāraṅgkheḍā.
Shahada	Śahādā.
Shalivahan	Śālivāhan.
Shani	Śanī.

Current spelling	Diacritical spelling
Shankar	Śaṅkar.
Sheshashai	Śeṣaśāī.
Shikhar	Śikhar.
Shirpur	Śirpūr.
Shirud	Śiruḍ.
Shiv	Śiva.
Shravan	Śrāvaṇ.
Siddheshvar	Siddheśvar.
Sindkheda	Sindkheḍā.
Sita	Sītā.
Someshwar Ram	Someśvar Rāma.
Sultanpur	Sultānpūr.
Taloda	Taḷodā.
Tavalai	Ṭavaḷāī.
Thaleshwar	Thāleśvar.
Thalner	Thāḷner.
Toranmal	Toraṇmāḷ.
Torkhede	Torkheḍe.
Trayodashi	Trayodaśī.
Vikharan	Vikharaṇ.
Vinchur	Viñcūr.
Vishnu	Viṣṇu.
Vishveshvar	Viśveśvar.
Yaksha	Yakṣa.
Yeshwantrav	Yeśvantrāv.
Zilla Parishad	Zillā Pariṣad.

PPENDIX III

TABLE No. 1

TAHSILWISE AREA AND POPULATION, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

1	Total Rural Urban 2	Area in sq. km. 3	Population Persons 4	Males 5	Females 6	Population per sq. km. 7
Dhulia District ..	Total	13,143·0	16,62,181	8,49,601	8,12,580	126
	Rural	13,051·1	13,74,445	6,98,755	6,75,690	105
	Urban	91·9	2,87,736	1,50,846	1,36,890	3,137
Dhulia ..	T.	1,946·8	3,80,841	1,97,227	1,83,614	196
	R.	1,920·0	2,43,712	1,24,507	1,19,205	127
	U.	26·8	1,37,129	72,720	64,409	5,126
Sakri ..	T.	2,398·9	2,33,319	1,18 960	1,14,359	97
	R.	2,398·9	2,33,319	1,18 960	1,14,359	97
	U.	....	....	....	....	....
Navapur ..	T.	919·8	1,31,438	66,484	64,954	143
	R.	904·7	1,16,216	58,527	57,689	128
	U.	15·1	15,222	7,957	7,265	1,011
Nandurbar ..	T.	1 100·0	1,82,558	93,199	89,359	166
	R.	1 090·0	1,28,488	65,170	63,318	118
	U.	10·0	54,070	28,029	26,041	5,423
Taloda ..	T.	355·2	70,463	35,652	34,811	198
	R.	332·4	53,437	26,987	26,450	161
	U.	22·8	17,026	8,665	8,361	748
Akkalkuwa ..	T.	846·0	78,707	39,855	38,852	93
	R.	846·0	78,707	39,855	38,852	93
	U.	....	....	....	....	....
Akrani ..	T.	600·9	45,619	23,190	22,429	76
	R.	600·9	45,619	23,190	22,429	76
	U.	....	....	....	....	....
Shahada ..	T.	1,112·4	1,83,682	93,455	90,227	165
	R.	1,099·5	1,65,324	83,854	81,470	150
	U.	12·9	18,358	9,601	8,757	1,426
Shirpur ..	T.	2,002·3	1,53,824	79,030	74,794	77
	R.	2,000·4	1,28,078	65,581	62,497	64
	U.	1·9	25,746	13,449	12,297	13,271
Sindkheda ..	T.	1,280·2	2,01,730	1,02,549	99,181	158
	R.	1,277·8	1,81,545	92,124	89,421	142
	U.	2·4	20,185	10,425	9,760	8,553

TABLE No. 2

URBAN POPULATION, 1971 CENSUS

Town	Area in sq. km.	Population Males	Females	Total	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes	No. of households
(1) Dhulia city ..	26·75	72,720	64,409	1,37,129	5,792	2,896	23,289
(2) Navapur ..	15·05	7,957	7,265	15,222	617	4,381	2,602
(3) Nandurbar ..	9·97	28,029	26,041	54,077	3,672	3,382	9,082
(4) Taloda ..	22·77	8,665	8,361	17,026	670	4,517	3,051
(5) Shahada ..	12·87	9,601	8,757	18,358	1,156	1,809	3,135
(6) Shirpur ..	1·94	13,449	12,297	25,746	1,340	813	4,464
(7) Dondaicha ..	2·36	10,425	9,760	20,185	959	1,227	3,445

TABLE No. 3

STATISTICS OF POPULATION AS PER 1971 CENSUS

Particulars	Total	Rural	Urban
Scheduled Castes	61,506	47,300	14,206
Scheduled Tribes	6,15,801	5,96,776	19,025
Households	2,83,465	2,34,397	49,068
Sex ratio of population	956	967	907
Percentage of rural and urban population to total population.	100	82·69	17·31

Percentage of population living in villages of various population sizes with reference to total rural population.

Less than 200	200-499	500-999	1000-1999	2000-4999
1·95	8.29	20·15	29·75	26·09
	5,000-9999		10,000 and above	
	10·15		3·62	

TABLE No. 4

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION AS PER 1971 CENSUS, DHULIA DISTRICT

Particulars	Cultivators Males	Cultivators Females	Agricultural Labourers Males	Agricultural Labourers Females
District Total	185,010	33,676	146,269	114,538
Rural	180,713	33,377	139,539	109,134
Urban	4,297	299	6,730	5,404

TABLE No. 5

RAINFALL RETURNS AT SELECTED CENTRES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

(Rainfall in mm.)

Station	Total No. of rainy days	Total Rainfall
Akrani	66	587·7
Akkalkuva	62	716·1
Taloda	56	585·1
Shahada	54	508·8
Nandurbar	44	449·2
Shirpur	52	519·5
Shindheda	45	442·3
Navapur	89	1,112·0
Sakri	44	450·5
Dhulia	41	583·5

TABLE No. 6

Land Utilisation, Dhulia District, 1970-71

(Area in hectares)

Total Geographical area	Area under forest	Land put to non-agricultural use	Barren and uncultivable land	Culturable waste	Permanent pasture
1	2	3	4	5	6
14,38,049	5,82,676	16,698	64,213	6,834	59,979

Land under miscellaneous tree-crops etc. not included in area sown	Current fallows	Other fallows	Net area sown	Area sown more than once	Gross cropped area
7	8	9	10	11	12
1,006	14,530	28,588	6,64,525	59,777	7,24,302

TABLE No. 7

Distribution of forest area, Dhulia District, 1971-72

	Type of Forests			
	Reserved	Protected	Unclassified and leased	Total
1	2	3	4	5
Forest Department ..	3,49,862	....	13,493	3,63,355
Revenue Department ..	29,489	....	....	29,489
Total ..	3,79,351	....	13,493	3,92,844

TABLE No. 8

Major and Minor forest products, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Timber		Fuel		Sandalwood		Minor forest products			Total value (Rs.)
Quantity in '000 C. Metres	Value (Rs.)	Quantity in '000 M.T.	Value (Rs.)	Quantity in 000 C. Metres	Value (Rs.)	Bamboo (Rs.)	Grass and grazing (Rs.)	Others (Rs.)	
5	14,32,069	9	3,70,118	..	..	56,581	28,829	1,30,481	20,18,078

Source.—(*i*) Divisional Forest Officer, North Division Dhulia.
(*ii*) Divisional Forest Officer, West Division Dhulia.

TABLE No. 9

Cropped area, Dhulia District, 1970-71

Centres 1	Food crops 2	Non-food crops 3
Akrani ..	13,905	341
Akkalkuva ..	23,956	6,734
Taloda ..	17,521	6,097
Shahada ..	60,512	26,165
Nandurbar ..	63,294	18,717
Shirpur ..	40,722	24,588
Sindkheda ..	71,067	36,841
Navapur ..	42,462	13,926
Sakri ..	1,05,305	27,959
Dhulia ..	91,990	32,200
District Total ..	5,30,734	1,93,568

TABLE No. 10

Co-operative Farming Societies, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Number of Societies	Number of members		Share Capital (in Rs.)	Reserved and other funds (in Rs.)	Working Capital (in Rs.)	Area cultivated by farming Societies (in hectares)
	Societies	Individuals				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
129	....	2,753	6,93,752	79,381	40,38,396	1,200

TABLE No. 11

Area, yield and out-turn of different types of crops, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Crops 1	Area (in hectares) 2	Yield rate per hectare (in kg.) 3	Out-turn (in metric-tons) 4
Cereals—			
Rice ..	19,160	527	10,100
Wheat ..	50,011	960	48,000
Jowar ..	1,15,382	518	59,800
Bajri ..	1,60,571	570	91,500
Other cereals ..	43,644	403	17,600
Total cereals ..	3,88,768	584	2,27,000
Pulses—			
Gram ..	8,314	385	3,200
Tur ..	6,796	603	4,100
Other pulses ..	1,09,605	212	23,200
Total pulses ..	1,24,715	244	30,500
Sugarcane ..	3,082	8,760*	27,000*
Condiments and spices ..	9,359	....	....
Fruits and Vegetables ..	4,809	....	....
Fibres—			
Cotton ..	72,149	0.34**	24,300**
Other Fibres ..	844	....	....
Total Fibres ..	72,993	....	....
Oil Seeds—			
Groundnut ..	1,09,975	733	80,600
Other oil-seeds ..	9,006	....	....
Total oil-seeds ..	1,18,981	....	....
Drugs and Narcotics—			
Tobacco ..	3	....	....
Other Drugs and Narcotics ..	453	....	....
Total Drugs and Narcotics ..	456	....	....

*Sugarcane yield in terms of *Gul*.
**Out-turn of cotton is in terms of bales of 180 kg. (figures in '00).

TABLE No. 12

LIVE-STOCK CENSUS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1966

Classification	Cattle	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Other live-stock	Poultry
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) *Males over three years*—						
(a) Used for breeding only ..	997	49	....	....	....	....
(b) Used for breeding and work	13,105	647	....	....	....	....
(c) Used for work only ..	2,48,815	2,907	....	....	....	....
(d) Others	2,313	151	....	....	....	....
(e) Total males over three years	2,65,230	4,302	....	....	....	....
2) Females over three years—						
(a) In milk	39,408	22,707	....	....	....	....
(b) Dry and not calved evenonce	1,18,000	32,864	....	....	....	....
(c) Working	..	297	....	....	....	....
(d) Others	1,310	253	....	....	....	....
(e) Total memales over three years.	1,58,718	56,121	....	....	....	....
(3) Young Stock	1,20,779	29,619	....	....	....	....
Total ..	5,44,727	90,042	46,859	2,34,442	19,528	3,10,036

TABLE No. 13

AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES AND NUMBER OF IRRIGATION WELLS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1970-71

Source	Area irrigated in hectares	Number of irrigation wells	
Government canals ..	17,485	Total number of irrigation wells	27,321
Private canals ..	..	Number of irrigation wells in use.	20,428
Tanks ..	54	Number of irrigation wells not in use.	2,424
Wells ..	45,687	Number of other wells ..	4,469
Other sources ..	2		
Total net area irrigated ..	63,228		
Total gross area irrigated ..	82,707		

TABLE No. 14

FAMINE AND SCARCITY DATA, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Item	District Total
Famine and Chronic Scarcity—	
(1) Total number of villages in the district	872
(2) Number of villages affected	443
(3) Population affected	4,42,365
(4) Number of villages to which full suspension of Land Revenue is granted.	179
(5) Estimated loss	Not known
(6) Number of relief works started	492
(7) Number of persons employed	27,704
(8) Expenditure incurred on tagai (in Rs.)	70,64,987
(9) Loans distributed under Agriculturists Loans Act (in Rs.) ..	5,73,521

TABLE No. 15

STATISTICS BASED ON ANNUAL SURVEY OF INDUSTRIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1966

Description		Number of Registered factories	Productive Capital (Rs. '000)	Employment (No.)	Gross Output (Rs.'000)	Value added (Rs.'000)
1		2	3	4	5	6
Manufacture of dairy products.	1	8	1,425	175	8,394	153
Manufacture of grain mill products.	7					
Sugar factories and refineries.	....	132	1,786	1,841	2,162	761
Manufacture of miscellaneous food preparations	42	42	9,602	1,206	69,365	2,806
Wine industries	....	....	....	....	....	....
Spinning, weaving and finishing of textiles.	1	29	1,904	739	3,938	677
Manufacture of textiles not classified elsewhere.	28					
Manufacture of pulp, paper and paper board.	1	3	312	46	800	235
Printing, publishing and allied industries.	2					
Manufacture of leather products except footwear products and other wearing apparels.	1	9	543	112	1,106	309
Manufacture of non-metallic mineral products not classified elsewhere.	8					
Repairs of motor vehicles	5	5	1,587	471	4,555	1,156
Manufacturing industries not classified elsewhere.	....					
Electric light and power (generation, transmission and distribution of electric energy).		3	358	162	689	201
District Total ..		231	17,517	4,752	91,009	6,298

Notes.—(*i*) The figures are provisional. (*ii*) The figures are based on actuals of the reporting census sector factories and estimates of sample sector factories. (*iii*) The number of registered factories shown in column 1 are those factories registered with the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, under section 2(*m*) of the Factories Act, 1948. (*iv*) Information pertaining to less than 3 factories in any industry is clubbed with othe industry group.

TABLE No. 16

AVERAGE DAILY EMPLOYMENT OF WORKERS IN FACTORIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

Description of Industry	Number of Registered Factories	Number of closed factories	Number of working factories submitting returns	Total workers in col (4)			Total number of mandays worked	Number of working factories not submitting returns	Number of workers in (9)
				Total	Males	Females			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Gins and Presses	16	2	14	909	400	509	95,382	....	....
Manufacture of dairy products	2	....	2	148	148	..	50,680	....	....
Manufacture of grain mill products ..	8	....	7	143	76	67	24,858	1	17
Sugar factories and refineries	90	66	18	1,773	1,643	130	3,84,337	6	96
Manufacture of miscellaneous food preparations..	36	2	32	1,361	1,043	318	2,92,091	2	32
Tobacco manufacture	9	....	9	439	251	188	1,34,251	....	....
Spinning, weaving and finishing of textiles ..	1	....	1	2,346	2,255	91	7,24,914	....	....
Manufacture of textiles not classified elsewhere ..	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	18
Manufacture of pulp, paper and paper boards ..	1	....	1	11	6	5	3,300	....	....
Printing, publishing and allied industries ..	1	....	1	15	15	....	3,105	....	....
Manufacture of products except weaving apparels	1	....	1	15	6	9	4,590	....	....
Manufacture of rubber products	1	....	1	11	11	....	3,377	....	....
Manufacture of structural clay products ..	4	....	4	70	49	21	18,744	....	....
Manufacture of non-metalic mineral products not elsewhere classified.	12	2	6	84	59	25	10,416	4	71
Iron and steel basic industries ..	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	35
Manufacture of metal products except machinery and transport equipment.	1	....	....	21	21	....	21	....	....
Repairs of motor vehicles	7	....	6	440	440	....	1,49,406	1	20
Manufacturing industries not elsewhere classified	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Electric light and power (generation, transmission and distribution of electric energy).	2	....	1	16	16	....	5,840	1	10
Total ..	195	73	105	7,802	6,439	1,363	19,05,312	17	294

TABLE No. 17

STATISTICS OF WORKERS AND NON-WORKERS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

Particulars	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Total workers	5,94,691	4,34,097	1,60,594	5,16,542	3,68,448	1,48,094	78,149	65,649	12,500
1. Cultivators	2,18,686	1,85,010	33,676	2,14,090	1,80,713	33,377	4,596	4,297	299
2. Agricultural labourers	2,60,807	1,46,269	1,14,538	2,48,673	1,39,539	1,09,134	12,134	6,730	5404
3. Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied activities.	6,038	5,244	794	5,043	4,354	689	995	890	105
4. Mining and quarrying	139	93	46	45	39	6	94	54	40
5. Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs--									
(a) Household Industry	15,622	12,327	3,295	10,295	8,264	2,031	5,327	4,063	1,264
(b) Other than household Industry ..	19,905	18,066	1,839	6,532	6,182	350	13,373	11,884	1,489
6. Construction	5,060	4,563	497	2,227	1,981	246	2,833	2,582	251
7. Trade and commerce	26,100	24,463	1,637	9,559	8,985	574	16,541	15,478	1,063
8. Transport, storage and communications ..	8,093	7,831	262	1,475	1,452	23	6,618	6,379	239
9. Other services	34,241	30,231	4,010	18,603	16,939	1,664	15,638	13,292	2,346
10. Non-workers	10,67,490	4,15,504	6,51,986	8,57,903	3,30,307	5,27,596	2,09,587	85,197	1,24,390

TABLE No. 18

NUMBER OF REGISTERED MONEY-LENDERS AND LOANS ADVANCED BY THEM, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Particulars	
Number of Money-lenders ..	184
Loans advanced to traders (in Rs.) ..	8,96,298
Loans advanced to non-traders (in Rs.) ..	73,14,769
Total (in Rs.) ..	82,11,067

TABLE No. 19

STATISTICS OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Types of Societies	Number of Societies	Number of Members: Societies	Number of Members: Individuals	Share Capital	Reserve and other funds	Working Capital
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Agricultural Credit Societies*	765	..	1,10,752	2,09,07,000	70,84,000	8,68,9300
Agricultural Non-Credit Societies.	817	1,825	44,212	2,14,65,663	87,31,835	1,06,13,700
Non-agricultural Credit Societies.	46	..	7,608	15,15,000	5,00,000	31,05,000
Non-agricultural Non-Credit Societies.	418	2,000	34,321	29,19,636	17,14,947	2,25,84,462

*Loans of Agricultural Credit Societies during the same year are as follows :

Advanced—4,25,08,000
Recovered—3,77,87,000
Outstanding—6,15,65,000
Overdue—2,32,39,000
Percentage—40

TABLE No. 20

STATISTICS OF CO-OPERATIVE BANKS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Particulars	District Central Co-operative Bank	District Industrial Co-operative Bank	District Land Development Bank	Urban bank
Number of branches ..	34	....	11	9
Number of members—				
(i) Societies ..	1,598*	....	....	....
(ii) Individuals ..	....	....	25,257	12,583
	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Share Capital ..	98,02,000	....	65,24,000	25,99,000
Reserve and Other Funds ..	33,68,000	....	8,24,000	13,86,000
Working Capital ..	8,84,67,000	....	507,66,000	2,12,87,000
Loans advanced—				
(i) Short term ..	6,80,98,000	....	....	1,80,79,000
(ii) Medium-term ..	5,463,000	....	....	54,19,000
(iii) Long term ..	....	....	5,25,000	....

*Including Government.

TABLE No. 21

NUMBER OF BANKING OFFICES, DHULIA DISTRICT AT THE BEGINNING OF 1971

Particulars		Number
Number of towns and villages having Banking Offices		30
Population covered		4,12,909*
Scheduled Banks	27	
Co-operative Banks	39	
Other Banks	....	
Total ..	66	

*Provisional,

Note.—The information of Scheduled and Non-Scheduled Commercial Banks is as on 31st March 1971 and of Co-operative Banks is as on 30th June 1970.

TABLE No. 22

INSURANCE STATISTICS, DHULIA DISTRICT (DIVISION NASIK), 1971-72

Particulars	
Number of insurance policies issued . . .	5,757
Amount insured (Rs. in '000) . . .	47,285

TABLE No. 23

COLLECTION OF SMALL SAVINGS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

(Rs. in '000)

Description 1	Target 2	Gross collection 3	With-drawals 4	Net collection 5
National Defence Certificates	....	373	(—) 373	
Two years Defence Certificates	....	9	(—) 9	
Fifteen years Annuity Certificates ..	....	....	....	
Post-Office Savings Banks	25 lakhs	8,933	9,001	(—) 68
Cumulative Time Deposits	..	1,463	964	(—) 499
Others	..	4,376	538	(+) 3,838
Total ..	2,500	14,772	10,885	(+) 3,887

TABLE No. 24

NUMBER OF JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1970-71

Particulars	Number
Companies limited by Shares :—	
(1) Public	2
(2) Private	6
Companies limited by Guarantees and Associations not for profit.—	
(1) Public	....
(2) Private	....
Total ..	8

Note.—The figures are provisional.

TABLE No. 25

Operations of Regulated Markets, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Commodity		Taloda	Shahada	Nandurbar	Shirpur	Dondaicha	Navapur	Sakri	Dhulia
Wheat ..	Q	458	5,617	7,446	1,762	6,223	N.A.	812	13,977
	V	357	4,939	6,791	1,786	60,550	90	703	11,857
Jowar ..	Q	386	2,657	1,590	912	882	10	..	700
	V	389	1,879	1,335	802	835	7	..	555
Bajri ..	Q	3	238	423	1,662	..	..	180	14,715
	V	2	179	311	1,437	..	..	126	11,875
Pulses ..	Q	684	2,829	6,409	1,659	1,927	5,730	145	1,326
	V	809	4,119	8,636	1,791	2,073	6,626	169	1,509
Chillis ..	Q	..	14	5,781	364	4,799	..	16	707
	V	..	29	5,805	353	4,920	..	18	1,267
Cotton ..	Q	..	3,467	..	6,032	11,774	3,760	78	13,225
	V	..	8,533	..	14,540	23,498	9,202	159	30,679
Groundnut ..	Q	1,002	2,382	8,388	3,388	11,634	1,070	3,664	19,235
	V	1,001	2,971	10,092	4,462	16,950	1,293	3,916	2,6451
Others ..	Q	483	1,274	3,388	770	583	140	214	15,076
	V	585	1,887	4,160	1,624	1,279	151	258	10,954

Note.—Quantity in Metric tonnes ; V—Value in '000 Rs.

TABLE No. 26

Operations of Co-operative Marketing Societies, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Particulars	Co-operative Marketing Federation	Taluka Sale and Purchase Unions
1. Number	1	13
2. Number of Members	16	9,632
3. Value of Purchases—		
(a) Agricultural produce	202	464
(b) Agricultural requisites	5,291	10,554
(c) Consumers goods	1,227	4,647
4. Value of Sales—		
(a) As owner	5,484	12,894
(b) As agent	202	35,648
(c) Total	5,686	48,542
5. Sales of agricultural products as owners and as agents—		
(a) Paddy	3	352
(b) Jowar	....	....
(c) Other food-grains	51	8,050
(d) Oil seeds	....	6,525
(e) Jaggery	....	564
(f) Others	203	20,512
(g) Total	257	36,003
6. Agricultural requisites sold as owners and as agents—		
(a) Fertilizers	4,673	8,267
(b) Seeds	202	1,382
(c) Agricultural implements	795	433
(d) Others	16	2,457

TABLE No. 27

Road length according to category and surface classification, Dhulia District, 1971-72

(Length in kms.)

Type of roads	Extra Municipal Roads: B. & C. Division	Extra Municipal Roads: Zilla Parishad	Extra Municipal Roads: Total	Municipal Roads
1	2	3	4	5
Category				
National Highway ..	149·10	..	149·10	..
State Highway	583·13	..	583·13	..
Major District Roads ..	22·24	770·03	792·27	..
Other District Roads ..	..	629·37	629·37	..
Village Roads	..	1,926·59	1,926·59	..
Other Roads	..	..	..	..
Total Road length ..	754·47	3,335·99	4,080·46	..
Surface Classification				
Cement Concrete ..	..	..	..	13·95
Black topped	613·61	43·37	656·98	78·52
Water Bound Macadam ..	50·71	321·97	372·68	37·60
Granular material ..	90·15	752·54	842·69	28·75
Lower types ..	..	2,208·11	2,208·11	24·82
Total Road length ..	754·47	3,325·99	4,080·46	183·64

Source.—(1) Executive Engineer, Buildings and Communications Division, Dhulia.
(2) Executive Engineer, Zilla Parishad, Dhulia.
(3) All Municipalities in Dhulia District.

TABLE No. 28

Operations of Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Item	As on 31st March 1972
1	2
No. of routes as at the end of the year	305
Route distance (in kms.)	14,406·8
Average route distance (in kms.)	47·2
Average per day effective kms. operated	48,910·6
Average number of buses held during the year	199
Average number of buses on road per day	204·9
Average vehicles utilisation (in kms.)	239·9
Percentage load factor	97·1
No. of passengers travelled per day	70,090
Average distance travelled per passenger (in kms.) ..	28·4
Total traffic receipts during the year ('000 Rs.)	2,27,01
Average earnings per passenger (In paise)	88·7

Source.—Divisional Controller, M.S.R.T. Dhulia.

TABLE No. 29

Post, Telegraph And Telephones statistics, Dhulia District, 1961-62, 1965-66, 1970-71 And 1971-72

Year	No. of post offices	No. of telegraph offices	No. of letter boxes	No. of postmen	No. of telephones	No. of radio licences issued and renewed
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1961-62 ..	178	17	291	94	538	5,157
1965-66 ..	238	23	415	105	1,166	12,955
1970-71 ..	269	24	554	78	1,601	23,412
1971-72 ..	285	21	679	84	1,647	32,921

Note.—Figure of Telegraph offices has been reduced as 3 telegraph offices have been converted into non-combined offices.

Source.—(1) Superintendent of Posts and Telegraphs, Dhulia.
(2) Sub-Divisional Officer, Telephones, Dhulia.

TABLE No. 30

Rural Broadcasting statistics in Dhulia District as on 31st March 1972

District / Tahsil	No. of villages in which receiving sets are installed by Rural Broadcasting department as on 31st March 1972	Rural population of villages having receiving sets (1961 Census) as on 31st March 1972	Total No. of Radio farms forums
1	2	3	4
District Total ..	892	9,56,729	8
Akrani	68	23,570	....
Akkalkuwa	84	41,511	....
Taloda	32	22,944	....
Shahada	69	73,644	....
Nandurbar	77	84,027	2
Shirpur	96	1,00,925	....
Sindkheda	121	1,52,319	....
Navapur	72	85,915	....
Sakri	138	1,74,799	....
Dhulia	135	1,97,075	6

Source.—Divisional Engineer, Rural Broadcasting, Bombay Division, Bombay.

TABLE No. 31

Land Revenue Collections, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Particulars	Rs.
Current year consolidated demand (excluding collections of last year and previous years).	5,900,060
Arrears of consolidated land revenue (authorised and unauthorised)	2,680,078
Gross consolidated demand	8,580,138
Remissions	3,83,820
Suspensions	5,239,019
Collections due	2,957,299
Actual collections	2,947,589

TABLE No. 32

Number of Police Personnel, Dhulia District, 1971-72

Particulars	Number
Superintendent of Police	1
Assistant Superintendent of Police	1
Deputy Superintendent of Police	1
Inspector of Police	4
Sub-Inspector of Police	39
Jamadar Head Constable	294
Constable	1,061
Total ..	1,401
Police Stations	17
Out-Posts	27
Sub-Posts	2
Lock-ups	16

TABLE No. 33

Cognizable Crime reported to Police (Class I to IV) Dhulia District, 1971-72

Particulars	Number of Offences
Offences against State, Public tranquility, safety and justice ..	34
Serious offences against persons	224
Serious offences against persons and property or against property only.	312
Minor offences against persons	97
Minor offences against property	742
Total ..	1,409

TABLE No. 34

Work disposed in courts, Dhulia District, 1971

Particulars				Number
Civil ..	Original ..	Regular ..		2,668
		Miscellaneous ..		450
	Appellate ..	Regular ..		265
		Miscellaneous ..		132
Criminals ..	Original ..	Regular ..		12,740
		Miscellaneous ..		....
	Appellate ..	Regular ..		106
		Miscellaneous ..		113

TABLE No. 35

FORESTS—AREA AND PRODUCTS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

1. *Area*—		*Hectares*
Forest Department	.. .. ..	363,355
Revenue Department	.. .. ..	29,489
2. *Value of Forest Produce*—		*Rs.*
Timber	.. .. ..	1,432,069
Fuel	.. .. ..	370,118
Bamboo	.. .. ..	56,581
Grass and grazing	.. .. ..	28,829
Others	.. .. ..	130,481
	Total ..	2,018,078

TABLE No. 36

VETERINARY STATISTICS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Particulars	Number
Hospitals	6
Dispensaries	7
Aid Centres	103
Doctors	23
Stockmen	118
Animals treated in Hospitals, Dispensaries etc.	186,300
Insemination centres	88
Animals inseminated	12,215

TABLE No. 37

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPAL COUNCILS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

(Rs. in '000)

Municipal Council	Income	Expenditure
	(Rs.)	(Rs.)
Taloda	457	468
Shahada	829	902
Nandurbar..	2,717	2,642
Shirpur	793	846
Dondaicha	728	723
Dhulia	5,182	4,580
District Total ..	10,706	10,161

TABLE No. 38

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL BODIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

(Rs. in '000)

Particulars	Income	Expenditure
Village Panchayats	13,306	13,673
Zilla Parishad	84,627	86,314

TABLE No. 39

NUMBER OF LITERATES, DHULIA DISTRICT (1971 CENSUS)

Particulars	Total	Rural	Urban
Literates—			
Males	3,65,016	2,66,797	98,279
Females	1,64,973	1,08,765	56,208
Total	5,29,989	3,75,562	1,54,427
Percentage of Literacy—			
Males	42·96	38·18	65·11
Females	20·30	16·10	41·06
Total	31·88	27·32	53·67

TABLE No. 40

NUMBER OF PUPILS, INSTITUTIONS AND TEACHERS, DHULIA DISTRICT 1970-71

Particulars	Institutions	Pupils	Teachers
Pre-primary schools	32	1,800	51
Primary schools	1,646	2,08,243	6,062
Secondary Schools	147	42,707	1,738
Higher Institutions	14	6,333	339

TABLE No. 41

MEDICAL FACILITIES AVAILABLE THROUGH PUBLIC AND PUBLIC-AIDED BODIES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

Particulars	Number
Hospitals	3
Dispensaries	56
Maternity Homes	12
Primary Health Centres	15
Doctors	70
Vaidyas	30
Nurses	225
Beds—	
Males	167
Females	270
Children	16
Indoor patients treated	18,278
Out-door patients treated	9,08,014

TABLE No. 42

NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

Particulars	Number
Births registered—	
Males	23,095
Females	21,087
Total	44,182
Deaths registered—	
Males	8,524
Females	7,718
Total	16,242
Infant deaths registered—	
Males	1,573
Females	1,346
Total	2,919

TABLE No. 43

DEATHS DUE TO DIFFERENT DISEASES, DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971

Particulars	Number
Malaria	39
Cholera	31
Small-pox	....
Tuberculosis	581
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	468
Typhoid	77
Cancer	110
Other Respiratory diseases	1,674
Accidents	179
Pneumonia	106
Other diseases	12,938
Total...	16,203

TABLE No. 44

NUMBER OF PRINTING PRESSES, NEWS PAPERS, ETC., DHULIA DISTRICT, 1971-72

Particulars	Number
Number of printing presses	85
Number of weeklies	20
Number of Monthlies (including Fortnightlies)	5

TABLE No. 45

STATISTICS OF GENERAL ELECTIONS, DHULIA DISTRICT

Particulars	Parliamentary Constituency (1971)	Assembly Constituency (1972)
Number of constituencies	2	9
Number of total voters	10,20,180	8,18,523
Number of voters who voted	5,51,845	4,26,034
Percentage of votes polled to total number of voters	54	52

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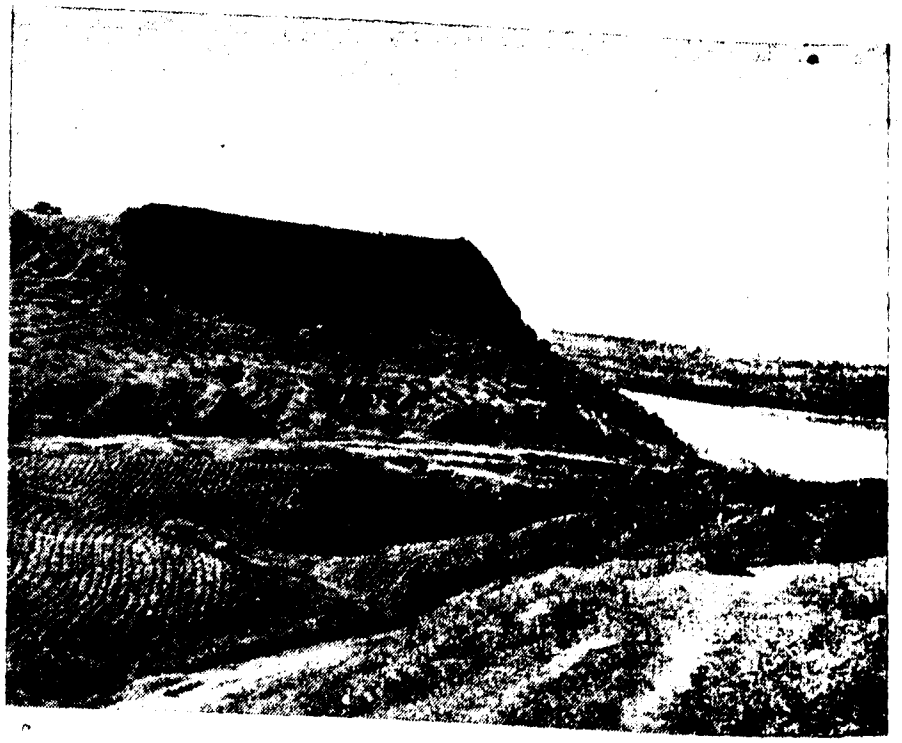
Panoramic view of a road at Torammal

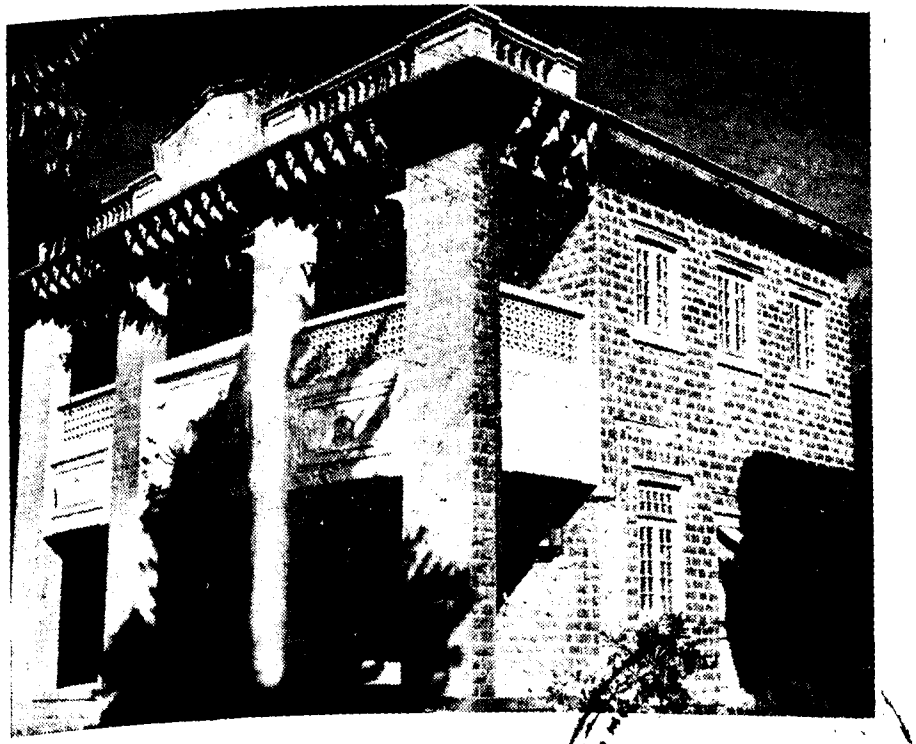
Songir Fort



Thalner Fort

Shree Kshetra Prakashe

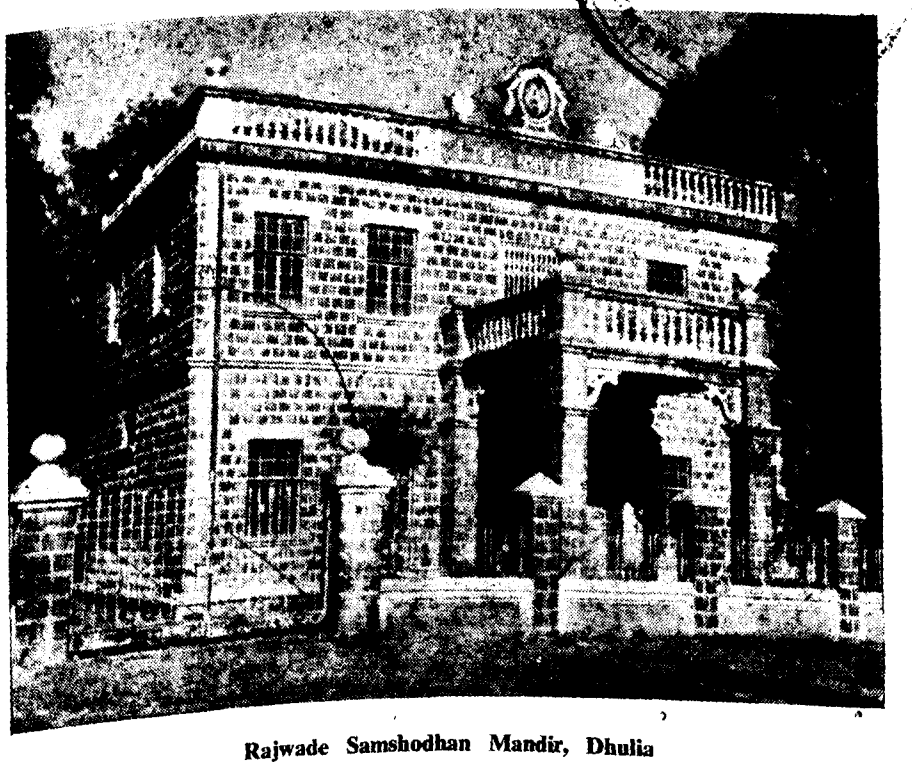
Government Dairy, Dhulia



Samartha Vagdevata Mandir, Dhulia

26208

Adiwasi Folk Dance



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